BEYOND SCREAMING AND SHOUTING: MANAGEMENT AND DISCIPLINE IN THE LOWER PRIMARY MUSIC CLASS

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A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION OF
THE UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER

2011

ACKNOWLEDMENTS

ABSTRACT

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This study is about improving the discipline in order to maximize learning in the lower primary music class of the Oriental Universal School (fictitious name). It was argued that studying the literature is a necessary but not adequate condition for practitioners to improve classroom discipline, therefore, Action Research was employed with the aim of improving teaching practice by achieving effective behaviour management in class. The key research question explored in this study was 'How can classroom management and discipline be improved so that learning of music can be optimized?' The study went on for three academic years with a large amount of data collected, mostly in the form of notes and diaries. Action Research was demonstrated to be an effective way of supporting the process of improving classroom discipline. No one approach alone was adequate in solving discipline problems, but rather, the teacher can use a variety of strategies, according to the situation and context. The most crucial findings were the use of rhythm/vocal echo, positive/negative reinforcement, and the importance of teacher well being (physically and emotionally fit, enthusiastic, positive, and encouraging). Other important long-term strategies included relationship building and working with one child at a time. In doing so, the teacher needs to be knowledgeable, resourceful, and flexible, striving to the best for the students in a loving and yet firm manner. The process of AR can help the teacher to face challenging situations with positive hopes instead of pessimistically dreading difficulties.

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

It is important for teaching professionals to continually improve their teaching. Hopkins (2002) states that our educational systems tend to limit individual initiative by encouraging conformity and control, and one of the ways to improve teaching is to engage in classroom research which is '*an act undertaken by teachers to improve their own or a colleague's teaching, to test the assumptions of educational theory in practice…*' (Hopkins, 2002, p.1).

For twelve years I have been teaching music at the <u>Oriental Universal School</u> (fictitious name) to the students in the Lower Primary grades, which encompass children from Kindergarten to Grade Three classes (i.e. children ages from four to seven). I found out very early in my career that it is no small task to teach music to young children. In a forty-five-minute lesson, it is always indeed a challenge to conduct music lesson for twenty-two extremely bright, energetic, and lively young children.

1.1.1 Kodaly Method

At the school, the Lower Primary Music curriculum is based on the Kodaly Method, which is an approach to teaching the skills of music literacy to young children (Choksy, 1988). Its sequence is a child-developmental one, based on the normal musical progression of children from the minor third, through the notes of the pentation, to the full scales of the major and minor modes. Starting from kindergarten children, the music programme must have at its heart singing and moving. These are the most personal, active, physical, and concrete activities in which the young child can engage in music.

A Kodaly music programme for early childhood classes provides experiences from which children can discover the following (Choksy, 1988, p.21):
a) music can be louder or softer (principles of dynamics);
b) music can be faster or slower (principles of tempo);

c) the size and material of the sound source can affect the quality of the sound produced (timbre);

d) sounds can be longer or shorter (principles of rhythm);

e) there is a regularly occurring underlying beat in music;

f) some beats have a feeling of stress (accent);

g) some songs are 'stepping or marching' songs (2/2, 4/4), while others are 'skipping or galloping' songs (6/8);

h) there are places in the music for taking a breath (phrase);

i) in a song some phrases may be the same, other may be different (form);

j) pitches may move higher or lower or may repeat (melody).

The ten basic concepts above set the foundation to early childhood music education. If children can sing well, step the beat accurately, clap rhythms, apply dynamic and tempo judgments to their songs, and show where sounds are higher and where lower, and have a repertory of some thirty songs, then the symbolic learning – the musical reading and writing – will progress rapidly in the following years from this solid foundation (Choksy, 1988, p.30).

1.1.2   The Music Class

Music should be interesting and enjoyable for young children (Goodkin, 2004) who come to music class expecting a fun time. In doing so, the teacher needs to put a lot of thought, planning, and preparation into each lesson. Furthermore, it is always 'high' time in music since the lessons are activity based and children are expected to be active participants in singing, body movements, playing instruments and musical games. Thus in each music class, the lone teacher needs to exert a great deal of mental and physical energy in teaching, instructing, demonstrating, playing various instruments to accompany children's singing, operating various audio-visual aids and equipment, evaluating, assessing, keeping records of students' achievement, and at the same time, maintaining the children's interest level and focus throughout the lesson.

At the Oriental Universal School, the music room has no desks or chairs, and unlike other subjects such as English or Mathematics, the curriculum followed does not require seatwork for children. All activities are conducted on the carpeted floor where the children sit, stand, or move about. In order to avoid having children sitting

or standing for too long a time, activities are numerous and varied. Transitions from one activity to the next must be handled skillful and orderly in order to avoid chaos. It is indeed an art for the teacher to exercise appropriate control and at the same time not to dampen the enthusiasm of the children.

1.1.3   The Challenge

Since young children have relatively short attention span, in a 45-minute class I need to conduct a fast moving lesson, and to pull out a new bag of tricks every time the children lose their focus. I also find that it is often necessary for the teacher to be theatrical, dramatic and energetic to maintain students' interest and attention, thus each lesson can be extremely physically and emotionally demanding. It is not unlike an artiste performing on stage (Paterson, 2005). I do feel like I am the artiste, performing five to six 'shows' a day, doing my best to captivate my young audience.

Echoing Paterson's (2005) view, the most challenging aspect in teaching for me was neither curriculum design nor teaching methodology, but student discipline, which is a universal and continual concern for teachers (Ban, 1994). The literature has also consistently shown that the majority of the teachers' concern is not major confrontational incidents but rather frequent low level disruption. The pioneer work of Wheldall and Merrett (1988) finds that nearly 20% of primary students are designated as behaviourally troublesome by their teachers and the most frequent misbehaviours are 'talking out of turn' and 'hindering other children'. The Elton Committee (1989) commissioned a large scale study and found that, for many teachers, '... *the flow of their lessons had been impeded or disrupted by having to deal with minor discipline problems, such as pupils 'talking out of turn', 'hindering other pupils', 'making unnecessary (non-verbal) noise' and so on*' (p.61). Studies by Borg & Falzon (1990) and Borg (1998) also report a wide range of student misbehaviors in class, with most of those behaviours being relatively mild. The Steer Report (DfES) (2005) echoes this theme, arguing that such misbehaviour has the effect of draining teachers, interrupted learning and helped to create a climate in which more serious incidents are more likely to occur.

More specifically, Walker (1998) says that perhaps no other element of teaching

is of greater concern to music educators than their ability to control classroom situations. Confusion and behaviour problems often appear in music classes when the group is going from one activity to another. Likewise, the types of low level disruptions in my music room were similar to those found by Wheldall and Merrett (1998) in other classrooms: children's lack of focus, lack of participation, being chatty, talking out of turns, not lining up properly, leaving their designated spots without permission, rolling on the floor and so on. Even though discipline problems were not severe, they often hindered the class from effective learning and fostered a negative class atmosphere. I have realized for a long time that misbehaviour must be properly managed and kept to a minimum. It was this realization that simulated my interest in studying behaviour management in the music classroom for this thesis.

1.2 Research Aims and Objectives

As a teaching professional, it is my desire to do an excellent job and offer the very best. At the time when I conceived this study, curriculum-wise we already had a solid base as the school adapted the Kodaly method of teaching music. The school also provided a good environment – a well-resourced classroom with fully equipped audio-visual aids and a wide range of musical instruments. I found that what needed to be worked on was the 'people factor'. I was challenged daily by some children's negative responses and misbehaviour in class. It is argued that in order to maximize learning it is essential to have good discipline (Kounin, 1970) and a positive environment in the classroom. It is important to have good management and discipline in the classroom so that learning can be optimized (Paterson, 2005).

In a class with so many young children, it was not difficult to find at least a handful who were uncooperative, or those who insisted on having their own agendas. These low-level disruptions could sometimes be contagious: children's behaviour, especially inappropriate ones, fed into one another. For example, if one child got up and bounced around while singing a song, some others would follow suit. Also, quite often when the teacher dealt with one misbehaving child in class, the others would start to chat or to misbehave in some way. It was not unlike putting out scattered small fires with a single lid. As soon as one fire was put out, a new one would start somewhere else.

Rogers (2002) says it is easy for teachers to lose their initial enthusiasm and goodwill after a few years of teaching. Throughout my twenty years of teacher career, I have experienced very negative emotions when dealing with defiant children who made me feel angry, inadequate, and helpless. I have also met numerous teachers who gained control by shouting and using threats. I witnessed that screaming and shouting at students really worked most of the time because fear was induced in children. I also developed a very personal response to these issues, because they affected me (as they do to all teachers) at a very personal and emotional level. As a result I began to realize that honest reflection and self examination were important processes in reaching conclusions about what I might do in order to understand and deal with these difficulties.

However, I realized that the student experience of being shouted at and bullied was very unpleasant because I, like other teachers, also would not like it if my superiors often screamed at me. It would not be hard to imagine the negative impact on children if they were immersed in a learning environment where the teacher screamed and shouted all the time. Cummings et al. (1981) say that increased exposure to anger increased the likelihood of a negative emotion reaction by children. They hypothesize that frequent exposure to angry screaming and shouting threaten children's sense of security with regard to their social environment. Controlling by constantly inducing fear in young children would not be a desirable way in teaching.

I also realized that as a teacher, I could not solve these problems by reflection alone. I was haunted by 'common sense' questions such as: how can a teacher keep on being cheerful and positive, which supposedly promotes a positive classroom atmosphere and is healthy for children's learning and growth (Tate, 2007)? The danger is that children might take advantage of a teacher's kindness. How can a teacher be firm and yet not put children off school? How can I, as a music teacher, make each 45-minute lesson an enjoyable experience for all the children, fostering the children's musicality and creativity? How can management/discipline be improved so that learning can be optimized?

There are numerous suggestions of ways for a teacher to improve discipline in his/her class, and the literature is an importance source that I soon discovered. I read

a number of books on early childhood education and on classroom discipline. In general I had learned a great deal on these issues. For example, Rogers' (2000, 2002, 2004) ways of classroom management and recovery programme; Laslett and Smith's (2002) guide to effective classroom management; and Kounin's (1970) strategies for teachers to elicit high levels of work involvement and low levels of misbehaviour had been quite useful. However, much of the research literature related to student misbehaviour is based on general classrooms and not on music education settings. Furthermore, Rogers (2002) stresses that there are no formulae and no guarantees when it comes to effective discipline. Likewise, I would argue that my situation is rather context specific:

a. Subject teacher – As the literature says it is important for a teacher to build relationship with children (Oliver and Smith, 2000; Rogers, 2002). Subject teachers, however, in general do not have the same opportunities to establish rapport with students as homeroom teachers. In my situation, each class of twenty-two students only comes to music twice a week. Class time is always fast moving and task/action oriented. I have much less time and opportunity to interact with each child at a more personal and deeper level. Building relationship, which is essential for good discipline as the literaure says, would be more difficult for me to achieve.

Also, I teach a total of 12 individual classes of three different grade levels. Each class has its own characteristics in composition and group dynamics. Just to explain the initial rules and routines, for example, I would need to repeat it twelve times, with vocabularies and approaches appropriate to the age of the students. I would also need to acquire a somewhat different set of skills and discipline strategies (from those of the regular classroom teachers), to be versatile and flexible in dealing with the different classes of students and teachers. Some 'problems' are also particular to teaching young children because of the free structure in lower primary music. The other music teachers in the school, teaching higher grade levels, do not share these same 'problems' pertained to my context.

b. Subject matter – Music is an interesting and fun subject. For young children, music lessons need to be 'action-oriented' (Choksy, 1988), much like physical education classes. Children are active participants in music – they sing, do actions, play games, play musical instruments, and so on. Instructions are kept short and to a

minimum. Therefore, music is always 'high' time for children. Since it is packed with activities, chaos and discipline problems tend to arise more often. The excitement of the activities and games often generate noise, laughter, screams, and chatters, which is natural. Only when the excitement and noise go overboard then it becomes an obstacle to learning. Problems also occurred when some children chose not to follow the game rules or they took the games too seriously and did not want to 'lose', thus making a fun game into a verbal fight.

In addition, music, like P.E. (Barney & Deutsch, 2009), is not regarded as a 'core' subject and in general it does not receive the same level of support from school administration and parents as subjects such as English or Mathematics. For instance, in English classes the teacher has the support of both the teaching assistant and another English teacher, but in music the teacher teaches alone. With twenty-two young, dependent children, it can be difficult sometimes for the music teacher to exercise good classroom management and meet individual needs when some children compete for teacher attention. Furthermore, parental attitude also put less weigh in music than in, for example, English. Many parents would not take it very seriously if their children misbehaved in music, because it is 'only music'.

c. Physical environment – unlike a regular classroom, the music room has no desk or chair. The children sit on the floor, which can be uncomfortable when sitting for a long time. This 'less-structured' environment would give young children more opportunities to move about and to misbehave. It would take a lot more work to keep the children focused. Transitions between activities must be skillfully handled in order to avoid excessive noise and lost of concentration. Musical instruments are also potential noisemakers in the hands of young children when not played properly.

In Sum, as a lower primary music teacher, I have to deal with many distinctive variables in the area of discipline. It is important to let children have fun in the classroom but at the same time, to ensure children follow the 'game rules' so learning can occur. Therefore, it is vital for the teacher to be in control and yet not dampen children's enthusiasms. Furthermore, it is very strenuous to teach five to six lessons a day. Quite often by the afternoon I would be physically exhausted, with an overused vocal cord and fading enthusiasm.

The literature alone is not adequate in answering questions specific to my

situation. As Hopkins (2002) says research literature with the range of teaching skills should be regarded as a necessary but not sufficient condition for effective teaching. Furthermore, good discipline does not happen overnight, nor can it be haphazard or hit-or-miss in nature. It takes time and experience to develop and maintain and relies heavily on the teacher's ability to learn from and build upon previous mistakes (Walker, 1998). As Hargreaves (1995) says we need to create a collective professional confidence that can help teachers resist the tendency to become dependent on false scientific certainties, by replacing them with the situated certainties of collective professional wisdom among particular communities of teachers. In my situation, perhaps the best way to approach the question of how to improve discipline in the music class would be doing 'Action Research'. Hopkins (2002) says teachers can engage in testing the assumptions of educational theory in practice through classroom research. My desire to reflect on my personal situation together with theory was my route to finding action research as a strategy.

1.3   Importance of the Study

The purpose of this study is to develop the best teaching practice possible in music for young children, focusing on the areas of classroom management and discipline, through action research and teacher self-reflection. The benefits are manyfold:

a. The students will benefit from good teaching practices that help learning music to become fun and enjoyable (Kyriacou, 2002):

According to Gordon (1990), intuitive aptitude for music stabilizes at about age 9. Therefore, the early childhood years are critical to the development of the child's potential for comprehending and producing music. During these 'developmental years' (from birth to 9), children need a rich musical environment and appropriate guidance from adults so they can assimilate music concepts into personal music making, which prepares them a life time of understanding, performing, enjoying music. It is crucial for music teachers to grasp this window of opportunity and help young children to build a good musical foundation.

This is of first and foremost importance because the existence of the school and the purpose of education are about educating children - they are the only reason for all

that we do - our research, service, and effort.

b. It helps the teacher/practitioner to improve as a reflective educator:

All teachers, at all times, in all contexts need to address the dynamics of teaching and learning and management and discipline as they interact with group dynamics (Rogers, 2002). At some stage teachers need to reflect on the values and aims of behaviour management and discipline whether it is addressing typical behaviours such as 'calling out', 'butting in', task-avoidance, overly loud communication or whether it is issues such as verbal or physical aggression, bullying or substance abuse.

According to Marx et al. (1998), reflective teaching is very crucial to a teacher's learning process. The teachers' professional knowledge is strongly associated with activities and events in the classroom. Teachers' professional development is always process- and situation-oriented, social and subjective. Also, learning to become a good teacher requires much more than the use of either theoretical models or teaching methods. Rogers (2002) stresses that being thoughtfully reflective about our discipline practice is an important first step in considering not only what we do in management and discipline but also what we should do. Postholm et al. (2004) echo that we can develop new ideas and reflections on our teaching when we are encouraged to reflect, explain and answer questions from an interested and sympathetic observer. Classroom research can help in developing practical teaching approaches both for a researcher and an informant. In other words, I as a teacher will strongly improve in both skills and knowledge.

Romano (2004) puts it well when he says,

"*Closer examination of the 'bumpy moments' in my teaching helped me to systematically look at the events over time and offered a retrospective view of how I could handle things differently or make changes to my teaching. Because such moments are usually lost in the continuous activity of teaching, I cannot be sure that I would have been able to gain these insights had I not engaged in this form of action research*". (p.664)

c. The school as a learning community benefits from having progressive, quality teachers and students who are motivated and enjoy learning:

Romano (2004) asserts that for every problematic situation presented in teaching, there are several ways it may be handled depending on the teacher, the factors, and the

complexity of the situation. Through examinations of what he calls 'bumpy moments' over an extended period of time, teachers may collectively and individually make changes that will enhance their own teaching.

Furthermore, undertaking research in their own and colleagues' classrooms is one way in which teachers can increased responsibility for their actions and create a more energetic and dynamic environment in which teacher and learning can occur (Hopkins, 2002). Perhaps other teachers will be encouraged to do classroom research themselves. Currently educational researches are done by people in diverse backgrounds such as university academics and students, and some of whom might not have the practical understanding and experience of the daily functioning of the classroom. More research should be initiated at the practical, classroom level. Peer support groups of teacher-researchers can be formed and ideas can be shared. Programmes using action research seem to have the best chance of success when there is commitment, continuity and communication in the education team (Ponte et al., 2004). University researchers can make use of this partical knowledge from teacher-researchers.

d. The community of music educators can benefit from the findings from this project:

According to Brown and McIntyre (1993), subject considerations have been severely neglected in research on teaching, with the result that our analytic understanding of what is involved in subject teaching is very limited. Even though the above statement is less true today than it was in 1993, the major subjects of language learning, mathematics and science have received considerably more attention than other school subjects such as music. There has been very limited research in music classes and on how to manage a music classroom.

More importantly, this research is the first in such kind. Such a study, using Action Research on improving the discipline of Primary Music class in the context of an International School in South East Asia, as far as I know, has never been undertaken before. It is an example to show that all music educators can do similar studies to improve their teaching.

e. Results of this study also have implications for future research, teacher education and improvement of general teaching practice:

Classroom research increases understanding of the activities in the classroom in all research communities (Gudmundsdottir, 2001). Also, a written narrative on the action processes in the classroom may function as a thinking tool for readers of the text and thus contribute to creating greater understanding among teachers and other interested in educational issues (Postholm et al., 2004). The results of my original study will likely raise more issues for investigation, in the areas of discipline, classroom management, pedagogy in music, and pedagogy in general. Findings from this project will definitely be relevant to a wider audience – both music educators and educators in general.

In sum, teaching is an intellectual and practical activity in ongoing and cumulative need of refinement, development and growth of teachers' professional knowledge. Schon (1983) says that teachers' practice does not consist solely of problem situations that can be resolved by the mechanical application of rules. Education typically involves constantly changing situations, in which teachers have to take well-thought-out decisions on what is the best course of action in a particular situation. Elliot (1991) agrees that teachers' actions cannot be based only on the mechanical application of rules; they must also be based on wise decision-making, which demands a systematic and critical exploration of questions such as

> '*how classroom practices serve student learning, how student learning may serve social outcomes, and what changes in the school might be necessary to facilitate student learning consistent with particular social outcomes*' (Smylie et al., 1999, p.45).

The Elton Committee, in its report Discipline in Schools in England and Wales (DES 1989), gives an excellent conclusion on teachers' group management skills:

> '*First, that teachers' group management skills are probably the single most important factor in achieving good standards of classroom behaviour. Second, that those skills can be taught and learned. Third, that practical training provision in this area is inadequate.*' (p.70)

According to the Steer Report (2009), the above quote, though 21 years old, is still relevant in the Western (U.K.) context now. The assumption is that it is also relevant to my school situation. In the place where my school is located, there has been very few studies in the area of classroom discipline (Leung & Ho, 2001), and there is much

less, if any, studies in the context of international school.

1.4   Personal Philosophy, Orientation and Assumptions in this Research

In this thesis, it is assumed that the music curriculum and instructional strategies used are solid, and not contributors to students' misbehaviour. Classroom organization and facilities are also adequate, thus receiving only a very minor focus. As a veteran music educator, I seek constant improvement and feedbacks from colleagues and supervisors who have been encouraging and reassuring in my competence as a teacher.

Wright et al. (1988) note that the way a teacher manages discipline problems in the classroom is determined a great deal by their personal philosophy and actual experiences in teaching. Kagan (1992) also stresses that what teachers believe and value, both professionally and personally, underpins everything they do and the way they do it. Thus, the following is a summary of my beliefs, assumptions, and approaches to teaching:

- All children, regardless of background, status, and race, are precious gifts for humanity.
- Teachers should enjoy being with children, build good relationship with them by showing kindness, respect, and love.
- Teachers need to be positive, caring, humorous, sensitive, and flexible.
- Children with certain 'positive' attributes tend to be better liked by adults. Teachers should avoid favouritism, as it is 'natural' to pay more attention to good-looking, intelligent, pleasant, and co-operative children.
- Whenever possible, intrinsic motivation should be fostered in a positive learning environment where people feel they will not be harmed, where they are given choices that encourage ownership in their own work, and where self-evaluation and self-correction are the dominant approaches to growth (Marshall, 2005).
- There are both positive and negative attributes in human nature. In spite of having a good conscience, there is also a destructive side in human kind (Dobson, 1978, 1992, 2006).
- Children need to be guided and taught. In spite of genetic disposition, the

environment plays an utterly important role. Teachers should give behavioural and educational guidelines and boundaries, as well as provide the best learning environment for children within their capability.

- Ways of teaching children must be pedagogically and developmentally sound.

- A music educator should be a role model for children, both in music and in being a person. The teacher must be competent in his/her craft. Children must catch the excitement in music making, and also develop good characters as responsible citizens.

- There are limitations in one's ability (mental, physical, etc.) and knowledge. Teachers should strive for doing their best and yet recognize their limitations, and seeking constant development and improvement in both skills and knowledge, and in character.

1.5   Key Research Questions

With the aim of improving teaching practice by achieving effective behaviour management in class, the key research question explored in this study is 'How can classroom management and discipline be improved so that learning of music can be optimized in the lower primary classroom?'

As we shall see in the next section, there are a host of approaches in classroom behaviour management. Some have similar underlying assumptions (such as Social Approach and Humanistic Approach), while others have conflicting orientations and philosophies (such as Behaviourism and Cognitivism). In my own unique classroom context, are some of these approaches more appropriate than the others? Is there one best approach in my situation? Each person has his/her own philosophies, personalities, strengths, and limitations. How can I fit some of these theoretical approaches into my own orientations? Furthermore, some of these approaches are seemingly highly theoretical, how can I apply them in my everyday practice?

Throughout this action research project, my own experience and personal accounts of teaching episodes will be shared, and the pronoun 'I' is also used often. This will by no means diminish the scholarly value of this paper. For out of my certain 'experience' as a teacher, I was challenged and motivated to take up this study. My twenty years of teaching 'experience' has also given me insights into and

perspectives on teaching. Besides, many reputable researchers also site their own experiences in their scholarly work. For example, Moyles (1992) shares her initial phases of experience as a new teacher; Miller (2003) uses the pronoun 'I' throughout his book and shares numerous accounts of personal anecdotes; Rogers (2002) gives detailed accounts of his early years in a British school. Other works by, for example, Carpenter (2002), Parsons (2002), O'Brien (2002), Richmond (2002), and Robertson (2002), all contain personal examples, and the list goes on. Teaching and learning are human endeavours, and personal experiences should not be avoided. They are useful examples in illustrating certain points, as long as the author does not claim universality of those experiences even though the readers might find commonality between those accounts and their own.

2 Literature Review

2.1 General Introduction

This thesis involves literature in two broad areas, namely, 'Action Research' and 'Classroom Management and Discipline'. The focus in this chapter is on 'Classroom Management and Discipline'; while 'Action Research' will be discussed in the Research Methodology section. Both topics are indeed very broad and there have been literally thousands of books and articles written. Given the limited scope of this paper, it is impossible to exhaust all literature resources. Attempts have been made to review some of the major and most influential theories, with the assumption that these theories and views do represent the 'main picture' in both topics.

According to Tauber (2007), there has been little brand-new information generated on classroom management in recent years. For example, Overman's (1979) article on effective student management presents the work of Gordon, Dreikurs, and Glasser. Wolfgang and Glickman's (1980) book, *Solving Discipline Problems*, contains works of these same authors. Some 25 years later, Wolfgang's (2005) book, *Solving Discipline and Classroom Management Problems: Methods and Models for Today's Teachers*, includes most of the same authors. Furthermore, the works of Cangelosi (1988), McDaniel (1994), Edwards (2004), and Charles (2005), all list these same authors among their highlighted models of discipline.

The search of literature has been extensive for this project. My starting point was the classroom management section of the various university libraries. Selected books and articles published in recent years were reviewed and from there, a great number of other references were retrieved. The course supervisor gave guidance and suggestions as to the directions of literature search. As a result, the work of Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979, 1986, 1989, 1995), Molner and Lindquist (1989), Cooper and Upton (1991), etc. were examined. The use of internet had also been invaluable and essential. Google Scholar and ERIC (the Education Resources Information Center – U.S. Department of Education) searches on general topics such as 'classroom management', 'classroom discipline', 'action research', 'primary music' and so on produced a great amount of useful information. Subsequently, as the search became narrower and more specific, topics such as 'behaviourism', 'good

behaviour games', 'psychoeducation', 'assertive discipline', 'Kounin', to name a few, were looked into.

There have not been many studies on classroom management using 'Action Research'. Among the few relevant ones, action research has shown to be useful. Lin (2003) found that through the use of action research, novice teachers gained a deeper understanding of their own pedagogical strategies and thus improved their teaching practices. Francois et al. (1999) reported, in their action research study, that classroom discipline was positively affected by constant feedback to secondary students about teacher expectations. Similarly, Gerk et al. (1997) noted that the behaviour of primary students improved as a result of interventions using action research.

In 'Classroom Management and Discipline', two types of literature can be found. First, there is 'advice-literature', such as McIntyre's (2003) *Behaviour Survival Guide for Kids'*. These are 'manuals' and 'handbooks' for teachers and parents, as quick 'how to' guides. Then, there is 'research-based literature', such as those by Kounin (1970) and Olsen and Cooper (2001). In this thesis, both types of literature were used, with the emphasis on the research-based literature.

This thesis deals mainly with lower primary children in the music class. Effort has been made to look for appropriate literature applicable in this context. Some programmes might be effectiveness as a whole school approach, but will not be mentioned in detail because of their low applicability and relevancy in my situation. For instance, the social approach, which is a whole school approach, would likely to have limited success if applied in isolation in my classroom. Thus, the literature review seeks to identify approaches that are empirically most sound and deal with lower primary children in a music room context.

2.2   Classroom Management and Discipline

When it comes to classroom Management and Discipline, most writers treat the two as one single subject, as reflected in the literature (e.g. Laslett and Smith, 1984; Rogers, 2002). Both of these terms, 'management' and 'discipline' are often synonymously used in referring to the management of student behaviour. Strictly

speaking, 'classroom management' is an umbrella term in describing a range of teacher actions taken to ensure a quality learning environment (Wong and Wong, 2001), and 'discipline' (or behaviour management) is a major component within. In this thesis, the terms 'classroom organization' and 'discipline' are used in order to avoid confusion. Classroom organization deals with the management of classroom materials, procedures, and environment; while discipline deals with the management of student behaviour.

2.2.1   Classroom Organisation

In the search of literature, it appeared that the vast majority of researchers deal with student discipline as the main focus when they talk about classroom management. Classroom procedures, organisation of materials and the set up of the physical environment are very minor in comparison. Even thought the focus of this project is not on classroom organisation, it is important to briefly mention some studies done on this relatively neglected area, as studies suggest that physical environment and classroom set up do affect student behaviour.

In the early 1970s, the concept of office landscape became prominent, especially in German studies (Fulton, 1991). Brooks and Kaplan (1972) assert there is evidence that the physical environment affect human behaviour and perception. Goulette (1970) views the person as a part of the environment and claims that the impression a facility makes on participants would either help or hinder the business meeting. Hathaway (1988) concludes that building occupants' anxiety levels increase when buildings are operated at or near maximum capacity. Concepts as such were extended to educational settings (Becker et al., 1973).

Many studies provide evidence of physical environment influencing student behaviour. Bailey (1970) states that overcrowding and the associated noise provide the climate for student disruption. Webb (1976) finds that high density and overly crowded school environment could result in various behavioural problems. Similarly, both Edwards (1991) and Cash (1993) find that students' standardized achievement scores were lower in schools with poor building conditions. Rivera-Batiz and Marti's (1995) study found that students in overcrowded schools scored significantly lower on both mathematics and reading exams. On the other hand, Garret (1980) finds that

students in an open space facility exhibit less disruptive behaviour and students in run-down schools tend to be more disruptive in class. In Bowers and Burkett's (1987) study, scores in reading, listening, language, and arithmetic showed a significant difference, with the students in the modern building (with proper educational facilities and resources such the science labs and sports fields) performing much better than those in the older school. Those in modern facilities also had a better record in health, attendance, and discipline.

Other factors contributing to student achievement include classroom temperature, special instructional facilities, and colour and interior painting (McGuffey, 1982). Andrews and Neuroth (1988) indicate that the quality of air and ventilation might significantly affect students' ability to concentrate. In addition, students and teachers agree that overcrowding negatively affect both classroom activities and instructional techniques (Hines, 1996). Proper physical environment with adequate educational resources and facilities can also improve teaching (Lowe, 1990) and teacher morale (Corcoran et al., 1988).

Some of the school effectiveness studies, however, find that the differences in school buildings are less significant than other factors. For example, Rutter et al.'s (1979) pioneering study claims that effective schools are characterized by

> '*the degree of academic emphasis, teacher actions in lessons, the availability of incentives and rewards, good conditions for pupils, and the extent to which children are able to take responsibility*' (p.178).

These findings were later supported by Mortimore et al. (1988), and also by Sammons et al. (1995). Woolner et al. (2007), suggest that although the research often indicates the parameters of an effective environment, there is an overall lack of empirical evidences about the impact of individual elements of the physical environment which might inform school design at a practical level to support student achievement.

Nevertheless, there are indications that environmental change can be part of a catalytic process of school development and improvement. Kumar et al. (2008) suggest that although the independent effects of the physical environment of student outcomes may be modest, schools' structural features and their attractiveness make a difference in the extent to which students are likely to engage in truancy and drug use.

The literature has, for the most part, shown that the physical arrangement can affect the behaviour of both students and teachers (Weinstein, 1992; Stewart and Evans, 1997; Savage, 1999); and that a well-structured classroom tends to improve student academic and behavioural outcomes (MacAulay, 1990; Walker and Walker, 1991; Walker et al., 1995). Moreover, the classroom environment acts as a symbol to students and others regarding what teachers value in behaviour and learning (Weinstein, 1992; Savage, 1999). Cooper and Tiknaz (2007) note that it is inappropriate to separate students' cognitive development (learning) from emotional development and the social context in which learning takes place, and students identify as either positive or negative feelings about the school and themselves. Students are affronted by scruffy and uncared for buildings, as this reflects something of the extent to which they valued or not by the school management and their teachers (Cooper, 1993).

McKee and Witt (1990) suggest that in creating ideal conditions for learning, teachers need to be mindful of the different aspects of the classroom environment. In general, a well-structured classroom has the following attributes (Weinstein, 1981; Finkel, 1984; Fletcher, 1983; Galbraith, 1989, 1990; Pappas, 1990; Hiemstra and Sisco, 1990; MacAulay, 1990; Vosko, 1991; Fulton, 1991; Rinehart, 1991; Shores et al., 1993; Walker and Walker, 1991; Walker et al., 1995; Wolfgang, 1996; Stewart and Evans, 1997; Bettenhausen, 1998; Quinn et al., 2000):

- Spaces clearly defined for different purposes and clear expectation on student behaviour in each of these areas;
- Row seating facilitates on-task behaviour and academic learning; whereas more open arrangements facilitate social exchanges;
- Limit student contact in 'high-traffic' areas (e.g. around the pencil sharpener); and seat easily distracted students in close physical proximity to the teacher and farther away from 'high-traffic' areas;
- Students and teacher should have clear view of one another at all times;
- Limit visual and auditory stimulation which may distract students with attention and behaviour problems;
- Keep the classroom clean, safe, orderly and well-organized, with appropriate furniture, media equipment, lighting, ventilation, and temperature.

In sum, most writers use the term 'classroom management' as a broad term to encompass the wide range of factors that teachers have to take into account when they attempt to achieve and maintain a state of active, harmonious social and educational engagement among their students in a classroom. This includes classroom organization and discipline. The evidence seems to suggest that classroom organisation, though often a neglected topic, cannot be taken for granted because it has an impact on student behaviour. Perhaps in comparison, student discipline is not as straight forward as classroom organization as people are often less predictable than the environment.

2.2.2   History and Frameworks of Discipline

2.2.2.1   Historical Perspective and Philosophy of Discipline

"*The young are permanently in a state resembling intoxication.*" – Aristotle (Circa 350 B.C.)

"*The problem of student discipline is a painful thorn in the flesh of public education.*" (Ban, 1994, p.260)

The age-old problem of indiscipline among children and young people refers to students exhibiting inappropriate behaviour in the classroom, disrupting the learning environment. In the distant past, the teacher was seen as the authority and pupils were expected to listen and obey instructions. Those who did not comply would suffer physical punishment such as caning, though this form of harsh treatment may only induce fear and outward obedience (Rogers, 2002; Miller, 2003). However, as Rogers notes, time has changed and teachers and school authorities can no longer apply corporal punishment on students. DeMause (1974) suggests that there has been a slow but general improvement in child care over the years, leading to less use of harsh forms of physical coercion. These have eventually been replaced in the mid-twentieth century by rearing characterized by a permissiveness that leads to allowing the child to fulfill his/her needs at each stage of maturation. Thus, today all industrialized countries in the world except parts of U.S., and one state in Australia, prohibit corporal punishment in schools (Tauber, 2007). As the Western society has the

growing judicial belief in freedom, democracy, due process, and individual rights for children (Hyman et al., 1982), the approach in classroom discipline has become more humanistic and 'child-centered' (Kyriacou, 2002). However, it seems that discipline problem in schools has not been lessened. For example, the concern of rising discipline problem in the U.S. is echoed by a number of researchers (e.g. Edwards, 1993; Cothran and Ennis, 1997; Johns, 1997). More recently, Charles (2005) says that '*the concern about discipline is not declining but is growing year by year*' (p.3).

Literature on the topic of classroom discipline began to appear increasingly in the 60s, with the 'Behavioural Approach' pioneered by Madsen et al. (1968). During the 70s, a great influx of studies and literature appeared, such as Kounin (1970), Brophy and Good (1974), Marland (1975), Francis (1975), Brophy and Evertson (1976), Hopkins and Conard (1976), Rutter and Madge (1977), Tanner (1978), Lemlech (1979), Smith (1979), and Rutter et al. (1979). These authors covered various aspects of classroom management, from taking ownership of the classroom (e.g. Francis, 1975) to building relationship with children (e.g. Brophy and Good, 1974). Over the years, many more books and articles have been written, offering various viewpoints and ways to deal with discipline problems.

According to Slee (1995), historically the problem of discipline has been to bring the impulses and conduct of the individual into harmony with the standards and ideas of a master. For instance, school discipline in the early 1900s meant the submission of the pupil's will to that of the teacher (Bagley, 1914). Even today, the meaning of 'discipline' in Merrian Webster's dictionary entails training, correcting, controlling, and punishment. As Slee states, the term 'discipline' has a negative connotation, and down through the years it means 'control', with the emphasis of authoritarianism. Furthermore, concerning discipline in Australian schools, Slee (1995, p.64) says that:

- the notion of discipline is seldom explored beyond simplistic neo-Sknnerian behaviourism;
- the cause for disruptive behaviour is reduced to the dysfunctionality of pupil pathologies, families, cultural, or class backgrounds;
- the question of professional interest in the identification and treatment of disruptive behaviour is seldom acknowledged;
- scant attention to policy precedents undermines the nature, content, and impact of

education department interventions.

Schools in other parts of the Western world do share a similar picture. Discipline has been substituted for control rather than theorized as an educational quest consistent with the aims of democratic citizenship. That means the emphasis of discipline should not be just having students under control so they behave properly, but that they actually learn the knowledge intended. Slee notes that even though most education departments, like the Queensland government, have undergone a great change in educational policy, and moved from corporal punishments and suspension from school attendance to more therapeutic models of intervention and control, the problem of control remains central.

Owing to the social arrangements and political context of education and schooling, teachers often tend to find themselves struggling to establish an appropriate social and educational climate, and as a result, sometimes resort to crowd control. Furthermore, school discipline and classroom management literature has been dominated by genres within educational psychology. The major influence include the 'Science of Behaviour' (Skinner, 1968, 1972), 'Reality and Control Therapies' (Glasser, 1965, 1969), and 'Humanistic Psychology' (Rogers, 1969). Educational departments and school policies tend to draw from these traditions to provide the rationale and machinery for student compliance. According to Slee, this is not educational. Rather, we need to re-position discipline as an issue of curriculum, organizational and pedagogical ecology, including how and what we teach, where it leads students, and how the organizational conduct of schools and classrooms is configured.

Slee's ideas are not new. Locke (1693) said if we imposed control artificially, education would become a victim by association: *the oppressive behaviour of school masters resulted in students 'losing all vigour and industry', their behaviour correspondingly reduced 'to a state worse than the former'* (Garforth, 1964 ed., p.111). Dewey (1916) also separated discipline as educational and control as subordinate:

"*Discipline is positive. To cow the spirit, to subdue inclination, to compel obedience, to mortify the flesh, to make a subordinate perform an uncongenial task – these things are or are not disciplinary according to the development of*

the power to recognize what one is about and to persistence in accomplishment"
(p.129).

For Slee, the purpose of discipline should be educational, which might mean gaining academic knowledge, it seems. However, Slee has not taken into account that discipline can also incorporate the construct of self-discipline or the internalisation of controls, which is a psychodynamic concept. For this project, the purpose of discipline is not purely for academic tasks, as the school's mission statement states that one of the major tasks is *'preparing students to be responsible, ethical and compassionate individuals'*. This is also in line with McIntyre's (2003) suggestion that teachers should not only meet the children's academic needs, but also build their characters as ethical, responsible individuals. Similarly, Dobson (1992) states that educators should not only 'teach the subject' but also 'teach the children' so they can learn how to live in order to build a productive and peaceful society. He further argues that 'control' is necessary in order to educate.

2.2.2.2   Various Frameworks of Discipline

The different views on classroom management stemmed from various philosophical viewpoints (Tauber, 2007). These include issues such as one's beliefs about the nature of human beings; whether students are innately good or bad; whether the teacher can know and understand the inner thoughts and feelings of students; how student differences affect classroom management; and the purpose of classroom management and discipline. As mentioned, it is clear that in the present Western world, the aim is moving from power towards care, punishment towards rehabilitation (Hyman, 1976).

Over the years, researchers have approached classroom management using various frameworks. From the literature, I have summarized six commonly used frameworks of discipline, as listed in Table 1. Amongst the six there seems to be two major orientations in their emphasis. Firstly, the common ground for Frude (1984), Smith and Laslett (1993), and Bear (1995) rests in their three areas of teacher prevention (incident level/ management/ preventive discipline), teacher action (individual level/ mediation/ modification/ corrective models/ treatment models), and school action (interaction level/ monitoring/ treatment models). Secondly, Hyman et

al.'s (1982), Wolfgang and Glickman (1986), and Tauber's (2007) models involve the various viewpoints along a continuum between two opposing stands of philosophies - Behaviourism and Humanism. Kramlinger and Huberty (1990) illustrate a hypothetical exchange between a behaviourist and a humanist, as represented by Skinner and Roger. They both value the concept of student freedom, but differ in how students exercise this freedom. Skinner (1973) argues that the struggle for personal freedom in education can be helped best by teacher striving to improve their control of students rather than abandoning it. Rogers asserts that discipline and control should not be imposed, but self-discipline should prevail. Qualities of empathy, genuineness, respect, honesty, and helpfulness should be consciously developed in both teachers and students (Bordin, 1981).

In this thesis, Hyman et al.'s (1982) category of five models has been adopted in order to present the various discipline approaches. This particular model is chosen because it follows more or less a historical perspective on how the various approaches developed. The five models/approaches of disciplinary practices include Psychodynamic-interpersonal Model; Behavioural Approach; Sociological Model; Eclectic-ecological Approach and Human-potential Model.

Table 1   Common Frameworks of Discipline – A Summary

Frude (1984)	3 levels of analysis	1. **Incident level** - focuses on the classroom regarding what happens when a disruptive incident occurs. 2. **Individual level** - focus relates to personal characteristics of students and teachers. 3. **Interaction level** - focuses on how schools develop structures which foster certain types of relationships between pupils and teachers.
Smith & Laslett (1993)	4 aspects of teaching (related to Frude's concept of intervention)	1. **Management** (Incident level) – skills in lesson organization and presentation. 2. **Mediation** (Individual level) – teachers provide counseling and guidance. 3. **Modification** (Individual level) – teachers shape behaviour through rewards and punishment. 4. **Monitoring** (interaction level) – schools' policies and structures.
Bear (1995)	3 categories for goals of discipline	1. **Preventive Discipline Models** – stress classroom management, prosocial behaviour, moral/character education, social problem solving, peer mediation, affective education and communication models. 2. **Corrective Models** – such as behaviour management, Reality Therapy and so on. 3. **Treatment Models** – such as social skills training, aggression replacement training, parent management training, family therapy, behaviour therapy and the like.
Hyman et al.'s (1982)	5 models of discipline	1. **Psychodynamic-interpersonal Model** 2. **Behavioural Approach** 3. **Sociological Model** 4. **Eclectic-ecological Approach** 5. **Human-potential Model**
Wolfgang & Glickman (1986)	3 schools of thoughts	1. **Relationship-Listening school** - rooted in Humanism, holds that the child develops from an inner unfolding of potential and seeks to give the student power and responsibility for his/her own behaviour. 2. **Confronting-Contracting School** - exemplified by Social Learning theorists such as Dreikurs and Glasser, maintains that the child develops from the interaction of inner and outer forces, and emphasizes more active intervention from the teacher through questioning and directive statements, designed to uncover the goals of misbehaviour. 3. **Rules/Reward-Punishment school** - derived from behaviourism, holds that the child develops as a result of external conditioning, advocates that teachers shape student behaviour through arranging outcomes which either reward appropriate behaviour or punish misbehaviour.
Tauber (2007)	8 discipline viewpoints continuum	**Behaviourism** (Skinner) **Focus on the Family** (Dobson) **Assertive Discipline** (Canter) **Positive Classroom Discipline** (Jones) **Social Discipline Model** (Dreikurs) **Reality Therapy** (Glasser) **Teacher Effectiveness Training** (Gordon) **Humanism** (Roger)

2.2.3   Approaches to Classroom Discipline

Historically discipline models developed according to the worldview and philosophical thoughts of the time. According to Adams (2000), from 1860 to 1927, experimental psychology was first born in Germany, and developed into a formal programme of introspection that flourished in the U.S. until the death of its last practitioner, E.B. Titchener. Adams regards systematic introspection as the first 'scientific psychology'. The goal of introspection, later called 'Structuralism', was to identify and describe the elemental contents of the mind. It is an inspection of one's own thoughts, feelings or mental states. With this background, Freud and Fliess developed psychoanalysis, which is a specific mind investigation technique and a therapy inspired from this investigation. Psychoanalysis became very popular in the 50s, especially in Europe.

Watson (1924), a behaviourist, strongly criticized introspection as subjective and 'unscientific'. Many scientists at that time gradually preferred the more objective third-person observation, especially of animal behaviour. With the death of Titchener in 1927, so ended the introspectionist movement. However, in recent years some psychologists suggest that classical introspectionism is well positioned for a reconsideration (Adams, 2000). This is related to the ascendance of cognitive psychology (e.g. Neisser, 1967) and more recently of consciousness studies (Varela and Shear, 1999).

Freud's influence in psychoanalysis, however, has not been diminished. Many discipline approaches take on the psychodynamic orientation, which is based on the premise that human behaviour and relationships are shaped by conscious and unconscious influences (Ratner, 1994). These theories stress that humans have an inherent nature that shapes personality, and recognize the importance of the past, especially during critical developmental periods (Hall and Lindzey, 1957). Since the past is important, improving a child's classroom behaviour requires an assessment strategy that focuses on the child's past experiences, especially with his/her parents, to diagnose the problem (Hyman et al., 1982). Other factors such as sibling rivalry, over-demanding parent figures, or unresolved oedipal problems are interpreted in terms of their relation to the child's classroom behaviour.

2.2.3.1   Psychodynamic-interpersonal Model

Reality Therapy (Ten Step Approach)

Traditional psychotherapy is not something that classroom teachers can apply. Usually teachers have neither the knowledge nor the time to conduct 'therapeutic' sessions with the students. However, the Reality Therapy (RT), originally a method of psychotherapy, developed by Psychiatrist William Glasser (1965), has been adopted for classroom use. Reality Therapy, also known as the 'Ten Step Approach', contains components of the Behavioural, Cognitive, as well as Social Approach. It focuses on the present behaviour and changing it for the better rather than seeking to discover the past happenings, which might have influenced one's behaviour. Perhaps because of its multi-facet components, Hyman et al. (1982) even consider RT as an Eclectic-ecological Approach.

The foundation of RT is built on Choice Theory, which states that almost all behaviour is chosen, and that we are driven by our genes to satisfy five basic needs: survival, love and belonging, power, freedom and fun. In practice, the most important need is love and belonging, as closeness and connectedness with the people we care about is a requisite for satisfying all of the needs. Disconnectedness is the source of almost all human problems, such as mental illness, drug addiction, violence, crime, school failure, spousal and child abuse and so on.

Reality Therapy emphasizes the client's responsibility and self-empowerment. It is a sequentially implemented system which becomes more directive and restrictive if the student fails to make better choices about school behaviour (Appendix A). The teacher is to develop a classroom supporting students' good choices and critical thinking. Students are expected to know and display appropriate behaviours. They are in control of their behaviour and excuses for misbehaviour are not accepted. Misbehaviour is viewed as result of a poor choice of the student who does not think through the consequences of his/her choices. The teacher provides positive and negative consequences to help promote good decision making.

In the classroom setting, Glasser recommends the use of learning teams or cooperative learning groups as a means of helping students accomplish content objectives as well as to satisfy major social needs. Class meetings are often used in

order to help solve problems.

Many studies over the years on its effectiveness either showed no significance (Matthews, 1972; Lynch, 1975; Masters and Laverty, 1977) or had mixed and inconclusive result (Houston-Slowik, 1983; Moede and Triscari, 1985). Others indicate that RT approaches were effective and resulted in changed behaviours as measured informally through survey and questionnaires (McCormack, 1973; Glasser, 1977). In terms of practicality, RT may in fact not be feasible in many heterogeneous classrooms. In a way it sounds simple and idealistic, but not realistic. It would probably be ineffective in dealing with at least three types of students: a) those with severe behaviour problems, for example, their parents might not be willing to take their misbehaving children home due to a variety of reasons, such as work; b) those who are sadistic and do not care about the consequences; and c) those who lack the mental faculty to reason. Besides, RT assumes that misbehaviour is the result of poor choices. A student, focused solely on his/her own agenda, might not be easily convinced that the choice is poor. All in all, the effectiveness of RT has been inconclusive. In addition, problems reported with RT are also that it takes considerable training and classroom time to implement the programme (Edwards, 1993).

Social Discipline Model

Dreikurs and Adler believe that the central motivation of all humans is to belong and be accepted by others. Teachers, therefore, need to have a willingness to understand the child and to stimulate his/her cooperation (Dreikurs, 1968). There are four basic motivations for behaviour (Dreikurs and Cassel, 1972): avoidance of failure, attention seeking, revenge, and power. A student's motivation would create the same 'counter-feelings' in the people around him/her: for example, students who are avoiding failure will cause the adults to feel inadequate, helpless and fearful; students who are motivated by attention will elicit annoyance; angry students will make the people around them feel angry and revengeful; and students who are motivated by power will generate feelings of stubbornness and control. If teachers become consumed by their own 'counter feelings', they can easily become sidetracted from the original intention of helping students, and respond from an irrational, emotional basis and make situations worse.

In applying the Social Discipline model to classroom settings, the teacher needs to step back and look at the whole picture, try to find the underlying cause for misbehaviors and have optimistic belief in the child's rational capacities. The teacher must also be assertive and 'intrusive' in order to intervene and redirect the child's misplaced goals.

Alderian Approaches

Similar to the Social Discipline Model, the Adlerian Approach emphasizes the understanding of an individual's reasons for maladaptive behaviour (Dreikurs et al., 1982). The basic conception is based upon Adlerian principles of individual psychology. Individuals develop identities within their social groups such as family, community, and school, which help them satisfy the basic needs of love and belonging. When they are unable to meet their basic needs in constructive, socially acceptable ways, students turn to maladaptive behaviours, such as attention seeking, engaging in power struggles, revenge, or withdrawal (Corsini, 1985).

When dealing with a misbehaving student, the teacher's task is to diagnose the problem, to avoid unknowingly reinforcing it, and then to help the student find constructive ways to get his/her needs met (Balson, 1982). Teacher strategies include helping students understand the reasons for their behaviour and skillful use of natural and logical consequences. Order is achieved through rules and limits that are determined by the group. The teacher, who neither dominates nor punishes, takes the leader's role and guides students and wins their co-operation. An essential aspect of the approach is the skillful use of group discussions (class meetings), which have goals of helping students develop a positive sense of belonging, of solving problems, and of enhancing learning.

Applications of Adlerian principles to school-wide development have been made using the title 'Corsini Four-R Schools' (Corsini, 1985). In such schools students are encouraged to make responsible choices about learning and behaviour. Upon initial placement, students are allowed choices of how to proceed in their individualized academic programme, but mastery of the unit is necessary for progression. Class meetings are conducted to begin and end the day, and students also participate in a 'small group' within the homeroom to encourage discussion. Three rules govern

behaviour school-wide, and a specified series of non-punitive steps are used for dealing with rule violations. The teacher's role is carrying out the school and classroom discipline plan is very carefully delineated, and is designed to maximize the time available to teach.

A few case studies (Stormer and Kirby, 1969; Tuites, 1976; Kelly and Croake, 1977) showed positive results from employing Adlerian principles with children. However, case study research is often too limited to be generalisable. Walton (1974) describes an Adlerian programme that resulted in a substantial decrease in violent incidents in a secondary school. Several other studies also reveal positive result but are flawed by methodological problems, such as the lack of pretest data (Hoffman, 1975; Kozuma, 1977). Overall, the empirical literature on effectiveness of Adlerian approach is relatively sparse and results are inconclusive (Hartwell, 1975; Krebs, 1982; Pratt, 1985). As Emmer and Aussiker (1989) comment, the Adlerian approach is in great need of better evidence supporting its effects on teachers and students.

Psycho Education

The psychoeducation model (Fagan, 1979; Long et al., 1996) integrates both the psychiatric and educational views. The disturbed behaviour is caused by conflicts, both within the child and due to relationships and stresses in the child's environment; and that academic achievement and its (self-perceived) success is important to the child's well-being, facilitating self-concept, social-emotional growth, and positive interpersonal change. Within this model, the interaction between a child's thoughts, feelings and his/her experience in the educational setting is very important. When a child displays unacceptable behaviour, there are consequences and yet the teacher continues to express confidence in the student's ability to change for the better. Behavioural change comes not just from the manipulation of environmental variables, but from the development of a better understanding oneself and others (psycho), and the practice of new ways of reacting (education).

Psychoeducation emphasizes the importance of adult-child relationship (Beck and McDonnell, 1980). The psychoeducator sees most "problem behaviour" as a reflection of the child's inability to deal with situations maturely and productively, purposeful but misguidedly so. The goal is to help the child to get along with others

in home, neighborhood and school environments. Even though it involves many therapeutic elements, psychoeducation is not a traditional 'psychotherapy' (Chrystal, 2008).

Kurt Lewin (1890-1947), the founder of social psychology, had great influence on psychoeducation. Lewin held that a person's 'life space' consists of elements of outer (objective) and inner (subjective) reality, both of which interact and are to different degrees determinants of behaviour. Lewin's thinking has led to the development of a school of Ecological psychology, which has been highly influential to the treatment and education of troubled and troubling children and youth (Chrystal, 2008).

The Life Space Interview (LSI)

Developed by Redl, the Life Space Interview (LSI) is a classroom counseling approach for managing and changing behaviour patterns of students. Some practitioners believe that the student is most receptive to ideas for change when he/she is in crisis, while others think that it is best to wait until the child is calm and more reflective. There are two types of LSI, both are 'here and now' reactions to an event or experience in a student's life. 'Emotional-first-aid-on-the-spot' is used when the teacher wishes to cool off the student, resolve the problem quickly, and return the student to an activity. The 'clinical exploitation of life events' is a more in-depth techniue in which the teacher helps the student to gain insight into his/her behaviour and change inappropriate ways of acting (Wood and Long, 1991).

Life Space Crisis Interview (LSCI)

Nicholas Long refined the LSI, added the term 'Crisis Intervention' to suggest its application, and provided an array of techniques under the umbrella of Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI), linking them to characteristic problems troubled youth present. According to Long et al. (2001), there are six types of LSCI (Appendix B), applicable to the majority of crisis situations. Often it will take a series of LSCIs towards resolving problem behaviour. LSCI gives teachers sophisticated tools to use on complicated problems, and it ultimately promises to help troubled children and youth become solid, productive, and psychologically healthy citizens.

Other Therapeutic Strategies and Models

There is also a host of strategies and models that have obvious psychoeducational components even though their proponents may not have defined them as "psychoeducational". All of them are child-focused, non-authoritarian, and seek to develop children's autonomy and independence. They contain a mixture of cognitive, affective, and behavioural elements and emphasize the importance of solid, adult-child relationships and mental health. Examples of psychoeducation-related programmes and strategies described by Chrystal (2008) are listed in Appendix C.

Most of these therapeutic applications, however, have inconclusive and mixed empirical evidences regarding their effectiveness. Taking Music Therapy as an example, some studies demonstrated its effectiveness in decreasing patients' anxiety and promoting relaxation (Chlan, 1998), increasing patients' pain control and physical comfort (Krout, 2001), but the need for further research into many aspect of this intervention was also highlight (Evans, 2002). Koger and Brotons' (2000) review was not able to identify reliable empirical evidence on which to justify the use of music therapy as a treatment for dementia, but suggests that music therapy may be beneficial in treating or managing dementia symptoms, such as behaviour disorder. Only Gold et al. (2004), through their study, claim that music therapy is an effective treatment for children and adolescents with psychopathology. The picture is similar in bibliotherapy: Marrs (1995) notes that it appeared to be more effective for certain problem types (assertion training, anxiety, and sexual dysfunction) than for others (weight loss, impulse control, and studying problems). Febbraro (2004) also did not find bibliotherapy to be particularly effective. Kupshik and Fisher (1999) found that bibliotheraphy was efficient, acceptable, and led to clinically significant symptom reduction for a high proportion of patients. Heath et al.'s (2005) study claims that children's literature is a therapeutic tool for facilitating emotional growth and healing. Finally, Sharp et al. (2002) suggest that cinematherapy can be an effective therapy as bibliotherapy, even though more formal research is needed.

A Critique of Psychodynamic-interpersonal Model

McCarthy et al. (1998) introduced a cognitively oriented psychoeducational model for helping participants understand each other's subjective experiences in multicultural group work, and found positive results with diverse group members in

their understanding of one another, thus fostering better relationships. On the whole, however, there is not much empirical evidence supporting the effectiveness of this approach.

Psychoeducation acknowledges the complex nature of human relationships, and the challenges inherent to producing meaningful behaviour change, and results will usually not be seen overnight. Building trust, mutual respect, and communication in the adult-child relationships will take a long time. Moreover, an effective psychoeducator, besides being well trained and competent in various types of interventions, must also have unshakeable optimism and professionalism, and be able to resist displaying punitive or rejecting reactions when the student engages in the inevitable testing of his/her patience and commitment. These are perhaps only ideals for most teachers to achieve.

The psychoeducation model assumes that basic human needs drive behaviour, and that disruptive children have not had their needs met well. For example, a child whose self-esteem is poor may bully other kids in an effort to salvage some feeling of power. The psychoeducator strives to help the child understand the motives behind his/her behaviour, and to find ways of meeting needs that are more mature and socially appropriate. However, in doing so, the psychoeducator may run the risk of wrongly interpreting the behaviour and the motive behind. For example, play therapy rests on the assumption that the child's play reflects his/her inner world, which may or may not be universal and applicable to all children. Many young boys love to play fight and play war games, it does not necessarily mean that they are violent and have inner turmoil. In addition, even armed with various educational strategies, the teacher still has to deal with the child in the context of the classroom, and not only in isolation. The way the teacher interacts with this misbehaving child also has an impact on the behaviour of other children in the same class. This is what Kounin (1970) means by 'ripple effect'.

The psychoeducation model, however, is consistent with Slee's (1995) thought regarding discipline. Slee believes that schools should meet the needs of young people so there will be fewer predispositions to disruption and resistance. It is important to understand the youngster as an individual, as he says that '*attention must be directed to improving educational outcomes for all students including those who*

are disadvantaged because of class, gender, race, geographical isolation or disability' (p.182). The psychoeducation model, in theory, does fulfill this criterion.

While some of the psychoeducational elements, such as 'building relationship' and 'being understanding and empathetic', are valuable and should be adopted by the teachers, the full employment of psychoeducation is really beyond the scope of the most teachers. The model is also very individualistic and child oriented in its view of disturbed behaviour (Knoff, 1986). Each child's difficulties are assumed unique and analyzed individually and addressed with specifically tailored interventions. Interventions, within this model, occur in the educational setting and may involve changes in the interactions between a child and teacher, a child and curriculum, a child and the organizational atmosphere and format of the classroom. The process is simply too overwhelming for a classroom teacher to follow through. Also, the different treatments the teacher gives to various individuals would likely cause the children to question his/her fairness. For example, while attending to class instruction for 20 minutes without incident might count as success for one child, it may be regression toward another child's original, pre-intervention status. It might well be very confusing for young children why the teacher has various 'standards' for different individuals in the same class. As Chrystal (2008) notes that psychoeducational interventions are not currently in vogue, as they are inherently complex, and their outcomes are not easily quantified. The bottom line is that they are not for everyone. For instance, for young children and those with autism or mental retardation, behaviour modification may be a more appropriate method than psychoeducation.

2.2.3.2   Behavioural Approach

Throughout the centuries, regardless of culture, most, if not all, teachers and parents have been using 'reward and punishment' as a means to control and manage children's behaviour. This seems to be an ancient 'method' as recorded in the Old Testament Bible (Constable, 2005), God says:

> *"If you follow my decrees and are careful to obey my commands, I will send you rain in its season, … I will look on you with favour and make you fruitful and increase your numbers, … But if you will not listen to me and carry out all these commands, … I will bring upon you sudden terror, wasting diseases and fever*

that will destroy your sight and drain away your life." (Moses, c.550-450 B.C. – Leviticus 26: 3-16)

John B. Watson (1878-1958) is widely regarded as the founder of the school of behaviourism, which dominated much of North American psychology between 1920 and 1960. Watson stresses that scientific psychology must focus on the relationship between environmental contingencies and behaviour, rather than on the presumed contents of consciousness; and that the principles governing behaviour of humans and other animals are essentially identical (Green, 2001).

Many early behaviour scientists generated their theories through working with animals. Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) worked with dogs and came up with 'conditioned reflex' theory, which Watson adapted it to human behaviour. B.F. Skinner's (1904-1990) 'Operant Conditioning' theory was based on his work with rats and pigeons (Green, 2001). Skinner found that a behaviour followed by a reinforcing stimulus results in an increased probability of that behaviour occurring in the future, and a behaviour no longer followed by the reinforcing stimulus results in a decreased probability of that behaviour occurring in the future (Boeree, 2006). As Skinner contended that all but a few emotions were conditioned by habit, and could be learned or unlearned, the therapeutic system of behaviour modification has emerged from behaviourist theory.

Therapists shape a person's behaviour through a variety of processes known as conditioning. Popular techniques include systematic desensitization, generally used on clients suffering from anxiety or fear; and aversive conditioning, employed in cases where a client wishes to break off an unhealthy habit (e.g. smoking). Other behaviour therapies include systems of rewards or punishments, and modeling.

In education, techniques and programmes based on Behaviourist theories are known as Behaviour Modification, or 'Applied Behaviour Analysis', which is the application of the principles of the Behaviourism regarding how behaviour develops, is maintained, and can be changed (Alberto and Troutman, 1990). The assumption is that emotional and/or behavioural disorders are the results of inappropriate learning. The environment has created the aberrant behaviour by reinforcing or rewarding it. The most effective intervention (and prevention) for children is to control their

environment so that the undesirable behaviour no longer brings a reward, and a new and more appropriate replacement behaviour is reinforced.

Alberto and Troutman (1990) note that what happens before the exhibition of a behaviour is known as the 'stimuli' or 'antecedent', which prods the behaviour to occur. The behaviour can be either reinforced (strengthened) or weakened by the consequences that follow it. There are four categories of consequences as follow:

Punishment

If certain behaviour is punished, it will be less likely to occur in the future. A punishment, which is undesirable or aversive for the student, must be more powerful than the benefits (such as attention, power, desired items, etc.) the student receives from showing the behaviour, otherwise the behaviour will continue.

Ignoring

If done effectively, ignoring (no attention, no explaining, no pleading, no scolding) will reduce the frequency of a behaviour and eventually bring it to extinction. However, this application is conditional. If the attention-seeking child is satisfied with attention from others (e.g. laughter from other children), then ignoring from the teacher will have no effect. Some behaviours are self reinforcing, such as a rocking autistic child would prefer to be ignored. It also does not work when someone is having a severe temper tantrum and doing something intensely disruptive to the learning environment.

Positive Reinforcement

Positive reinforcement is a reward for the student – something that would generate a positive sensation in a person, such as attention, praise, money, valuable objects and so on. The proper use of positive reinforcement will increase the likelihood of the rewarded behaviour happening again in the future.

Negative Reinforcement

Negative reinforcement is the avoidance of something the person dislikes. It is not the same as punishment. We reinforce the behaviour by taking away a threatened punishment if the student shows the correct behaviour. If a student shows a behaviour that avoids something undesirable (e.g. stay quiet in order not to serve a detention),

then his/her behaviour is 'negatively reinforced' and strengthened.

Two other concepts are very important in Behaviourism:

Differential Reinforcement Procedures and Schedules of Reinforcement

Taken from animal studies, the concept of Differential Reinforcement has been applied to human behaviour (Blackman, 1974). Positive reinforcement is used in a structured manner, by a Continuous schedule (immediate positive feedback each and every time that the behaviour is shown), Fixed schedule (reinforced only after a number of times or time periods that the behaviour is displayed), and Variable schedule (behaviour is reinforced randomly). By implementing a certain schedule when first building a behaviour, and later changing to other schedules, it can promote stronger, more ingrained versions of appropriate behaviour while 'weaning' children from rewards.

Level of Reinforcement

The rewards/reinforcement used for recognising appropriate behaviour differs in the degree to which they promote 'inner control'. Raschke (1981) separates reinforcers into ten levels (Appendix D). Level one items represent strong internal motivation on the part of the student, while level ten items are primary reinforcers such as food items. Raschke stresses that we should always use the highest level of reinforcement possible when we try to motivate a child. Although some children need tangible items to get them to display appropriate behaviour, the goal should be moving them to higher levels.

Behaviour Programmes

Before applying any behaviour programme, the teacher may use 'Behavioural Recording' in order to get a precise picture of frequency, or regularity of severity of a student's misbehaviour (Martin and Bateson, 1993). The teacher observes the student directly and records how long or how often certain behaviour occurs. Often, this comparison can be used as support for special educational placement, or show whether the student's behaviour is improving over time. During the observation period, the occurrence of a behaviour can be counted (Frequency Recording); or how long it lasts (Duration Recording); or whether the behaviour is occurring at predetermined intervals (Interval Recording).

There are a lot of behaviour programmes and techniques developed for use in education. The following are a few examples relevant to this project:

Good Behaviour Game

According to Wright (2001), the Good Behaviour Game (GBG) is a classroom management strategy designed to improve aggressive/disruptive classroom behaviour and prevent later criminality. The implementation should start in early primary grades in order to provide students with essential skills necessary for later, possibly negative, life experiences and societal influences.

When putting GBG into practice, teachers should let students know about the 'game' plan by defining what the negative behaviours are, what the rewards will be and how often they will be given, and be consistent in scoring the points. The students in class are divided into two teams. Each time a member displays inappropriate behaviour, a point is given to his/her team. At the conclusion of each day, the team with the fewest points wins a group reward. The game is played two to three times a week, and each time for no more than thirty minutes, so that it will not be obtrusive to the teacher and at the same time, maintaining its novelty value for the students.

In a longitudinal study (Ialongo et al., 2001) of 678 Grade One students, it was found that GBG had the largest effects comparing to the control group. When followed up at the end of Grade 6, the same groups of GBG children were much less likely to have conduct disorder; were 35% less likely to have been suspended during the previous school year; 43% less likely to be in need of mental health services, based on their teachers' reports. Another follow-up was conducted at the end of Grade 8 and found that less GBG students had started smoking or had tried illegal drugs.

Embry (2002) notes that the use of GBG has been limited to a small number of settings, and claims the possibility that the GBG being the behavioural vaccine for multi-problem behaviour. He says that approximately 20 independent replications of the GBG across different grade levels, types of students, settings, and some with long-term follow-up show strong, consistent impact on impulsive, disruptive behaviours of children and teens as well as reductions in substance use or serious antisocial

behaviours. A number of U.S. federal agencies also named the GBG as a 'best practice' for the prevention of substance abuse or violent behaviour.

Assertive Discipline

Assertive discipline (AD) is a structured, systematic approach designed to help educators in running an organized, teacher-in-charge classroom environment (Canter, 1976). The basic premise is the right of the teacher to define and enforce standards for student behaviour that permit instruction to be carried out in a manner consonant with the teacher's capabilities and needs. Student compliance is imperative in creating and maintaining an effective and efficient learning environment.

Assertive Discipline begins with clear teacher expectations which then are translated into a set of rules, specifying both acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, and communicated to the students. Utilizing Behaviourist principles, students are rewarded or punished according to their behaviour. The most widely used punishment is a system of names and check marks recorded on a chart, with detention, a note home, time out, or a referral to the principal being assigned in progression, as check marks accumulate (Emmer and Aussiker, 1990).

Cantor (1976, 1981) advises that assertive teachers should be demanding, yet warm in interaction, supportive of the youngsters, and respectful when addressing misbehaviour. Other discipline techniques are also valued in AD, such as using positive statements, eye contact, hand gestures, and the student's name in order to add emphasis to teacher directions. The teacher can also use the "Broken record" technique by repeating his/her command (to a maximum of three times) until the student complies. Defiant students will have to face a consequence which should be administered quickly and in a calm, matter-of-fact manner. 'Proximity praise' can also be used by praising youngsters near the misbehaving students, hoping that they will model the appropriate behaviour. Role-playing the situation can also promote responsible behaviour.

The results of a series of doctoral studies in the 80s, in general, did not support the effectiveness of AD on improvement of either teachers' perception or students' actual behaviour (Ersavas, 1980; Kundtz, 1981; Bauer, 1982; Henderson, 1982; Allen, 1983; Vandercook, 1983; Parker, 1984; Terrell, 1984; Barrett, 1985). However, a few

other studies (Allen, 1983; Ward, 1983; McCormack 1985) reported positive effects.

Assertive discipline has evolved since the mid-70's from an authoritarian approach to one that is more democratic and cooperative (Canter and Canter, 1993). In spite of the inconclusiveness of its effects, AD is still one of the widely used 'packaged' behaviour management programme in the U.S. (McIntyre, 2003).

Overcorrection

Overcorrection procedures involve having the student engage in repetitive behaviour as a penalty for having displayed an inappropriate action (McIntyre, 2003). It is a consequence or punishment of the student's misbehaviour. The three variations include: restitutional (the student must return the environment to the previous condition and make it even better); positive practice (the student must repeatedly practice the correct hehaviour of that situation); and negative practice (the student must repeatedly practice the wrongly displayed behaviour in an acceptable manner).

Sulzer-Azaroff and Roy-Mayer (1988) consider overcorrection as a 'benign punishment', which reduces the target response by applying aversives - something that the subject would prefer to avoid. There is some evidence in the effectiveness of Overcorrection (Testal et al., 1977; Epstein et al., 1974). However, as most studies were done in an institutional instead of a classroom context, its usefulness in classroom application remains uncertain.

Time Out Procedure

In Time Out, the misbehaving youngster is removed from a situation/environment that is reinforcing the inappropriate behaviour (McIntyre, 2003). The assumption is that children would not show misbehaviour in the classroom unless it was being rewarded in some way such as attention, prestige and so on. It should be done in the best interests of the youngster.

There are two types of time out procedures. In the Non-Exclusionary/ Non-Seclusionary type, the student may remain in the classroom to observe but not participate in any form. It limits an individual's access to specific reinforcing items or activities. In the Exclusionary/Seclusionary type, the student is sent to another location such as a 'time out' room staffed by a monitor, a carrel in an isolated area in

the classroom, or a taped off area in the hallway close to the door. During that time the child is required to do nothing, thus boredom is created in order to promote the child's urge to rejoin the class.

McIntyre (2003) recommends one minute per year of age when timing out younger children. Also, the time out room is not meant to be a 'break' or retreat for the teacher, and should be the last step in the sequential hierarchy of interventions. There have been legal and ethical concerns centred around the potential for timeout procedures to result in unacceptable amounts of social isolation (Witherup, 2003). Nevertheless, many studies have shown the effectiveness of time out procedures as reflected in the decreased incidents of misbehaviour (Webster, 1976; Foxx and Shapiro, 1978; Mace et al., 1986; Yeager and McLaughlin, 1994; Alberto et al., 2002; Everett et al., 2007).

Token economy

Token economy is based on positive reinforcement of desirable behaviour whereby students acquire 'currency' according to their level of compliance to behavioural rules. A token economy involves awarding tokens, stickers, chips points, or other items to students who demonstrate desired behaviours. Tokens then can be exchanged for rewards at designated times. Mcintyre (2003) notes that tokens or check marks are visible evidence of progress, and suitable for managing young children and those with limited cognitive ability. There is some positive evidence supporting the effectiveness of using Token Economy, in which an increase of appropriate behaviour has been shown (Kazdin and Bootzin, 1972; Kazdin, 1982; Boniecki and Moore, 2003; Filcheck et al., 2004).

Response Cost

Response Cost is a system of negative reinforcement and punishment whereby a 'toll' or 'fine' as penalty is imposed in response to the student's display of inappropriate behaviour (McIntyre, 2003). For example, a point, or check mark, or sticker taken away from a child's collection because of a rude remark would be Response Cost. Positive results as reflected in decrease of misbehaviour were found in many studies (Rapport et al., 1982; Proctor and Morgan, 1991; Kelley and McCain, 1995; Carlson and Tamm, 2000).

Shaping

Shaping, or 'successive approximation', devised by Skinner (1953) through working with his pigeons, has been applied to human behaviour. It is used when the teacher wants the student to engage in a certain desirable behaviour that is infrequently or never displayed. Shaping allows this behaviour to be built in steps and reward those behaviours that come progressively closer to the ultimately desired one. As the student masters each little step, he/she is required to move to the next increment in order to receive a reinforcement or award (Miltenberger, 2008).

'Task Analysis' is employed in order to break down complicated desired behaviour into smaller sequential steps. It would take practice to construct a chain of simple behaviours leading to the final complex behaviour. The process of teaching the links in the chain is called 'Chaining' (Cohen, 2002).

Research on the effectiveness of shaping on human subjects is extremely limited. According to Williams (2000), the findings of Skinner and Pavlov were discounted by many because a large amount of research in shaping behavior was done with animals, as opposed to human subjects. They quickly dismiss the idea that humans are just like animals and that humans cannot make conscious decisions. To believe that every person would react in the same manner, given a similar set of circumstances is incomprehensible to the opponents.

A Critique of Behavioural Approach

In general, behaviourist principals are empirically based, practical and practiced widely. Our society is based on rewards and punishment – one works hard to make more money; one avoids driving over speed limit in order not to get a ticket; some keep going back to casinos because they have been rewarded by a variable reinforcement schedule.

Skinner attempted to draw some parallels between his theory and Darwin's theory of Natural Selection. He reasoned that although natural selection was necessary for the survival of the species, operant conditioning, which is nothing more than '*a second kind of selection by consequences*', was necessary for an individual to learn (Skinner, 1984, p.477). Dahlbom (1984, p.486), however, points out that some

ideas in Darwinism contradict Skinner's operant conditioning. Darwin believes humans are constantly improving themselves to gain better self-control, and to increase self-control means to increase liberty, or free will, which is non-existent in Skinner's theory.

Boulding (1984) points out that evidence of both Pavlovian conditioning and operant conditioning derived from animal subjects, and questions the validity of Skinner's application of behaviour principles of animals to the much more complex human behaviour. He reasons that since the behaviourists assume that the same general laws govern both animal and human behaviours, if this assumption proves false, then the entire foundation of behaviourism will collapse. Boulding suggests that more experiments with human participants must be done to support the validity of behaviourist theory. Similarly, Kuo (1967) notes that early behaviourist experimental work had been carried out in a very narrowly confined environment so that conclusion may not be accepted without reservations. The two basic assumptions of animal psychologists: the uniformity of nature (environment) and the uniformity of behaviour are based on inadequate observation. Furthermore,

> "*Watson's S-R (simulus-response) formula and his almost unquestioning acceptance of the concept of conditioned reflex as the key to the study of behavior were rather unfortunate because of their oversimplification of the phenomena of behavior.*" (Kuo, 1967, p.57)

Naik (1988) asserts that although Skinner's ideas on operant conditioning are able to explain phobias and neurosis, they are lacking in applicability to the more complex human behaviours of language and memory. Seligman (1970), however, explains that besides operational and classical conditioning, there is a third principle involved in determining the behaviour of an organism. This is the genetic preparedness of an organism to associate certain stimuli or reinforcers to responses. That is, the organism is more or less prepared by evolution to relate the two stimuli. Seligman's theory also implies that this genetic factor working alongside with the environment, thus rejecting the comprehensive behaviourism theory by Skinner.

Some studies find that social reinforcers such as teacher praise and attention alter behaviour effectively (Altman and Linton, 1971; O'Leary and O'Leary, 1976), but the effectiveness has been limited because of teachers' resistance in its systematic use

(Tharp and Wetzel, 1969; Meyer et al., 1977). Some studies (Kazdin and Bootzin, 1972; O'Leary and O'Leary, 1976) find that tangible rewards are effective in reducing disruptive behaviour only while the programme is operating.

The use of punishment continues to be controversial. Tauber (2007) says there are many drawbacks with the use of punishment. While it might stop the inappropriate behaviour immediately, there is no teaching of new behaviour pattern. Alberto and Troutman (1990) also agree that when using punishment, the child will resent, retreat, rebel, and revenge. Greven (1991) urges teachers to explore alternatives, including reasoning, discussion, and use of logical consequences, time-out, isolation, and setting boundaries, rules, and limits. Dobson (1978, 1992), however, advocates the appropriate use of punishment as a necessary measure in teaching children. He also added that parents and teachers must administer punishment in the context of love so that children will always feel the security and acceptance even though they misbehave. Tauber (2007) says there is indeed very little empirical data on the long-term consequences of punishment, especially on physical punishment. Kushner (1978) notes that time out is the only form of punishment that has been systematically researched with the conclusion that overuse leads to diminishing effectiveness.

Another major criticism on behaviourism is that it focuses solely on the behaviour and not the person. In the past, some cruel experiments, such as using electric shock on people, have been conducted. Harris and Ersner-Hershfield (1978) still suggest that the use of electric shock on psychotic and retarded patients may have value under certain conditions. The traditional behaviourist school of thought does not take into consideration the person's emotional and psychological state because they are covert and cannot be easily measured as overt behaviour. There is a 'cause and effect' empirical orientation (see Skinner, 1972) which belittles the 'less valid', non-scientific views on the world. Behaviourism does not depend on a person's co-operation, it is neutral and value free. However, as Bridge (1975) points out, people do have values. A person's emotion can also influence a person's behaviour (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Bradley et al., 2001). Winn (1990) argues that behavioural theory is inadequate to prescribe instructional strategies that teach for understanding. Finally, Slee (1995) strongly criticises discipline policies that are attached to

Skinner's 'science of behaviour' (p.165). He argues that the behaviourists strategies stress on controlling rather than educating children, and discipline becomes '*an external imposition to establish the conditions of passive obedience*' (p.166).

Finally, Kuo (1967) notes that Watson's stimulus-response formula and his almost unquestiioning acceptance of the concept of conditioned reflex as the key to the study of behaviour were '*rather unfortunate because of their oversimplification of the phenomena of behaviour' (p.57).* Furthermore, the two basic assumptions of animal psychologists: the uniformity of nature (environment) and the uniformity of behaviour, are based on inadequate observation, because early experimental work has been carried out in a very narrowly confined environment so that conclusions amy not be accepted without a great many reservations.

Although the behavioural approach no longer dominates classroom practice today, McIntyre (2003) suggests that behaviourist techniques are probably best suited to young children and those with severe cognitive impairments such as autism, but lose effectiveness when used with older students and those who are more cognitive able. In the late 70s, there is a shift in education focus, from Behaviourism to the more humanistic approach, such as Cognitive-Behaviourism (Case and Bereiter, 2004), in both the health-care system (Freiheit and Overholser, 1998) and educational settings.

2.2.3.3   Sociological Model

The Sociological Model, or Social Approach of Behaviour Management, is broadly defined within the context of the sociology of groups (Hyman et al., 1982). Bandura's (1977) 'Social Learning Theory' contributes greatly to this model. It advocates that individuals, especially children, imitate or copy modeled behaviour from personally observing others, the environment, and the mass media. It is based on an understanding of peer group dynamics. Social learning theory can be considered a bridge or transition between behaviourist learning theories and cognitive learning theories (Ormrod, 1999). Durkheim's formulation of 'anomie' is an important concept (Morse, 1978). It states that a 'normlessness' state may exist because of the rapid change in technology or culture. Abnormal behaviour is defined as deviance from the norm. When individuals are not able to tie their behaviour to

some clearly defined norms, deviancy and disruption may occur. Labeling theory also states that deviance and non-deviance are somewhat alike in that they both adhere to certain social rules applied to 'labeled' groups. Their difference lies in the society's determination of one set of behaviour as deviant, thus labeling both the behaviour and the group of people as deviant (Hyman et al., 1982).

In the school context, the sociological model is about creating a classroom environment in which positive peer pressure is employed. To be effective, the support of school administration, as well as consistency in enforcement and maintainence by all staff members are needed. For younger children, the teaching of social skills might involve the use of proper reinforcers (behaviourist techniques); but for older students, this approach might become more cognitive and humanistic, such as the use of 'Peer Mediation' and SEL (social and emotional learning). Teachers can employ sociogram, a teacher-made device, in order to find information regarding how a student interacts with peers (Newcomb et al., 1993).

Instructional Classroom Management

Kameenui and Darch (1995) review general strategies for rethinking and reorganizing a classroom to reflect an instructional classroom management approach. The assumption is that strategies for both teaching/managing social behaviour, and for teaching subject matter, are the same. Therefore, classroom and behaviour management procedures, designed to impart information on how to behave are instructional and should be part of the school curriculum.

Social and Emotional Learning

According to Elias et al. (1997), schools will be most successful in their educational mission when they integrate efforts to promote children's academic, social, and emotional learning. Zins et al. (2004) state that emotions can either help or hinder children's learning and their ultimate success in school. Jackson (1968) also demonstrates the causal relationships between learning and social responsibility.

Social and emotional learning (SEL) is an approach that teaches self-regulation, self-monitoring, and social skills in school settings. Through this process students learn to recognize and manage emotions, care about others, make good decisions,

behave ethically and responsibly, develop positive relationships, and avoid negative behaviours (Elias et al., 1997).   Norris (2003) claims success in his study in which the principal aligned school procedures with the philosophy of SEL: students were greeted daily by their teacher and classmates; students can go to a 'Turtle Zone' when they feel they need time to get their emotions back under control; misbehaving students sent to the office need to complete a 'Problem Solving Diary', their answers would become the basis for discussion with the principal and the consequences they would face.

Social and Emotional Learning also has a critical role in improving children's academic performance and lifelong learning. Prosocial behaviour in the classroom is correlated to positive intellectual outcomes (Feshbach and Feshback, 1987; Stevens and Slavin, 1995; DiPerna and Elliot, 1999; Pasi, 2001; Haynes et al., 2003), and is predictive of performance on standardized achievement tests (Wentzel, 1993; Welsh et al., 2001; Malecki and Elliott, 2002). Conversely, antisocial conduct often co-occurs with poor academic performance (Tremblay et al. 1992). A number of analyses of school-based prevention programmes provide general agreement that some of these programmes are effective in reducing maladaptive behaviours, including those related to school failure (Wentzel, 1991; Durlak, 1995; Gottfredson, 2001; Peisner-Feinberg et al., 2001).

<u>Class Meetings</u>

Glasser (1969) proposes that *'as soon as children enter kindergarten, they should discover that each class is a working, problem-solving and learning unit and that each student has both individual and group responsibilities - for learning and for behaving'* (p.123).

Style (2001) concludes that class meetings can play a critical role in the development of students' emotional, social, moral, and intellectual development; in promoting personal growth, leadership, cognitive gains, and skills in organizing, public-speaking, thinking, problem-solving, and relating. Class meetings can empower students, motivate them to learn, and help them discover their personal best. With classroom meetings, discipline becomes a minor issue.

In class meetings, students can discuss various topics (open ended); the teacher

can evaluate student knowledge prior to teaching a new unit (diagnostic curriculum); and students, with teacher guidance, can resolve either individual or group problems (problem solving). During class meetings, the student leader is the one who actually runs it by following the order of steps for conducting the meeting, for solving problems, and for discussing suggestions. The teacher is a coach, providing guidance to the leader when necessary; the secretary; and a group member, offering information and making comments only when necessary.

So far all that has been written on class meetings seem to be 'advice-type literature', with not much empirical evidence supporting their effectiveness (Olwens, 1993; Evans, 2002). Along with Glasser and Styles, those who dealt directly with the subject include Gauthier (1999); Vance and Weaver (2002, 2004) who produced two manuals for teachers; and Pranis et al. (2003) who wrote on the importance of 'Peace Circles'. Others who embrace similar philosophy include Dreikurs et al. (1982); Dreikurs (1968, 1991); Nelsen et al. (1993); Gauthier (1999), and Erwin (2004).

Contracting

The 'Behaviour Contract' provides the student with structure and self-management (Lewis, 2007). It is a written agreement between the child and teacher and often includes the student's parent(s), about how the child will behave. It indicates the appropriate consequence should the student neglect to behave according to the contract and it also states the reinforcer to be used for successful compliance.

Research on the effectiveness of classroom contracts is scarce. Lemieux (2001) concludes that learning contracts are an effective tool for responsibly sharing power and promoting better performance outcomes among graduate students. There is evidence of success for using police contracts on young offenders in the U.K. (Home Office Research Development and Statistics Directorate, 2004). But on the whole, research evidence is limited on the effectiveness of classroom contracting.

A Critique of Sociological Model

The Social Approach, as shown in many studies cited above, would be more effective if adopted and practiced by the whole school. Slee (1995) also argues that next to the government policy makers, schools as institutions have an immense

responsibility in cultivating effective, relevant education for students so the occurance of discipline problems will be minimised. This Institutional or Whole School Approach can be effective in tackling discipline problems (Duke, 1989; Gottfredson, 1989; Short and Short, 1994; Cooper et al, 2000; Taylor-Green et al., 2004; Todd et al., 2004; Villa and Thousand, 2005). However, it will not be elaborated here since it has little relevancy to this project. Without consistency amongst staff, a teacher applying this approach in isolation will likely meet limited success. Some methods are also difficult for a subject teacher to apply. For example, holding regular class meetings with all the classes that a subject teacher teaches would be impractical. Style (2001) urges teachers to trust the ability of their students to lead meetings, participate in discussions, choose solutions, and make decisions that will affect the classroom. The practicality of this is highly questionable.

The job of the student leader in class meeting seems overly immense even for an adult: being an effective communicator, he/she speaks loudly and clearly; follows the order of steps for conducting the meeting, for solving problems, and for discussing suggestions; makes eye contact with each person speaking; keeps discussions on topic; lets students know if they are out of order; asks questions, clarifies or restates problems or ideas; and summarizes (Style, 2001). Firstly, we cannot realistically expect young children to fulfill such role successfully. Secondly, it is difficult to manage impulsive students from talking out of turn. Finally, as the concept of class meetings is based on 'Choice Theory', it is questionable whether all students are capable and willing to choose responsible behaviour. As in any group, there bound to be dominating personalities as well as shy and quiet ones. The final decisions made might not be as 'democratic' as one thinks. The opinion and input of the quiet and subdued students might very well be left out in class meetings.

Regarding behaviour contracts, evidence of success for using police contracts (Home Office Research Development and Statistics Directorate, 2004) cannot be applied to classroom situations. There are serious consequences for breaching the police contracts: the young offender can be fined or be imprisoned; the court can also take legal action against the tenancy of someone who should be responsible for the offender's behaviour. The classroom behaviour contract, however, will not have the same impact. Quite often signing a behaviour contract is not optional for the student,

especially for young ones. For many students, the consequences of breaking the classroom behaviour contract are not serious enough. Even expelsion, the last resort for the school, might not be a punishment for some students. Singh (2001) points out the teachers' constraints and lack of power when it comes to discipline: corporal punishment has been abolished, often recess and lunch periods cannot be taken away and many student travel by bus, so after school detentions are not appropriate. Edwards (2004) also notes that students who are suspended or expelled from school usually get further behind in the school work and make no improvement in how they behave when they are allowed to return to class.

The teaching of social skills is crucial in any educational institutions. It is also important in this research because many of the young children have not yet mastered the classroom etiquette, such as listening and following directions; waiting for one's turn; dealing with stress and so on. However, teaching social skills is a lengthy process and to spend an extensive amount of time on it during music is not at all feasible.

2.2.3.4   Eclectic-ecological Approach – Systemic Approach

The eclectic-ecological approach stresses the influence of various systems that impinge on the behaviour of the child in the classroom (Hyman et al., 1982). According to Huitt (2003), the basis of this approach stems from an acceptance of the three major aspects of human beings – mind, body, spirit – that have been the focus of the study since the ancient Greeks. The three dimensions of the mind (Eysenck, 1947; Miller, 1991; Norman, 1980): cognition, affect, and conation, receive information and manifest action through the body. The body can be considered in terms of biological or genetic influences, bodily functioning, and overt behaviour or output which has been extensively studied by the behaviourists (e.g. Skinner, 1953; Bandura, 1977). The model also recognizes that both biological and spiritual factors influence the development and functioning of the components of mind. Finally, there is a feedback loop between overt responses (behaviour) and resulting stimuli from the environment.

The theoretical origins of this perspective also rest on Bertalanffy's (1966) 'General System Theory', in which human beings develop in a variety of contexts – environments which surround the individual human being and which he/she is in

constant interaction play a major role in development (e.g. Bridge et al., 1979; Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1979, 1989). Human behaviour, then, is the product of an ongoing interaction between social environments and internal motivations. These systems include the home, family, religion, culture, sub-culture, community, and the school. There are always interconnected elements between these systems, and any change in one system can have repercussions in the others.

Bronfenbrenner's Model

Bronfenbrenner (1977, 1979, 1986, 1989, 1995) is responsible for an ecological systems theory that views development within a complex system of relationships affected by multiple levels of the surrounding environment. He conducted studies on the interaction of genetics and environment, and explored the influence of external environments on the functioning of families as contexts for child development. Ecological systems theory highlights four levels that include but extend beyond the classroom setting:

a. The Microsystem (Classroom Practices): at the innermost level of the environment, it refers to activities and interaction patterns in the student's immediate surroundings. All relationships are bidirectional and reciprocal: administrators, teachers, and peers affect the student's behaviour, and vice versa. Relationships can be enhanced by a supportive setting.

b. The Mesosystem (Professional Collaboration): refers to connections among microsystems, such as peer meetings, mentoring sessions, and the school site, which foster students' development. This level determines how contexts and relationships develop, and how change and stability in these relationships form key aspects of the student's transition to teaching.

c. The Exosystem (Organizational Structure/Policies): refers to social setting that do not contain the students but that affect their experiences in immediate settings formally or informally as in a mentor's social network. For example, school experiences may affect a student's relationship with his personal family.

d. The Macrosystem (Cultural Values): at the outermost level, it refers to the values, laws, and customs of a particular culture. The priority it gives to the student's

needs affects the support they receive at lower levels of the environment.

The ecological systems theory suggests that interventions at any level of the environment can enhance development, with macrosystem being most important (Bronfenbrenner and Morris, 1998). It affects all other environmental levels, revising established values and programmes in ways more favourable to student development have the most far-reaching impact on students' well-being.

Other Theorists

Molnar and Lindquist (1989) note that the systemic approach views problem behaviour as a part of, not separate from, the social setting within which it occurs. It focuses on the positive with hopes instead of focusing on individuals, deficiencies, and past events with negative consequences. Negativity is often unhelpful as a guide to positive change and the teacher is denied the opportunity to do something about the problem because the attention is directed away from the social interactions in the school and not focusing on what the individual does well. In considering problem behaviour, it calls not for the identification of the 'true' cause of the problem, but rather for the identification of an interpretation that fits the facts at hand and suggests new behaviours that might change the situation in an acceptable way. The teacher need to 'reframe' the problem that the student is presenting, placing a co-operative or positive connotation on what is previously seen as unacceptable behaviour. For example, the teacher can interpret a child's disruptive behaviour from the pupil's point of view, taking into account factors such as the child's current family system. The child may be seeking and failing to receive attention at home, thus becoming disruptive at school into order to secure parental attention. The teacher can praise the child for making him/her repeat the instruction, making it clearer for the whole class, and the child may even be encouraged to interrupt more often. Such perception allows the teacher to view the child's behaviour as a symptom of a problem of family system origin but which overlaps into the school system. This is known as 'paradoxical injunction' where by a situation of conflict becomes a situation of co-operation in which the teacher regains control without the student losing face or autonomy of action.

Other systems theorists, such as Cooper and Upton (1991) and Subramanian

(2000), believe that problem behaviour is a product of social interaction. Teachers should study the links and the pattern, contributed by all participating parties, which is the life of the problem. Intervention might include changing the way adults respond, interact, and communicate around the problem. It may be helpful to have a mediator who might not teach the child any new skills, but work with parents and teachers on the structure and pattern of interactions.

The systemic approach allows people to adopt new explanations about behaviour without rejecting old ones – there can be many explanations and ways that may help in solving the problem. Olsen and Cooper (2001) suggest that if the approach adopted by the school does not work, then change it to an approach that does work, preferably one that is supported by research evidence. There are no simple formulae for promoting positive behaviour in the classrooms – teachers are likely to maximize their success when they take account of the context in which they are working – what their students are telling them about how they see the situation.

A Critique of Eclectic-ecological Approach

Bertalanffy (1966), Haley (1973, 1978), de Shazer (1985) have all used the systemic or structural approaches for therapy. Regarding the effectiveness of the systemic approach in the education field, Molnar and Lindquist (1982, 1988) documented over 200 case studies of success stories.

Swenson et al. (1998) note that the multisystemic model has produced some of the most impressive evidence of effectiveness at the time of their writing. Henggeler and Borduin (1990) also cite nine studies supporting the effectiveness of this model. The multisystemic model involves an appreciation of the personal and individual developmental factors, and combines systemic approach with behavioural and cognitive interventions when appropriate. It is community based, as the therapeutic team goes into neighbourhoods, schools, and families of difficult individuals. It also demands a cooperative relationship to be developed between the team and the individuals (Henggeler, 1999). This multifaceted model would also be in line with Slee's (1995) thoughts regarding the importance of supportive school environments.

In actual practice, however, the multisystemic model is a luxury and might not be accessible by many schools. The cost itself would be a great drawback for having a

'therapeutic team' working closely with the school, difficult individuals and their families. In a way, the model is a non-achievable ideal even though many of its practical ideas can be borrowed or modified for classroom use. Furthermore, since the systemic approach relies on good communications and co-operations between stakeholders, it should be initiated and adopted by the school. A lone teacher employing the multisystemic model without support will likely have very limited success.

Molnar and Lindquist (1989) note that in considering problem behaviour, it calls not for the identification of the 'true' cause of the problem, but rather for finding an interpretation that fits the facts at hand and suggests new behaviours that might change the situation in an acceptable way. However, according to the Psychodynamic-interpersonal Model (Hyman et al., 1982), this might not have dealt with the root problem of disconnectedness, and any change in student's behaviour might only be cosmetic and short lived.

Finally, according to Molnar and Lindquist (1989), to apply an ecosystem approach it is necessary for the teacher to 'reframe the problem that the student is presenting, turning a negative into positive, placing a co-operative connotation on what is previously seen as unacceptable behaviour. Given that every situation might be slightly different, the same behaviour might mean different things at different times. Thus the teacher always needs to reflect and review on his/her actions in order to gain experience and improve, action research becomes invaluable.

2.2.3.5   Human-potential Model

As Kyriacou (2002) points out, our child rearing practice in the Western world is becoming more 'child-centered', and our approach in classroom discipline is also becoming more humanistic. The assumption of today's social justice idea is that all about human beings are essentially good and valuable (Hall and Lindzey, 1957). Humanistic psychology developed as a reaction against strict psychoanalytic and behaviouristic interpretations of behaviour. While other approaches, such as the Sociological Model and Eclectic-Ecological Approach are also humanistic, the theoretical roots of the Human-Potential Model might best be exemplified in the works of Maslow and Rogers (Morse, 1978). According to Hyman et al. (1982), the

model represents a 'third force' in psychology, which rejects a 'sickness' model for studying behaviour and understanding misbehaviour and focuses on the study of the actualization potential of humans. Deterministic approaches exemplified by psycholanalytic and behavioural psychologies are dismissed as placing too much emphasis on negative experience and past history. The roots of holistic psychology lead in many directions. In particular, as an underlying philosophy for solving problems of alienation the movement became focused in the counter culture of the 1960s and led to a variety of techniques that are encompassed in the so-called human potential movement. The underlying theory, according to Hall and Lindzey (1957), is that '*man has an inborn nature that is essentially good and is never evil*' (p.326).

Rogers and other adherents of the approach assume that humans are born with basic potential for 'goodness' that they attempt to fulfill. Children who misbehave need latitude to feel freedom to express themselves and feel wanted. In a nurturing environment their basic thrust for goodness will emerge (Hyman et al., 1982). In the classroom, the principle is to give students opportunities to make choices and manage their own learning (Biehler and Snowman, 1986). The teacher, instead of being an absolute authority and punishing students for misbehaving regardless of the cause, he/she tries to find out 'why' the student misbehaves in the first place. The teacher is not to tell the student what is wrong or what should be done about the problem, instead the teacher assumes that the student will effectively learn how to control his/her own behaviour (ibid).

There are many approaches under the Human-potential Model, but here we focus mainly on the Cognitive Approach, which comes from 'Constructivism', as Gordon's (1974) work is sited often as an example in humanistic model. Constructivism is an approach to knowledge that assumes people know and understand in unique ways and create their own and new knowledge (Mohapsi, 2008). Thus, cognitive psychologists are interested in how people understand, diagnose, and solve problems, concerning themselves with the mental processes which mediate between stimulus and response (Anderson, 1995), which reflect the human potential. The cognitive (or cognitive-behaviour) approach of behaviour management is the process of teaching people the skills and attitudes necessary to associate with others in ways that are mutually satisfactory and gratifying. There are three components in this process: Cognitive

Rehabilitation (including cognitive restructuring and cognitive error correction); Social Skill Building (teaching both social/interpersonal and thinking skills to improve performance); and Culture Restructuring (seeding the culture with memes, artifacts, icons, and rituals of prosocial competence) (Gardner, 2003). The use of cognitive-behaviour management techniques was extended to classroom management by researchers such as Ginott (1975).

Guided Problem Solving (Teacher Effective Training)

Gordon (1974), in his book *Teacher Effectiveness Training* (TET), states that by guiding children through a series of problem solving steps, the adult can teach students how to solve their own disputes and make good decisions so that solutions are win-win. These steps include 'Identify and define the problem or situation'; 'Generate alternatives'; 'Evaluate the alternative suggestions'; 'Make the decision'; 'Implement the solution/decision'; and 'Conduct a follow-up evaluation'. However, this technique was not generated from empirical studies. Regarding to its effectiveness, studies over the years, such as those by Blume (1977), Dennehy (1981), Nummela, (1987), Chanow (1980), and Laseter (1981), produced mixed and inconclusive results.

Situational Teaching

In Situational teaching, the instructor would encourage their students to 'ACE' a course, i.e., Analyse a problem; Create a solution; and Explain and defend the solution. Situational teaching focuses on the relationship between student achievement and self-direction and provides a framework for the teacher in helping students become more self-directed in academic tasks (Scobie, 1983). The assumption is that when one does well academically, he/she would have more self-control and less likely to exhibit inappropriate behaviour. In fostering self directed learning (SDL) in the classroom, students can learn to think for themselves, work at their own pace, choose their own goals, and design their own programmes (Gibbons, 2002). The true test of education, according to Gibbons (1974) '*is not what the student can do under a teacher's direction, but what the teacher has enabled him to decide and to do on his own*' (p.598).

The root of Situational Teaching is the Hersey/Blanchard situational leadership

model (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969) which suggests that leadership style should be matched to the maturity of the subordinates. Graeff (1983) gives a comprehensive critical review of the theory that attempts to discredit it at both the theoretical and pragmatic level. He points out the theory's tendency to overemphasize the ability dimension, and how this overemphasis can severely limit the usefulness of the theory (p.287). For example, if an employee has a low self-esteem that results in a low level of self-confidence, his/her willingness will be virtually non-existent and the performance will be poor. According to this theory, this low level of maturity calls for high task, low relationship leadership that has coercion as its base. Yet Hersey et al. (2001) do not advocate coercion for employees that are insecure or shy (p.210-214). It is reasonable to anticipate the need for high relationship in such a situation, yet the model suggests the opposite.

It also seems that the published empirical analysis of situational leadership theory is scarce and relatively conflicting regarding its accuracy. Hambleton and Gumpert (1982) found a discrepancy in manager ratings of subordinate maturity and self-assessments of leadership style. Blank et al. (1990) also find no support for situational leadership theory in their study. In an attempt to validate situational leadership theory, Fernandez and Vecchio (1997) conclude that situational leadership theory '*has little descriptive utility*' (p.67). Cairn et al. (1998) sought to test the central hypothesis of situational leadership theory that the interaction of leader behaviour and employee readiness determines leader effectiveness, and found their results providing no support for the theory. Overall, empirical evidence provides only partial support for the principles of situational leadership theory, but finds no strong evidence for its effectiveness.

Ginott's Congruent Communication Model

Ginott's model is one of the contructivist approaches to school discipline (Ginott, 1975). Ginott maintains that teachers should ensure a secure, humanitarian and productive classroom through the use of 'congruent communication', meaning communication that is harmonious, where teachers' messages to students are relevant and matches students' feelings. According to Steere (1988), Ginott's model for correcting children's behaviour is largely based on the words spoken to students when 'teachers are at their worst' and when 'teachers are at their best'. When correcting a

student, a teacher should tell him/her what behaviour is expected of him/her by speaking to the situation and not by judging the child's character. The model also advocates providing opportunities for students to become less dependent on teachers and to become more responsible for what happens in the classroom. In doing so, it is important for teachers to develop a calm language that appropriately fits situations and feelings, find alternatives to punishment, prevent him/herself from judging a student's character and remain a good model, and use I-messages rather than You-messages. An I-message is more appropriate when a teacher is upset and expresses displeasure: "I am disappointed because you did not do your homework". A You-message blames and shames the learner, such as "You are lazy".

According to Charles (2005), Ginott has made a number of helpful contributions on how teachers should communicate with students to foster positive relations while reducing and correcting misbehaviour. However, Ginott's model does not provide adequate suggestions for rules and consequences, nor does it indicate how teachers can put an immediate stop to grossly unacceptable behaviour (Charles, 2005, p.27).

Peer Mediation

Cutolo (1966) notes that students who have the ability to deal effectively with conflict tend to have a stronger perception of their abilities, talents, and themselves. It is therefore important to teach students how to effectively deal with conflict in their school and home situations. The use of mediation as a conflict resolution process can be established as an ongoing programme within the school setting.

Mediation is a process-oriented approach in which neutral individuals (trained mediators) assist those in conflict to work out a resolution to the issues. As most of the conflict resolutions are blame-centred, judgement is usually made upon the situation without allowing the disputees to talk with each other in a structured setting that promotes a mutually-agreed upon solution to the problem.

Tyrrell and Farrell (1995), after completing a one-year pilot project in two primary schools in the U.K., conclude that a peer mediation service in primary schools is both beneficial and feasible, under the condition that the institution is totally committed to this programme long term. It offers children as preparation for life, and also immediate benefit to the teachers and administrator that they deal with

less number of misbehaviour incidences. Johnson and Johnson (1996) also conclude that after training, students' success in resolving their conflicts constructively tends to result in reducing the numbers of student-student conflicts referred to teachers and administrators, which, in turn, tends to reduce suspensions.

Human Relations Training

Initially, Hand et al. (1973) developed their Human Relations Training programme for managers to utilize human relations principles in their dealings with employees. The programme targeted the emotional competencies of self-awareness, empathy and leadership. In the school context, the goal of human relations training is to increase teachers' understanding of self in terms of interpersonal relationships. Its emphasis is on group process and communication, and some claims it as a major method for humanizing teachers and helping them relate to students (Hyman et al., 1982). Many of the research (e.g. Hefele, 1971; Long et al., 1978) suggest that human relations training is effective in changing attitudes of school staff and in improving communication skills. Carter (1974) claims the programme to be most effective at the elementary level. Hyman et al. (1982) note that although most of the research studies on human relations training did not actually investigate changes in teacher or student behaviour, it is important to recognize the potential humanizing effect of this approach for school systems in general.

Stop Now and Plan (SNAP)

The SNAP programme is an empirically-based model intervention, developed by Child Development Institute in Toronto, Canada. SNAP is designed specifically for boys and girls under 12 years of age who are having trouble with the law, and behavioural problems within their families. The programme uses a variety of established interventions: skills training, training in cognitive problem solving, self-control strategies, cognitive self-instruction, family management skills training, and parent training (Institute for Child & Family Health, 2007).

According to the Child Development Institute (2008), all evaluations of SNAP show that it significantly improves conduct problems and lowers delinquency in children. Of the 700+ graduates in Toronto, fewer than 30% have gotten in trouble with police after completion of the programme. In one study, Augimeri et al. (2007)

examined the immediate, short and long-term effectiveness of the SNAP Under 12 Outreach project, and found SNAP to be an effective cognitive-behavioural programme for antisocial children in the short term, with possible effect that extend into adolescence and adulthood.

Since its development about 20 years ago, some sixty locations have fully replicated SNAP or some of its key components (Institute for Child & Family Health 2007). SNAP has also become a 'packaged' behaviour management tool for various institutions, including schools. However, since Child Development Institute (2008) stresses that SNAP should be a whole school approach in order to keep children in school and out of trouble, its application in this project is thus limited.

A Critique of Human-potential Model

The Human-potential model is totally in line with Slee's (1995) idea that discipline should not be framed within a control paradigm, instead, it should be ethical, democratic, and educational. Slee asserts the rights and potential of individuals. The goal of Cognitive (Cognitive-Behavioural) approach is to get people to make choices by empowering them to act. Its assumptions include: the student is motivated by the internal desire to be good; he/she can be helped by a warm accepting nonjudgmental relationship with another individual; and the person is rational - capable of solving his/her own problems. The approach stresses on the positive - students learn to solve their own problems, which they must own, thus developing responsibility. These practices are also seen as supporting the running of a democratic rule-setting classroom. Techniques such as I-messages, no-lose problem solving, and the prohibition of punishment are used in a manner that spare the students feeling of guilt and related resentment. Well-meaning teachers whose motivation is to work and help are also given new guidance regarding 'problem ownership' (Wolfgang, 2001).

The Cognitive Approach (in particular, TET) is a 'powerless' model because of the lack of proposed punishments or consequences (Wolfgang, 2001, p.224). Some students may not want to develop good relationships with their teachers or peers and therefore avoid participation in the problem solving activities. A person cannot be forced to engage in discussion if he/she is unwilling to do so. There are also those who do not have the ability to discuss rationally or able to follow a set of 'logic'.

Furthermore, according to Bronfenbrenner (1977), all relationships are bi-directional and reciprocal, making it very difficult for the teacher to avoid negative emotions when confronted with student disruptive behaviours. Teachers are also not equipped to deal with deep emotional concerns such as those resulting from physical and emotional abuse.

Often when the teacher stops and deals lengthily with a misbehaving child, such as using the 10-R technique or Guided Problem Solving, other children would lose focus and start chatting. Once the momentum of the lesson is lost, it is difficult to 'get back on track'. If the misbehaving child is defiant or decides to be a clown, the matter might become worse as the class would be drawn into laughter. Often misbehaviour has a ripple effect (Kounin, 1970). Young children might 'copy' others' misbehaviour if the first deviant child is not dealt with properly – in a way that most of all the other children see 'fit'. As in Graeff's (1983) example of Situational Teaching, a student with low self-esteem might perceive the teacher's treatment as being unfair, and this emotional perspective would probably hinder any logical learning. The application of Peer Mediation is very difficult with young children in the 'here and now' situation. Finally, the research evidence regarding the effectiveness of cognitive techniques has been mixed and inconclusive.

In the Western world, even though more and more psychologists and educators (e.g. Cronk, 1987; Hall, 1988; O'Brien, 2004; and Clough et al., 2004) are adopting the stand on humanistic approaches, still there are scholars who disagree with the humanistic approach to child rearing and classroom discipline. Singh (2001) observes that within our humanistic society, too many children are given too much freedom of choice in the home, in the community, and quite often in the school. Students become accustomed to this freedom and then when placed in a classroom environment where more stringent expectations are in place, they act out and cause problems for the classroom teacher.

Dobson (1992) observes that students at all levels prefer and respect, even love, more strict teachers. There is little place for freedom of choice and democracy in Dobson's model, because choice would only encourage rebellion against authority, egocentric conduct, and further disposition toward selfishness. Democratic conceptions of adult-child relations are irresponsible because they encourage the

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challenge of crucial parental and teacher authority. Adherence to adult-imposed standards is an important part of discipline. Dobson is serious about shaping the will of children, and would go any lengths to accomplish this goal. While advocating the use of punishment, Dobson (1978) stresses that parents and teachers show both loving compassion and decisive justice to children. There is a fundamental difference between Humanistic and Dobson's view on human nature. While humanistic philosophers basically view that human nature is good, Dobson stresses that human nature have both the good and the evil dimensions (ibid).

While it is beyond the scope of this paper to examine the philosophy of human nature, whether it is 'good' or 'evil', it is difficult in practice to adopt a pure humanistic approach in behaviour management. As stated before, the lone teacher simply does not have the time, resource, and support to administer the various ways suggested in the model. It might well be more effective as a 'whole school' approach. While most would agree that humanistic approaches might point to the right directions, they do not solve classroom discipline problems totally. It is also worth mentioning again that empirical evidence for the effectiveness of this approach is still relatively sparse.

2.2.4   Other Theorists

2.2.4.1   Proactive Discipline

In Bear's (1995) framework of discipline models, the importance of preventive discipline models is strongly emphasised. Wolfgang (2001) says that prior to Jacob Kounin, the forefather of 'Proactive discipline', instruction and discipline were regarded as separate entities: teaching was only helping students learning information and skills; while discipline was how a teacher kept the students working, paying attention, and maintaining proper behaviour.

In his studies, Kounin (1970) discovered the "Ripple Effect", in that the misbehaviour of a student has a negative effect on other students' behaviour no matter how the teacher handles the situation. He concluded that the ways teachers handle misbehaviour once it occurs are not the keys to successful classroom management, but instead what teachers do to prevent management problems from occurring at all.

Kounin found that organization and planning were keys to good classroom management along with proactive behaviour on the part of the teacher and high levels of student involvement. Teachers also need to have good 'Lesson Movement' which emphasizes the strong relationship between effective management and effective teaching, maintained through withitness, overlapping, momentum, smoothness, and group focus.

Withitness – With eyes 'in the back of his/her head', the teacher must have the students perceive that he/she knows what is going on in the classroom at all times.

Overlapping - The teacher's ability to multi-task by attending to various things at the same time. This might include giving instructions on an assignment while patrolling the room and preventing student misbehaviours and, at the same time, handling notes being delivered from the office.

Momentum - The flow of a lesson. Not only does the teacher need to know what is going to happen next, but needs to be prepared for unexpected changes such as the bulb burning out in the projector.

Smoothness - Maintaining direction in the lesson and not losing focus, or being diverted by irrelevant information or incidents. This can be accomplished by letting students know what is going to happen in class on that day and sticking to it; transitioning from one learning activity to another without a lot of disruption; and avoiding the 'jerkiness' of going from one task to another without direction.

Group Focus - The entire class is involved in the lesson. Making the class interesting so that students are unable to find other things that interest them more. Making students accountable for their misbehaviors without disrupting the entire class.

Mohapi (2008) places Kounin's model in the behavioural approach because it is based on the stimulus-reponse theory: learners will adopt good behaviour and eliminate undesirable behaviour in an attempt to gain the reward and avoid punishment. Kounin focuses more on the bahviour of the teacher and what he/she should be dong to achieve the desirable behaviour in students. According to Brasier (2000), the overall philosophy of Kounin's model is to create a classroom environment and relationship with the students which minimises the incidence of misbehaviour. However, it lacks provisions for dealing with problems once they have

occurred, thus the model is best implemented combined with elements of other apporaches. Similarly, Keane (1984) points out that a relative weakness of Kounin's model appeared to be the ability of of the develolped procedure to speak to practical concerns of teachers and offer reasonable alternatives to discipline problems. In her studies, a great number of the teachers trained in the Kounin model reported that misbehaviour would occur even in the best of circumstances, and Kounin provides no help with regard to how teachers should cope when a lesson is being spoiled. This point is also supported by Mohapi (2008).

2.2.4.2   Importance of Teacher Characters

Kounin (1970), on the one hand, suggests that teachers need to manage their classrooms effectively in order to diminish the occurance of misbehaviour so that learning can be enhanced; on the other hand, he seems to deemphasize the personality of the teacher when it comes to implementing his strategies. Referring to teacher traits uch as friendliness, helpfulness, rapport, warmth, patience, and so on, Kounin claims that such traits are of little value in managing a classroom (Mohapi, 2008). However, according to both David (1999) and Stronge (2002), the teacher's personality and personal philosophy have a tremendous effect on student discipline – especially for a primary teacher, his/her integrity and characters become a living model for students. Banner and Cannon (1997) states that teaching is an art, and professional teachers have given far too much attention to techniques they use. Instead, the focus should be on qualities, both natural and cultivated, of those who teach.

The literature seems to unanimously point to the fact that the teacher him/herself is very crucial to young children (David, 1999; Stronge, 2002). Generating a positive and comfortable classroom climate is essential for a productive and enjoyable learning experience; otherwise students can easily lose interest, motivation and commitment (Cox and Heames, 1999). According to Feeney and Chun (1985), effective early childhood educators tend to be kind, caring, demonstrate fairness and respect for others, have a positive outlook on life, with energy, physical strength, a sense of humour, flexibility, self-understanding, emotion stability, emotional warmth, and sensitivity. Gagne (1985) asserts that relating appropriately to the teacher is essential for effective learning for young children. Oliver and Smith (2000) echo that

relationships are deeply significant in early learning: '*an adult-child relationship which is exploratory and supportive in nature leads to higher level of self-esteem in children'* (p.29). It is also important to understanding the views and thoughts of young children: '*Students need to have a sense that their opinions are valued. As reflective teachers, we should allow our thinking to be challenged and changed by feedback from pupils*' (Rice, 2000, p.36). Furthermore, '*teachers who listen and learn from their pupils are teachers who value their pupils'* (Ibid, 2000, p.36). In sum, the positive affective qualities of effective teachers are described as: approachable, cheerful, enthusiastic, humourous, adaptable, positive, motivated, expressive, sensitive, empathetic, fair, flexible, open-minded, committed, hard-working, passionate, humble, responsible, and so on (Anderson, 1989; Parkay, 1995; Woolfolk, 1998; Ornstein and Lasley II, 2000; Elliot et al., 2000; Arends, 2004).

Seeman and Hofstand (1998) note that we need more caring teachers who respect children and regard teaching as more than 'just a job'. Waintroob (1995) proposes that incompetent teachers, who often grumble, complain, regard children as nuisance, take advantage of the school system by regularly taking sick leaves, humiliate children publicly, should be remediated or even dismissed. Bridges (1985) observes that even a small proportion of incompetent teachers would affect a substantial amount of students. It seems that teaching is more than just manipulating the environment, shaping behaviour, or having the right techniques and curriculum. The human factor in teaching is infinitely variable and often beyond the reach of scientific inquiry.

Rogers (2002) says it is essential that the teacher is enthusiastic and has good rapport with students; that the learning environment is positive and encouraging; and that words spoken in the classroom are for building up, and not putting down an individual. Teaching children, however, can be a frustrating experience as the dilemmas of teaching are well-documented (Berlak and Berlak, 1981; Galton, 1989). Such dilemmas could also be stemmed from the fact that there are so few prescriptions in education – something is right for someone some of the time, and the difficulty is getting the classroom formula 'right' most of the time across changing circumstances (Moyles, 1992).

2.3   Commonalities between the Discipline Models

The five models/approaches of disciplinary practices mentioned stemmed from the various philosophical stands and historical perspectives. However, there seems to be one commonality amongst them. In the literature, writers of all schools of thoughts seem to advocate the notion of the importance of building relationships. Learning involves relationship as people interact with one another. The different theories are different ways to understand the learning process. Thus, teacher-student relationship is vital when applying these learning theories in a teaching situation.

In the Psychodynamic-interpersonal orientation, the importance of 'student-teacher' relationship is valued. Reality Therapy emphasizes students' good choices through relationship with teachers (Glasser, 1965). Social Discipline Model stresses on the need for teachers to understand the child and to stimulate his/her cooperation (Dreikurs, 1968). The Alderian Approach also emphasizes the understanding of an individual's reasons for maladaptive behaviour (Dreikurs et al., 1982). Similarly, Psycho Education advocates that teachers unfailingly express confidence in the student's ability to change for the better (Beck and McDonnell, 1980). All of the above require good adult-child relationship in order for the models to succeed, this relationship serves as satisfying students' basic need of 'love and belonging'. According to my own synthesis, this can be termed 'Therapist-Client' or 'Expert-Layman' relationship. Assuming the gap/difference between the two roles (in terms of level of control, expertise, and authority) can be arbitrarily expressed by the relative numeric interval between 5 (maximum) and 0 (minimum), the relational numbers for therapist and client would be 5 and 2. The therapist is an expert who is understanding and trusting; while the client, being a recipient of good counsel, needs to make appropriate choices in the situation. The closer the relational numbers, the smaller the gap/distance between the two parties.

Even in the Behavioural Approach, where behaviour conditioning and modification are paramount, the importance of relationship is also advocated by some behaviourists. For example, in Assertive Discipline, Cantor (1976, 1981) advises that teachers should be demanding, yet warm in interaction. Dobson (1978, 1992), an advocate of using appropriate punishment as a necessary measure in teaching

children, stresses that teachers must administer punishment in the context of love so that children will always feel the security and acceptance even though they misbehave. However, because of Dobson's concept of caring about the inner feeling of the child, it can be argued that he is only a user of the behaviourist techniques rather than a true believer in Behavioursm, in which the relationship aspect can be termed as 'Subject-Object', with the relational numbers 5 and 0. The subject, as an authority, shapes, conditions, controls, and manipulates the object, which is passive, with no inner thoughts, and responds only according to what is done to him/her.

In Sociological Model, Elias et al. (1977) stress on the importance of promoting children's academic, social, and emotional learning. Students develop warm relationship with teachers and through the process of 'social and emotional learning' (SEL), students learn to care about others, develop positive relationships and avoid negative behaviours. The use of class meetings is another way of building relationships, both between teacher and students, and among students themselves (Style, 2001). Therefore, the model advocates a 'Giver-Recipient' relationship, which can be expressed by the relational numbers 4 and 2. The giver is warm, caring, positive, and shares responsibility with other students in problem solving through class meetings. The recipient, though valued, responds under social pressure from peers.

In Eclectic-ecological (Systemic) Approach, all relationships are bi-directional and reciprocal, and can be enhanced by a supportive setting (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). Molnar and Lindquist (1989) note that the systemic approach focuses on the positive with hopes instead of focusing on individuals, deficiencies, and past events with negative consequences. Building a good relationship with students is definitely an important criterion in the process. Cooper and Upton (1991) also believe that problem behaviour is a product of social interaction. Intervention might include changing the way adults respond, interact, and communicate around the problem. Thus, building relationship is paramount in the process. This bi-directional, reciprocal relationship can be termed as 'Caring leader-Customer' and expressed by the relational numbers of 4 and 3. The caring leader is responsible, resourceful, positive, supportive, compassionate, responsive, and acts according to the needs and response of the 'customer' who is highly valued.

Finally, in Human-potential Model, the goal is to empower students to act and make good choices. The approach stresses on the positive, and supports the running of a democratic classroom (Wolfgang, 2001). Needless to say, it is essential for teachers to have good relationship with students, and can be termed as 'Facilitator-Subject' relationship, as expressed by the relational numbers of 4 and 4. The facilitator guides, supports, empowers, and is democratic; while the subject, who is almost equal to the facilitator in terms of value, is free to make choices.

Even thought the notion of 'building relationship with students' is supported by all the five approaches within the framework of discipline used in this thesis, it is important to note that the type of 'relationship' is different amongst the various approaches. Below is a summary table, capturing the various types of relationships mentioned above:

Table 2   Summary of Types of Relationships in the Five Discipline Approaches

Approach	Relational #	Type of Relationship
Psychodynamic-Interpersonal	**5 : 1** **Therapist/ Expert : Client/ Layman**	**Therapist (Expert)** – understanding, trusting, knowledgeable, resourceful
		Client (Layman) – making good choice
Behavioural	**5 : 0** **Subject : Object**	**Subject** – controlling, shaping, conditioning, manipulating
		Object – passive, responding
Sociological	**4 : 2** **Giver : Recipient**	**Giver** – warm, caring, positive, sharing responsibilities with other objects
		Recipient – respond/react under social pressure
Eclectic-Ecological	**4 : 3** **Caring Leader : Customer**	**Caring Leader** – leading, responsible, positive, supportive, compassionate, resourceful, responsive to customer's behaviour/needs (bi-directional relationship)
		Customer – valued, reciprocal relationship with care giver
Human-potential	**4 : 4** **Facilitator : Subject**	**Facilitator** – empowering, guiding, supportive, democratic
		Subject – having good nature, highly valued, free to make choices

In spite of the importance of building student-teacher relationship as avocated by all models of discipline, educators have paid too little attention to how critical teacher-student relationship can be: they often set the stage for appropriate instruction and effective learning (Shulman and Mesa-Bains, 1993). The significance of teacher-student rapport simply cannot be overlooked. It has been identified as a significant influence on overall school and behavioural adjustment (Baker et al., 1997). Baldwin and Baldwinn (1982) agree that teachers' working to establish a relationship with students is an important strategy in effective behaviour management. Pianta et al. (1995) find that positive teacher-student relationships, defined as 'warm, close, communicative', are linked to behavioural competence and better school adjustment. Other researchers find that conflict and dependency in teacher-student relationships are related to unfavorable outcomes such as a negative school attitude, school avoidance (Birch and Ladd, 1997) and hostile aggression (Howes et al., 1994).

Finally, Salzberger-Wittenberg et al. (1999) caution that since teachers and students are not peers, this relationship should be characterized by mutual respect. Furthermore, teachers are professional educators; they are neither students' friends nor their parents. Teachers who are overly-friendly or overly-familiar with students might make the classroom environment too lax and encourage students to take advantage of the teacher.

2.4 Incompatibility between the Approaches and Problems in Research Application

The research literature has offered us numerous theories and procedures for maintaining discipline in the classroom. However, the appropriate application of them is not at all easy. With so many different theoretical approaches, it is difficult for a teacher choose the right one(s) to use. Furthermore, as most of the strategies describe general classroom scenarios, it is also difficult to translate the theories or methods into a particular classroom situation, such as the Lower Primary Music Class. As Hopkins (1985) notes that the teacher derives his/her knowledge of teaching from continual participation in situational decision making and the classroom culture in which they and their pupils live out their daily lives. It is often extremely difficult to apply research findings to classroom practice. Bolster (1983) also states that

'*most research, especially that emanating from top-ranked schools of education,*

construes teaching from a theoretical perspective that is incompatible with the perspective teachers must employ in thinking about their work… As a result, the conclusions of much formal research on teaching appear irrelevant to classroom teachers – not necessarily wrong, just not very sensible or useful' (p.295).

In the U.S. literature, for example, some of the bold and promising titles might lead teachers to believe that solving discipline problems can be quick and easy if they applied those techniques correctly. 'How to cut discipline problems in half' (Dunaway, 1974); 'Classroom discipline problems? Fifteen humane solutions' (Hipple, 1978); and 'Seven techniques for solving classroom discipline problems' (O'keefe and Smaby, 1973) are just a few amongst the many. However, Johns (1997) writes that the U.S. is the most violent country in the industrialized world: there were three million attempted or completed assaults, rapes, robberies, and thefts in school buildings in 1988. Student disruptive behaviour is a major concern of and challenge for teachers of all experience levels (Edwards, 1993). Willis (1996) reports that student misbehaviour may in fact be a bigger challenge today than in the past due to a variety of reasons, including changes in school power relationships (Cothran and Ennis, 1997) and the increasing disengagement and alienation of students (Sedlak et al., 1986). The Kachur (1999) study shows that gun violence and crime in U.S. schools are prevalent. According to Washington Post (Nov 21, 2005), one in 20 students was a victim of violence of theft at school in 2003. For whatever reasons, this shows not only a big gap between the theories and the reality in the U.S., but a dichotomy that in spite of this 'reality in crime and violence', the society is becoming more humanistic.

Fortunately the U.S. examples do not represent the global picture. Nevertheless, in spite of all the theories generated, the problem of classroom indiscipline still exists, though to a varying degree, depending on the culture and geographical location of the schools. There is indeed a gap between theories in literature and the actual practice. Theories are usually too general to be applied in all situations. Theories generated in the U.S. may not be all applicable to situations in Russia, China, U.K., New Zealand, or even U.S. itself. Each classroom is somewhat unique in its own way, with its composition of personalities. The gap between theory and practice is contributed by at least two more factors:

a. Conflicting Ideas/Assumptions

Even with 'student-teacher relationship' as a commonality, the five discipline models presented are in fact based on very different assumptions and opposing views of human nature, with Behaviourism and Humanism at the two extremes. Their differences are really significant and conflicting. Kramlinger and Huberty (1990) state the behaviourism and humanism are in contrast. Words and phrases that describe behaviourism include: authority figure, control, pressure, demand co-operation, praise dominate, win-lose, external discipline, free will as illusion, lack of trust, manipulator, and environmental contingencies. In contrast, those describe humanism include: knowledgeable leader, influence, stimulation, winning co-operation, encouragement, guide, win-win, self-discipline, free will as a reality, trust, facilitator, and actualization. The meaning of the words reflect that the aim in behaviourism is to control, but the aim in humanism is to facilitate. The former does not depend on student co-operation but the latter stresses that students' co-operation and choice are essential.

McDaniel (1994) argues that the best method in handling discipline problems is to help teachers in exercising authoritarianism effectively, with rules clear and firm. Latham (1998), however, suggests that teachers' setting of classroom rules may negatively impact students' education on citizenship. This creates confusion and difficulty for teachers as to which approach and direction to follow.

b. The Human Factor – Teacher

'*If a problem arises in the classroom, ask what has led up to the pupil misbehaving. Is the pupil stuck, bored, confused, tired, finding the pace too fast or too slow, worried about failing, or simply unsure of what they should be doing?*' (Kyriacou, 2002, p.40)

Working in the 'front line', the teacher faces challenge of discipline problem everyday. Kyriacou challenges the teacher, the classroom manager, to be in control and make sure that the lesson is appropriate, motivating, and exciting for every student. This is rightly so because that is what every teacher should do. However, as Coleman (2001) explains,

'The reasons for poor student behaviour in school are varied and complex. Consequently, the traditionally held belief that the problem would take care of itself if only teachers were well prepared for class and were giving students enough meaningful work to do, no longer holds true' (p.114).

Moreover, teachers rarely work in ideal environments and situations. For example, Tauber (2007) notes that many students come to school with problems of various sorts. Sometimes these students' agendas are so intensely in conflict with those of the school, and it is just next to impossible for the teacher to build positive relationship with these individuals. Quite often situations could happen well beyond the anticipation and preparation of a classroom teacher. For example, in the middle of a lesson, audio-visual equipment can malfunction, guitar strings can break, young children can have accidents of all sorts, from wetting the carpet to having temper tantrum to throwing up on the teacher and so on. Research literature rarely tells us what to do in such scenarios.

Teachers face increasing demands, with limited time and often, limited resource. While a teacher strives to do his/her very best in the classroom, discipline problems might still arise regardless. As Rogers (2002) points out:

'when you get 25-30 children in a small room, with the widest variation in personality, temperament and ability, there are natural energies at work that can significantly affect group dynamics and productive teaching and learning. Those energies are present in behaviours that are distracting, attention-seeking, disruptive or seriously disturbing.' (p.5)

Also, there is often incongruence between a teacher's beliefs about education and how he/she behaves in the classroom. This is what Elbaz (1983) and Ebbutt (1983) call 'Performance Gap'. Having sound knowledge on discipline theories does not automatically guarantee that teachers are able to effectively practice them. For example, while we know that consistency is paramount (Sherrill, 1996), teacher inconsistencies are well documented in the literature (e.g. Caskey, 1960; Leatham, 2004); so is teacher biases of various sorts (e.g. Dukes and Sandargas, 1989; Forrester, 1997; Orange, 2000; Hwang, 2007). This is not to make excuses, but teachers need to be aware of their own weaknesses and limitations. As McManus (1995) witnessed his own failure in controlling his class even after he had written a

book *Troublesome Behaviour in the Classroom*, there is a gap between theory and practice, knowing and doing. So teachers need to exercise self-management by reflecting and refining.

Teachers have different personalities and styles. There might be no guarantee of success in any discipline approach for all teachers (Mohapi, 2008). Many programmes, because of their demands, are not 'deliverable' by all teachers. For instance, in 'High Trust Psychology', the teacher needs to be highly energetic and humorous; similarly, Bill Rogers' success perhaps not solely due to his programmes and strategies, but also his dynamic and charismatic personality. The reality is, not everyone can be humorous, energetic, dynamic and charismatic. Some teachers are physically weaker; some are timid and soft-spoken. People are different and we cannot expect all teachers behave the same way.

Different approaches to classroom management might be suitable for teachers with different personal styles. Also, it could be that the different approaches are appropriate for different situations. Teachers can grow professionally by constantly reflecting on their own teaching practices and trying to overcome their personal shortcomings (Brasier, 2000). For example, non-assertive teachers might learn from assertive discipline and overly assertive teachers might benefit from humanistic insights.

Discipline problems will not go away. Whiteside (1975) recognizes school discipline as an ongoing crisis and Welker (1976) says discipline is a reality in teaching. As teachers, we can maximize our success by constant improvement. The central argument of this thesis is that even the empirical based literature in classroom discipline is inadequate and lacks universality when applying to the day to day practice in the Lower Primary Music class. Thus there is the need for doing Action Research in order to find the best teaching practice in that particular context. Even with limitations, teachers can do their best and overcome any adverse situation.

2.5   Conclusion

In this chapter, review of literature on classroom management and discipline has been attempted, with heavy emphasis on the latter. Hyman et al.'s (1982) category of

models, in more or less a chronological order of development, was adopted in order to present the various discipline approaches. The five groups of disciplinary practices are Psychodynamic-interpersonal Model, Behavioural Approach, Sociological Model, Eclectic-ecological Approach, and Human-potential Model. Major examples in each approach were given. Furthermore, the importance of Kounin's 'pro-active discipline' was discussed. With the diversity and differences of the five approaches, there seems to be one commonality amongst them, which is the importance of 'student-teacher' relationship. The concept of 'relational number' was devised to represent the gap between the two parties. With this in mind, building relationship with students would be one of my focuses.

Even with 'student-teacher relationship' as a commonality, the five approaches are in fact stemmed from very different assumptions and conflicting views on human nature, and these opposing viewpoints can be confusing for teachers as to which one(s) to adopt for classroom use. Furthermore, some of these approaches (such as the Social Approach) are too 'big' to be applied in a single classroom. Their initiation, orientation, and maintenance must come from the school itself; otherwise it would be extremely difficult, if not futile, for the teacher as an individual to utilise such approaches in isolation. In addition, it was argued that there is a gap between theory and practice. Most of the strategies in these approaches cannot be applied directly, as each classroom situation is somewhat unique, and they are not recipes or 'model answers' for all situations. Many of these approaches describe general classroom situations and may not be relevant to a context-specific situation, such as the music class. Also, many of these strategies are more relevant for the teacher to deal with a child one at a time, and not with a whole class, such as 'Reality Therapy' and 'Stop Now And Plan'.

In fact, the amount of different theoretical approaches and advice is overwhelming. Even with the plethora of research literature, I would still need to find answers for improvement in the area of discipline in my specific classroom context. With the various approaches, perhaps each one had its own place, depending on the situation. The question remained: 'which one should I use when, and how'? For a practitioner, it is not enough to merely possess theoretical knowledge, but the practical knowledge which he/she can apply in day to day classroom situations.

Therefore, a pragmatic approach is necessary.

As a starting point for my action research, the works of many researchers were drawn upon for their practicality in classroom management, and due to their similarity to my personal philosophy. Some of these theorists include: Alberto and Troutman (1990), Dobson (2006), Kounin (1970), Kameenui and Darch (1995), Kazdin (1982), Laslett and Smith (2002), McIntyre (2003), Rogers (1988, 2000, 2002, 2004), Wolfgang (2005), and Wright (2001). Examples of their strategies employed were behaviourist techniques (such as token economy, the good behaviour game), teacher behaviour continuum, instructional classroom management, and so on. Throughout the process I attempted to be flexible and reflective, and often tried out ways that I devised and adapted from both personal experience and from other teachers. In other words, apart from the literature, I drew upon my own experience and various strategies I 'picked up' from others along the path of my teaching career as resources.

3   Research Design/ Methodology

3.1   Why Action Research?

This study is about improving the classroom management and discipline in the Lower Primary music class so that learning can be optimized. In order to answer the research question 'how discipline can be improved', advised from the literature was a necessary but not sufficient condition, as established in the last chapter. It was argued that the general theories of classroom discipline often cannot be applied directly to my context specific situation. Rogers (2002) also stresses that there are no formula and no guarantees when it comes to effective discipline. Therefore, 'action research' as a paradigm was chosen. The first part of this chapter is a brief literature review on action research, followed by what had been done in research design and methodology.

3.1.1   History of Action Research

Action research (AR) has only an approximately sixty year's history, originated from the wartime operational research and the post-war development of Kurt Lewin's (1948) theories of change agency in formal organization. Lewin's model of AR was based on a cycle or spiral of conceptual discovery, planning and executive and evaluative activities. Gradually, AR began to develop the characteristics of a movement in response to the issue of making academic research relevant to practitioners' problems. An example would be the advocacy of 'teachers as researchers' by Stenhouse (1979).

3.1.2   What is Action Research?

Through the years, various researchers give their own definitions to AR (Rapoport, 1970; Kemmis, 1983; Ebbutt, 1985, Elliot, 1991). Also, as Hopkins (2002) points out, there are different models of AR, by Ebbutt (1985); Kemmis and McTaggart (1988); Elliott (1991); and McKernan (1996). These four models, however, do share more similarities than differences, and there is also a high degree of consensus among the theorists who write on the subject about overall method and purpose (Hopkins, 2002).

According to Cohen and Manion (1985), AR is a 'style of research', which is situational, collaborative, participatory and self-evaluative. It is also a method, which is dedicated to adding to the practitioner's functional knowledge of the phenomena he/she deals with. Anderson and Arsenault (1998) note that AR is a form of qualitative research, which concerns with what happens to the culture of a classroom. It is action-oriented and aims to assess, describe, document or inform people concerned about the phenomena under investigation. Findings are intended to have an immediate and practical value, as contrasted with basic research aimed at adding to existing knowledge bases. Action research empowers teachers in what they are doing. Elliot's (1981) AR cycle diagram (Table 3) describes what took place in this project.

The diagram shows that AR involves spiral of cycles with each cycle consists of basically four steps:

i.   develop a plan of action to improve what is already happening;
ii.   act and implement plan;
iii. observe what is happening as a result of implementation;
iv.   reflect on what has happened and develop further plans when necessary.

At the end of step iv the cycle may begin again, following the same procedure with a modified plan. The spiral involves a repetition of cycles, each building in the last in terms of increased understanding and improved practice. The spiral of cycles continues until the desired results have been reached.

Even though this is quite a simple and straightforward method of research, it is an excellent way to improve teachers' performance and increase their professional autonomy (Tripp, 1996). The AR cycle is practical and natural, versions of which are used by all teachers, involving real practices in work situations. It helps teachers to develop their own strategies for excellence in performance and let teachers control how they meet professional standards of excellence. It is suited to collegial collaboration, can lead to coordinated division, subject group, and even whole-school change. And it produces an on-going cycle of manageable change.

Table 3   The Action Research Cycle (Elliot, 1981, p.3)

cycle 1   cycle 2   cycle 3

Identifying initial idea

'Reconnaissance'
(Fact finding & analysis)

General plan
action steps 1
action steps 2
action steps 3

implement action steps 1

Monitor implementation & effects

'Reconnaissance'
(Explain any failure to
implement, and effects)

Revise general idea

Amended plan
action steps 1
action steps 2
action steps 3

Implement next
action steps

Monitor implementation & effects

'Reconnaissance'
(Explain any failure to
implement, and effects)

Revise general idea

Amended plan
action steps 1
action steps 2
action steps 3

Implement next
action steps

Monitor implementation & effects

'Reconnaissance'
(Explain any failure to
implement, and effects)

As Tripp (1996) points out, the AR cycle is simple but not simplistic. It is professional practice and is not something every- and any-one can do. When we plan we do it deliberately, imaginatively, and with a thorough understanding of the situation. When we act we experiment responsively and rely less on established habits. When we observe we do it systematically in order to get quality data and obtain feedback from various others. And when we reflect we think critically and question our ideas of what is important.

Over the past 20 years there has been enormous volume of literature published on AR. More recent research also confirms that AR being conceived as an interactive method by which teachers and student teachers can develop knowledge (Ponte et al., 2004). It is often seen as an important strategy for educating teachers (Elliot, 1989, 1991; Rudduck, 1992; Cochran-Smith, 1994; Gore, 1995; Griffin, 1999; Tickle, 2001; Zeichner and Noffke, 2001; Sachs, 2002). By using AR, teachers can gain insight into their practice. AR is conceived as a strategy teachers can use to make their work more professional.

Action Research is not only a valuable tool for teacher professional development (Elliot, 1991; Sachs, 2002), it is also an invaluable method in academic research (Hopkins, 2002). Apart from the many books written on the subject, since the late 80's, academic journals devoted solely on AR also appear. Some examples include 'Action Learning: Research & Practice', 'Action Research: Educational Action Research', 'Systematic Practice and Action Research' and so on.

3.1.3   Assumptions of Action Research

According to Ponte et al. (2004), there are four key assumptions in AR for classroom research (based on the studies by Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Grundy, 1987; Elliott, 1991; Altrichter et al., 1993; Dadds, 1995; Sachs, 1999), which can be applied to my situation:

   a.   AR is geared toward teachers' own practice and the situation in which they are practicing: this is the reason why I take up this project in order to improve the discipline in the Lower Primary music classes;

b. In AR teachers engage in reflection based on information they have systematically gathered themselves: after each lesson I filled out a reflection sheet and made notes about the class, what worked well, what needed improvement, and possible solutions to the problems I had;

c. AR is carried out through dialogue with colleagues within and outside the school/ institution: I invited colleagues and other friends in the profession to do observations in my classes and to give comments and suggestions regarding the lessons;

d. In AR, students (or other target groups of teachers) are an important source of information: I established a good rapport with students who gave me informal feedback from time to time about the music lessons – what they enjoyed in class.

Similarly, in AR, three forms of interaction are involved:

a. Interaction between theoretical and practical knowledge

Teachers are expected to continually link knowledge gained from their own practice to general academic knowledge or theory. Interaction between practical and theoretical knowledge comes about when teachers develop insight into the '*complexity, artistry and demandingness*' (Clark, 1988, p.11) of their practice and, based on that, make a judgement on what situations they can use specific knowledge in, how they can use or extend that knowledge and to what purpose.

'*What teachers as partners in the enterprise of teacher education can offer is practice-based knowledge rooted in sustained experience of a particular setting*' (Rudduck, 1992, p.160).

b. Interaction between the application and development of professional knowledge

Teachers are expected to continually make a connection between the application and the development of knowledge. It is a cyclical process that teachers take responsibility for themselves: they apply knowledge and based on that application they develop new knowledge, which they then apply again.

The desired interaction between the application and development of

professional knowledge can only be achieved when school experiences are built into the programme from the start of the course.

c. Interaction between individual and collective knowledge

Teachers are expected to continually make a connection between individual and collective development of knowledge. Teachers are seen as leaders, not only with regard to their teaching in their classroom, but also with regard to the whole school policy.

'Teachers are members of an activist and responsive teaching professional community, that is as citizens who do not merely act as autonomous individuals pursing their own interests but instead through a process of decision, debate and compromise, ultimately link their concerns with needs of the community' (Groundwater-Smith and Sachs, 2002, p.55).

3.1.4   Importance of Action Research

Learning to do AR as an interactive form of knowledge development by teachers can be classed as a form of professional socialization, which is the gradual internalization of a set of professional norms and values (Johnston, 1994; Zeichner and Noffke, 2001). It is a total concept for the professionalism and professional development of teachers that pervades the whole curriculum. Action research is successful when there is: continuity in the teaching team and in the management team; communication between management, educators, researchers, students and mentors about individual and collective insights relating to reflective, research-oriented practice as part of the course; commitment on the part of educators and managers in the institutes and the school; and finally, learning to do AR takes time and that requires commitment on the part of the students too.

3.1.5   Action Research in this Project

This project employs AR as a vehicle to investigate the most appropriate ways of classroom discipline in my Lower Primary Music Class. The choice of AR, as opposed to other research methods, whether quantitative or qualitative, is most appropriate in my particular situation. None of the other qualitative methods such as grounded theory method, feminist methodology, ethnographic research, and case

study research would do the job, as they would not yield the type of data desired. Action research is appropriate whenever specific knowledge is required for a specific problem in a specific situation. Four of the five categories of purposes of AR (Cohen and Manion, 1989, p.220) fit my situation, as AR is a means of:

a. remedying problems diagnosed in a specific situations, or of improving in some way a given set of circumstances: as in the Lower Primary Music class, the issue of discipline was looked at and studied;

b. in-service training, thereby equipping the teacher with new skills and methods, sharpening his/her analytical powers and heightening his/her self-awareness: daily reflection helped me to improve as a teacher and to gain insights into classroom management, pedagogy, and development of young children;

c. injecting additional or innovatory approaches to teaching and learning into an ongoing system that normally inhibit innovation and change: creative ways of teaching and classroom management were devised, attempted, and implemented;

d. providing a preferable alternative to the more subjective, impressionistic approach to problem solving in the classroom: flexibility and creativity were valued and practised regularly in music classes.

3.1.5.1 Choice of Paradigm – Action Research Model vs. 'Scientific' Research Model

Action research, a form of classroom research in my case, is often contrasted with 'outsider' research approaches, which claim higher levels of researcher objectivity. Bryman (1988) articulates the need for educational researchers to free themselves of values, which may impair their objectivity and undermine the validity of the research. Traditionally educational research is adhered to scientific method – only educational phenomena that are observable can validly be considered as knowledge, and feelings need to be ruled out (Morrison, 2002). Classroom action research, on the other hand, is seen as 'insider' research, which can be subjective. However, Hopkins (2002) argues:

'Traditional approach to educational research is not of much use to teachers.
Teachers and researchers do not conceptualise teaching in the same way. They

live in different intellectual worlds and so their meanings rarely connect. Also, the usual form of educational research, the psycho-statistical or agricultural-botany paradigm, has severe limitations as a method of construing and making sense of classroom reality' (p.37).

To those who criticise classroom research as illegitimate, Hopkins (2002) replies that '*classroom research by teachers is a valid form of research because it results in hypotheses generated through a rigorous process of enquiry and grounded in the data to which they apply'* (p.40).

Furthermore, Kincheloe (2003) strongly asserts that even though the technicist, positivist tradition of producing knowledge – from which contemporary top-down standards emerge – seeks to provide a timeless body of truth, this so-called 'formal knowledge', not only has no connection to the world but is separate from issues of commitment, emotion, values, and ethical action. In technical standards teachers are presented with formal knowledge and expected to deliver it to their classrooms. However, the drawback of formalism is that it fails to study the complex relationship between professional knowledge and the teaching act.

Even Vygotsky, from many decades ago, points out that the traditional scientific method allows the experimenter only to observe a given phenomenon in its finished, habitual state; what is necessary is to understand the genesis of a particular phenomenon – how and under what conditions it is brought into being, and through what stages and forms it develops (Blunden, 2001). Therefore, the experimenter needs to enter into collaboration with the experimental subjects. This line of thinking is consistent with the AR approach.

It cannot be over-emphasised that each classroom setting is unique. Any textbook theory or proposal needs to be tested, verified, and adapted by each teacher in his classroom (Stenhouse, 1975). Therefore,

> '*ideas and people are not of much real use until they are digested to the point where they are subject to the teacher's own judgement. It is the task of all educationalists outside the classroom to serve the teachers; for only teachers are in the position to create good teaching'* (Stenhouse, 1984, p.69).

Bassey (1981) also reports that more and more teachers have been disenchanted with the lack of applicability of most formal educational research to the day-to-day problems of the classroom, and that's why many make systematic inquiries into their own practice with a view to improving it. There has been a changing perception of what 'research' is (Powney and Watts, 1987), as often findings from scientific educational researches have limited applicability to the classroom teachers.

In this project, AR is appropriate because it would yield answers to my specific situation. This research was intended to be context limited. Results may or may not be generalisable to other classroom situations. If somehow other teachers or practitioners find my results useful and applicable, it is indeed a bonus. However, those who do AR in their studies may be interested in this project as one unique example of classroom research. The process in this case can be useful as an example of how AR was applied to one unique situation, not unlike the many other cases shown in Hopkins' (2002) book.

3.1.5.2   Validity and Reliability of Action Research

Action Research is a type of Qualitative Research which uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as '*real world setting where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest*' (Patton, 2001, p.39). Unlike quantitative researchers who seek causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers seek instead illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations (Hoepfl, 1997).

Kirk and Miller (1986) note that qualitative research is a sociological and anthropological tradition of inquiry. It involves sustained interaction with the people being studied in their own language, and on their own turf. Much less important is whether or not numbers are employed to reveal patterns of social life. By this convention, the objectivity of a piece of qualitative research is evaluated in terms of the reliability & validity of its observations on culture.

Patton (2001) states that validity & reliability are two factors which any qualitative researcher should be concerned about while designing a study, analyzing

results, and judging the quality of the study. Researchers need to test and demonstrate that their qualitative studies are credible. This credibility depends on the ability and effort of the researcher (Golafshani, 2003). Reliability and validity are not viewed separately in qualitative research. Various definitions of reliability and validity are given by qualitative researchers from different perspectives. Eisner (1991) says that the most important test of any qualitative study is its quality, which has the purpose of '*generating understanding*' (Stenbacka, 2001, p.551). The difference in purposes of evaluating the quality of studies in quantitative and quantitative research is one of the reasons that the concept of reliability is irrelevant in qualitative research.

Stenbacka (2001), however, argues that since reliability issue concerns measurements, it has no relevance in qualitative research. '*The concept of reliability is even misleading in qualitative research. If a qualitative study is discussed with reliability as a criterion, the consequence is rather that the study is no good*' (p.552). Thus, the issue of reliability is an irrelevant matter in the judgement of quality of qualitative research. Healy and Perry (2000) assert that the quality of a study in each paradigm should be judged by its own paradigm's terms. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that while the terms reliability and validity are essential criterion for quality in quantitative paradigms, in qualitative paradigms other terms should be employed. The important question is '*How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to?*' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.290). Strauss and Corbin (1990) also suggest that the '*usual canons of good science … require redefinition in order to fit the realities of qualitative research*' (p.250).

Lincoln and Guba (1985, p.300) use '*dependability*' in qualitative research which closely corresponds to the notion of 'reliability' in quantitative research. They further emphasize '*inquiry audit*' (p.317) as one measure which might enhance the dependability of qualitative research. Seale (1999) endorses the concept of dependability with the concept of consistency or reliability in qualitative research. Campbell (1996) notes that the consistency of data will be achieved when the steps of the research are verified through examination of such items as raw data, data reduction products, and process notes. To ensure validity and reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is also crucial (Seale, 1999).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that '*since there can be no validity without reliability, a demonstration of validity is sufficient to establish reliability*' (p.316). Patton (2001), with regards to the researcher's ability and skill in any qualitative research, states that reliability is a consequence of the validity in a study. The concept of validity is not a single, fixed or universal concept, but '*rather a contingent construct, inescapably grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies and projects*' (Winter, 2000, p.1). Again, some qualitative researchers have argued that the term validity is not applicable to qualitative research, but at the same time, they realized the need for some kind of qualifying check or measure for their research. Many researchers have developed their own concepts of validity and have often generated or adopted what they consider to be more appropriate terms, such as quality, rigor, and trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Seale, 1999; Stenbacka, 2001; Davies and Dodd, 2002). Stenbacka (2001) argues that the concept of validity should be redefined for qualitative researches. The notion of reliability as one of the quality concepts in qualitative research which '*to be solved in order to claim a study as part of proper research*' (p.551). Davies and Dodd (2002) find that the term rigor in research appears in reference to the discussion about reliability and validity.

Therefore, reliability and validity are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative paradigm. It is also through this association that the way to achieve validity and reliability of a research get affected from the qualitative researchers' perspectives which are to eliminate bias and increase the researcher's truthfulness of a proposition about some social phenomenon (Denzin, 1978) using triangulation. Tiangulation is a strategy for improving the validity and reliability of research or evaluation of findings. Patton (2001, p.247) states that '*triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches*'. However, the idea of combining methods has been challenged by Barbour (1998) who argues that while mixing paradigms can be possible, mixing methods within one paradigm, such as qualitative research, is problematic, since each method within the qualitative paradigm has its own assumption in terms of '*theoretical frameworks we bring to bear on our research*' (p.353). A qualitative researcher can use investigator

triangulation and consider the ideas and explanations generated by additional researchers studying the research participants (Punch, 1998). Engaging multiple methods such as observation, interviews and recording will lead to more valid, reliable and diverse construction of realities. Triangulation may include multiple methods of data collection and data analysis, but does not suggest a fix method for all the researches.

For this project, my interest was not in exploring teaching music as it really was, in some abstract, generalizable way. Berger and Luckmann (1966) hold that there are multiple realities, but among them, '*There is one that presents itself as the reality par excellence. This is the reality of everyday life*' (p.21). My goal was to understand the everyday experiences as music educator of young children in my school in order to foster positive change in my classroom practice.

This research project fulfills the three criteria in terms of trustworthiness, rigor and quality. The choice of AR is appropriate and valid in answering the research question. Data were collected over three academic years. The length of time greatly enhances its trustworthiness and rigor. Coupled with a substantial literature review, this AR project is of good quality. Triangulation had been attempted through the various methods of data collection – observation, reflective notes, diaries, feedbacks from students, parents, and colleagues (critical friends), sound recording, and video recording. More importantly, there was a circle of critical friends whose ideas and perspectives greatly diminish the subjectivity in interpretation of data and theory formation. As solid data interpretation is the product of slow and pain-staking context formation (Cano, 2000).

Positivist researchers would criticize the role of researcher in AR – being both a researcher and the researched. Such disagreement in role would only matter in quantitative research. It is true that good positivist research assumes that the researcher does not influence the behaviour of those studied in any way. However, in interpretive research, and more specifically, AR, the researcher must engage in field-work, interact with the 'subjects', and change his/her behaviour in order to improve the situation. Every effort is made in this project to fulfill the three criteria for trustability as stated by Erickson (1989). The first is interpretive: did the actors' meanings get into the narrative? The second is adequacy of evidence: How well is the

evidence presented and marshaled? Has the researcher been able to triangulate the evidence? And the final is critical: Does the researcher address issues of power and advantage? Has the researcher addressed issues of belief, ideology, and voice? In qualitative research, '*the researcher is the instrument*' (Patton, 2001, p.14). Qualitative researchers have come to embrace their involvement and role within the research.

3.2　Research Design

Table 4　Teacher research self-evaluation: AR Model (Ebbutt, 1983, p.7)

<div align="center">

Teacher
|
Works in isolation of his/her classroom
|
Regularly reflects on his/her practice
|
May request help from consultant or critical friend
|
Systematically collects data
|
Systematically analysis data and generates hypotheses
|
Writes report open to public critique
|
Systematically incorporates reflections and changes practice

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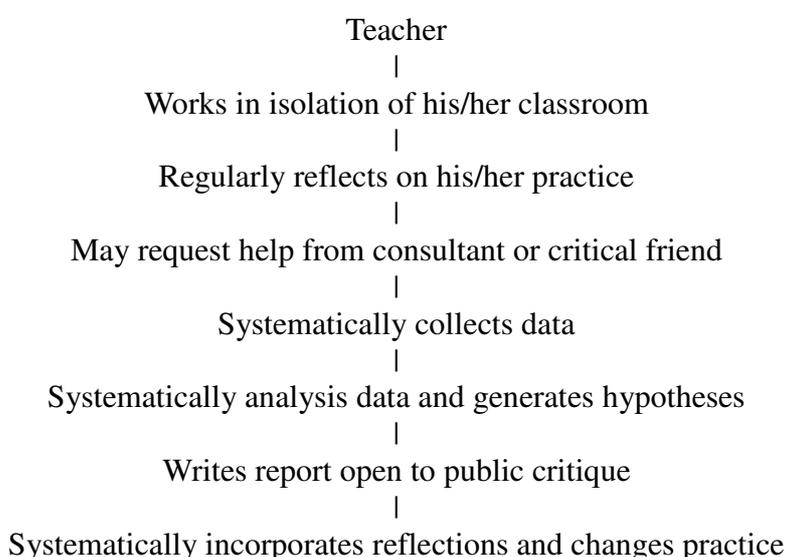
The above model (Table 4) best describes the practice of AR in this project. Basically I worked alone in the music room and constantly reflected on my own teaching. In each class there were children who were difficult and uncooperative. The most observed misbehaviours exhibited by children in music class include (but not limited to) the following:

a. lack of participation in singing and other musical activities;

b. lack of focus and attention during teacher instructions;

c. disruptive behaviour - talking or acting out inappropriately (attention seeking behaviour such as yelling and singing very loudly on purpose);

d. non-compliance to teacher requests;

e. wandering out of assigned spot without permission;

f. touching/playing various musical instruments in the classroom without permission.

My list above is somewhat similar to Kay's (2006) list of challenging behaviour in young children: verbal challenges such as rudeness and offensive remarks to others; constant demanding and attention-seeking behaviour; repeated refusal to engage with learning activities; bullying behaviour towards others; confrontational behaviour with teachers; repeatedly distracting or interfering with others' play or activities; consistent failure to settle, concentrate or engage with activities or play; destructiveness towards musical instruments; 'winding up' the teacher or other children with inappropriate comments, facial expressions, gestures or other persistent annoying behaviour; consistent failure to comply to requests or follow routines. With misbehaviour occurring, the momentum of the lesson would be disrupted. The momentum or flow of classroom industry is of great importance to discipline, as interruptions lead to loss of energy and interest on the part of pupils and teachers (Tanner, 1978; Rutter et al., 1979).

3.2.1 Place and Time of Research

This study took place in the Oriental Universal School, Macao, from September 2004 to mid June 2007, for three academic years. As a music specialist teacher, I taught three different grade levels (Kindergarten, Grade 1 and Grade 2 in the Year of 2004-05; Grades 1, 2 and 3 in subsequent years) with a total of 12 classes. The AR took place every school day in all Lower Primary Music classes. Each class had music lessons twice a week. Each lesson lasted for 45 minutes and on an average there were five music lessons in each school day between 8 am and 3 pm. During and after each class, an evaluation form (Appendix E) would be filled, capturing what had happened in the lesson together with a brief reflection. A score (0 – 10) was also given, indicating how I felt the class went overall. Constant evaluations and implementation of changes took place according to the needs in each class. Major changes, where appropriate, were usually introduced and implemented in the beginning of a new term (there were three terms in a school year), while minor changes would be implemented regularly throughout the year.

Collecting data and implementation of AR plans for three years had been a major

strength in this project. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that as qualitative inquiry is concerned with multiple constructed realities, it is crucial that the researcher demonstrates that he has captured a range of realities. The longer the period of time in the field, the better the chance to capture the range of multiple realities. Prolonged engagement in the field can help the researcher to '*assess possible sources of distortion and especially to identify saliencies in the situation*' (Lincoln and Guba, 1986, p.77), adding breadth to the research. In this project, three cohorts of students had been studied in the three years. In particular, there was one grade level of students whom I taught for three years, and I witnessed the students' growth and progress as they moved from one grade level to the next.

Parsons and Brown (2002) also note that qualitative researchers approach their research with a question in mind and the tools or strategies that will logically lead them to the answers sought. However, they do so flexibly, that allows them to be responsive to the opportunities presented at each step along the way. Therefore, it was intended that this AR project stayed very flexible. For the qualitative researcher, it is not unusual for each incremental research decision to be shaped by the prior experience (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993).

There was no fixed period of time for each AR cycle. Depending on what the issue was, the evaluation would be on-going and changes could be implemented at any appropriate time, knowing that sometimes things could happen unexpectedly in spite of my planning and anticipation. A good example would be the SARS situation in Asia a few years ago, during which time school was closed for almost two months. Therefore, flexibility played an important part in this AR project.

It is well said in the words of Carr and Kemmis (1986):
'*The moments of action research comprise a self reflective spiral. In the self-reflective spiral, the plan is prospective to action, retrospectively constructed on the basis of reflection. Action is essentially risky, but is retrospectively guided by past reflection on which basis the plan was made, . . .*' (p.125)

3.2.2   Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

For this AR project, the main method used for data collection was observation.

Unstructured interview in the form of informal daily contact also took place. Dialogues with students gave me informal feedback on whether they enjoyed music lessons. Other methods, such as questionnaires, were not suitable as young children could not read and write efficiently. As mentioned, triangulation was employed in order to strengthen the study by using various methods (Patton, 2001).

Triangulation

Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings (Punch 1998). Since much social research is founded on the use of a single research method and as such may suffer from limitations associated with that method or from the specific application of it, triangulation offers the prospect of enhanced confidence (Bryman, 2001). Triangulation is a way of assuring the validity of research results through the use of a variety of research methods and approaches. It seeks to overcome the weaknesses and biases which can arise from the use of only one method.

Of the four types of triangulation described by Bryman (2001), this study made use of three. First, there is data triangulation which involves time, space and persons. This study spanned over three academic years and was carried out using all the classes I taught, with different grade levels of students. Second, there is investigator triangulation which uses multiple rather than single observers to record the same event. There were many 'critical friends' as observers. In addition, the voices from students and parents played a strong role in the conclusion of this study. Finally, there is methodological triangulation which involves using a combination of methods in data collection. In this study, the major methods of data collection were observation, dairy, anecdotal notes and peer (critical friends) observation. Other methods included the use of media files (photograph taking, sound recording and video recording), as well as voices from students and others.

Observation

According to Sarantakos (1993), observation is one of the oldest methods of data collection. In the past, observation was largely employed by social anthropologists

and ethnologists. Developments in the context of social theory brought observation into the centre of social research. And today, observation is one of the fundamental techniques of social research.

There are several types of observation, which differ from each other in the degree of the observer's participation in the environment, in the setting in which it occurs, and in the manner in which it is organised (Sarantakos, 1993). The type of observation employed in this study was:

Scientific – it was systematically planned and executed, and related to the goal of improving discipline in the classroom. An evaluation form (Appendix E) was devised and after each lesson, I would fill in the form which was a tool for collecting data and capturing immediate experiences. At the end of the school day, I also keep a more detailed reflective diary. A record of account over a period of time could reveal some not so obvious or even easily forgotten events.

Participant – I as the observer observed from inside the group, and it did not matter whether my identity as a researcher was known because the children saw me as their teacher and they knew for a fact that I observed and evaluated them regularly in music class. The setting was natural and there would not be a problem for these four to seven year old children behaving inconsistently in these 'experimental' situations.

Semi-structured – it was between *structured observation* which employed a formal and strictly organised procedure, with a set of well defined observation categories, and was subjected to high levels of control and differentiation, and *unstructured observation* which was loosely organized and the process of observation was largely left up to the observer to define. Appendix F shows how the form could be filled. The categories in the form provided loose guidelines and   the teacher could basically write down anything that was appropriate to the discipline and management of that particular class. It was essential for the teacher to be as consistent as possible in dealing with the children. After a month of so, the information on the forms were summarized (e.g. Appendix J) for the ease of review - certain behaviour patterns might emerge, and sometimes comparison could be made.

Natural – it took place in natural setting, i.e. the classroom. Videotaping was done from time to time in order to capture what happened in class visually. A total of 26 tapes were produced. It was done so often that children ignored the presence of a camera and behaved naturally. Videotapes were viewed regularly and additional notes were made in the journal.

Active – I, the teacher, engaged fully in the study as the observer.

Direct – it involved the object of study – all the students from Grade 1 to 3.

Diary

Besides jotting down notes during the lessons on the evaluation form (Appendix F) according to my observation, I would also put down additional thoughts and relevant information about that particular class right after the lesson. In addition, at the end of the school day, I would usually write a more detailed diary (Appendix G) in order to capture the incidents and events that had happened, as well as to reflect on what I might have done differently in order to solve class problems or to improve my own teaching. My diary encompasses not only classroom scenarios, but the daily relevant events that happened outside the classroom, during recess and lunch time as well.

According to Morrison (2002), a diary serves a range of elementary yet critical purposes for the researcher. It provides a tool for charting both progress and critical research moments. Researchers' diaries have been utilised as important elements of AR, where the diary may be seen as an important tool for reflection and as a vehicle for the provocation of personal and professional change. McKernan (1996) notes that the diary may be kept by the teacher to document his/her own classroom as a case history. The notion is one of evaluation of teaching actions, intentions, outcomes and unanticipated side effects or objectives achieved. My diary was a combination of an 'intimate journal' (McKernan, 1996, p.84) which is a set of personal notes, a log of events rich in personal sentiments; and a 'log' which is a running record of events that happened.

My diary was kept regularly (ranged from at least 2 to 3 times per week to daily).

The benefit of keeping a diary is that it forces one to reflect, describe and evaluate daily encounters (McKernan, 1996). Again, my diary recorded both facts and interpretive accounts – after describing what actually happened, I also attemtped to analyse and interpret, and come up with an action plan when appropriate. As Holly (1984) states that a researcher's diary contains personal information and includes interpretation as well as description on multiple dimensions. In other words, both the evaluation forms and the diary helped me to engage in personal reflection.

Critical Friends

During the three years of my data collection, a wide variety of people had come to visit and observe my class (Table 5). Some came by my invitation while others visited by their own requests. These people acted as my critical friends who were invited to give feedback and/or to fill out a class evaluation form. This critical community (critical friends) is important in helping to move my thinking forward (Lomax, 2002). New ideas and modification of practice can be incorporated, and the process would go on like a spiral.

Table 5   Critical Friends who visited the class.

Name	Position	# of visits	Feedbacks
Robert	Head of Primary	4	Very positive, no suggestion
Lorrie	Vice-head of Primary	14	Very positive, some suggestions
Ivan	Head of Curriculum	12	Very positive, no suggestion
Mary	PD Director	13	Very positive, no suggestion
Kris	Colleague – class teacher	3	Very positive, no suggestion
Polly	Colleague – music teacher	27	Very positive, some suggestions
Nick	Colleague – music teacher	3	Very positive, no suggestion
Ron	Asst professor in education	4	Very positive, no suggestion
Dr. Jones	Professor in Music	6	Very positive, some suggestions
Mr. Green	Teacher from overseas	3	Very positive, no suggestion
Mrs. Buan	Former school head	2	Very positive, no suggestion
Larry	Student teacher	2	Very positive, no suggestion
Mrs. Fox	Private Piano Teacher	4	Very positive, no suggestion
Mrs. Go	Parent	4	Very positive, no suggestion
Mrs. Lim	Parent	2	Very positive, no suggestion
Victor	Friend – Musician/ Composer	2	Very positive, no suggestion
Jeff	Friend – Percussionist	4	Very positive, no suggestion
Ariel	Friend – Media Specialist	2	Very positive, no suggestion

This AR process contained some elements of Grounded Theory in the way that new ideas (theories of how to improve discipline) were being developed continuously, and also the use of memoing, keeping a lot of notes and write down what was going on in the process and doing comparison. But it was not Grounded Theory because

there were not any theories developed at the end. In fact there was no end. My concern was the improvement of practice in my own particular situation(s). There was also the fact that our children were all different and always changing, there might not be one theory or set of theories that would work and be applicable to all children and situations.

<u>Media Files</u>

Photographs

Photographs of the classes in action (Appendix L) were taken at regular intervals, usually in the beginning of the school year (August/September), before Christmas holidays (December), around Chinese New Year (February), and near the end of the 3rd term (May/June). During class times, the teacher would take pictures of students with a digital camera, usually between 20 to 30 pictures would be taken for each class. Taking pictures of students while teaching had not been easy. I had to plan ahead of time because I had to borrow one of the school cameras. Depending on the lesson, I would hold the camera in one hand and took shots while teaching. Very often I would record my songs on the Clavinova piano, so students could sing or play instruments along with the recorded music while I concentrated on taking pictures. When possible, another teacher would be invited to come and take pictures so that I would be freed up to teach and lead the students in activities. Whether I could get another teacher to come in and take pictures depended on the availability of my colleagues. Mostly I could only do that once a year, around Chinese New Year time, when we had to take pictures for the school year book. I found that the presence of another teacher taking pictures affected students' behaviour minimally. Perhaps because our students are really used to having various people (teachers, administrators, parents, care takers) going in and out of the classrooms often, I did not observe much different student behaviour overall at the absence or presence of others in the classroom. The pictures captured students in action at some particular moments, when they were singing, listening, playing instruments, playing musical games, and so on. Over the study periods, thousands of pictures had been taken. The pictures were labeled and categorised (with class and school year) and stored in the school computer.

Video Recording

Video recording (Appendix K) was usually done about four to five times a year on random classes. Over the period of study, 26 complete class periods (Table 6) were taped using a single digital video camera set up on a tripod, with a wide shot of the whole room. For the most part students were not aware of the video taping. The video camera was usually set up and left in the corner of the room for an extended time period, about three to four weeks, so that students were used to seeing a camera in the room. When I decided to tape a certain class, the camera would be turned on before the students entered the room and turned off after they leave. Furthermore, there are numerous surveillance cameras throughout the school, both inside and outside the buildings. Students are used to seeing cameras everywhere. So it would be logical to assume that most, if not all, students were not aware that they were videotaped, and even if they did, their behaviour would still be consistent. The data were stored unedited as DV's and DVD's. It was time consuming to view the videos but they replayed events that happened during class. Videoing is a very good way of capturing the realities of the classroom and is invaluable for teacher reflection.

Table 6   Number of Class Video Tapes Taken

	Kindergarten	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
2004-05	2 (tapes)	3	3	
2005-06		3	3	3
2006-07		3	3	3

Sound Recording

Sound recording was done about four times per year. In general, it is not as effective as video recording because of its lack of visual. In fact, audio files are like video files, only without the visuals. However, sound recording is much easier to do than video recording because there is much less set up. With an MD (mini-disc) recorder in the room, at the press of a button, the sound can be captured. Usually sound recording is done for the evaluation of singing and music playing, during assemblies and concerts. It is more difficult to 'observe' student behaviour through sound recording because of its lack of visual. However, it also helped to bring back memory of what had happened.

All these media files (photographs, videos, and sound recording) were viewed by the teacher as needed and on a regular basis. Detail notes were made according to teacher observation. Although I had a skeletal memory of the daily events in mind, these media files helped for recall of the exact details of each teaching episode. They served as reminders of what had happened in the classroom, and a great support and addition to the teacher's daily anedotal notes and diary (Appendix L: Samples of photographs and Appendix K: Sample of video files on DVD. Audio files are not included as readers would get the same effect if they only 'listen to' and not viewing the video files).

Voices from Students and Others

'Voices from students and others' can be an important form of triangulation. These 'voices', mainly extracted from my diaries, were in fact feedbacks from others, especially those from the students and parents, which gave another perspective on how the teacher was doing. My source of student voice included their verbal feedback (daily dialogue), overt behaviour, written material (notes, cards, pictures, emails, reflection sheets), and small tokens and gifts. Similarly, the voices of others such as parents and colleagues were also from their verbal feedback (face to face and phone calls), written material (emails, notes, cards), and gifts. Crawford (2010) says that in business, client satisfaction is the key to success. Similarly, Fielding (2010) says that student voice is an important aspect in inclusive education. Approaches to student voice in the person-centred education are emergent and dialogic, relational and reciprocal both in the manner of their engagement and the intentions to which they aspire. It is about students and teachers working and learning together in partnership. Relationships between students and staff are based on mutual trust, care, autonomy, and respect. They transform the mechanics of consultation and the interstices of power through which young voices are heard, dialogue enacted and action taken. In addition, they succinctly articulate and underscore key aspirations of a democratic way of life.

Personal Reflection

Personal reflection is a vital part in AR (Hopkins, 2002). Throughout all the stages, I constantly reflected on the situation and evaluated whether the methods

implemented were successful from the data collected. Journaling and viewing of videotapes after school also helped me to reflect in depth, as often there was not much time after each class for me to keep a detailed diary. At the end of each school day, I would look at my class evaluation forms, view my media files (if any), and write my diary. When there were problem incidences, I would attempt to recall my thoughts and feelings about these moments. I tried to reflect on the situations – what I did and did not do, and what could have been done as remedies. Formulating action plans and strategies was not always easy, as quite often the solutions were not apparent and some problems might be much bigger than what the teacher alone can handle. However, this exercise of reflection would go on regularly as part of the AR cycles. The following criteria were used for deciding whether certain strategies employed were effective, i.e. the discipline in the music classes improved:

a. I felt good, a sense of achievement, and was not drained after each class. This is a subjective and yet the most vital indicator. It would take a lot more energy to control a difficult class than a co-operative one. The teacher's psychological and physical wellbeing can have a tremendous impact on his/her teaching and on the students.

b. On the evaluation form, more positive words such as happy, fun, and co-operative underlined and fewer names put down in the warning area. The scores would be higher as well. In other words, the general atmosphere of the classroom was harmonious and students' behaviour improved.

c. Students showed good progress in music - they could perform what was taught in singing, beat and rhythm, instrumental skills and so on. This evaluation was by the subjective judgment of the teacher.

d. More positive feedback from students, parents, as well as colleagues (critical friends) about my music class. The voices from others are important indicators, from the perspectives of others, whether my performance as a teacher is good. This collective feedback from others is a more objective evaluation on the teacher and the class.

3.3   Ethical Issues

The school leadership was aware of my undertaking of this research project. The school is in support of its teachers constantly developing themselves professionally, and part of my tuition was supported by the Teacher Professional Development Fund. In the beginning of the term (in September) of each year, a letter (Appendix H) was sent home to all the students from Grades One to Three, informing all parents of my research, and seeking parental permission for their children's participation. Since the research took place daily in the normal, everyday class setting, parental opposition was not anticipated. Parents were also informed that music lessons would be videotaped from time to time for the purposes of teacher self-analysis and student evaluation. Parents were also ensured their children's anonymity in all future reports (the thesis). All teacher-actions were ultimately for the benefits of their children's learning, and participants are not harmed in any way in the research. In this report, all incidences and figures were true accounts; while all the names of people (students, parents, colleagues, etc.) were altered, along with the name and location of school for the purpose of anonymity.

3.4   Conclusion

In this chapter, AR was reviewed as a valid and scientific method of research, and the most suitable for answering the research question in this thesis. Since it is in interpretive paradigm, the notions of validity and reliability were conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor, and quality. Ethical issues became trivial as AR took place daily in the natural classroom environment, for the benefit of all the children, as good teaching practice. Throughout the chapter, theories in AR were interwoven with what was actually done in this project, in terms of research design, methods of data collection and analysis. Triangulation was employed and the various ways of data collection were elaborated. These included the use of observation (main method), diary, critical friends, media files (photographs, video recording, sound recording), and voices from students and others. Finally, the section was closed with the importance of personal reflection, as its value cannot be overemphasized in this thesis.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Results

Undertaking such a project is no easy task. It required a consistent effort in collecting data and in this case, the data was recorded after every class (on class evaluation form and as class notes) and at the end of each school day as diary. From time to time, the diary would include reflections after viewing class pictures, audio CDs and/or videotapes. The purpose was to improve class discipline by first finding out about the class situations (discipline problems) and then coming up with solutions, which were evaluated after a trial period through reflection and literature review. Further actions would be taken depending on the results in order to maximise student learning in music.

After three years of data collection (school years 04-05, 05-06, 06-07), a great amount of written forms and pages of notes and diaries were collected. For example, there were approximately 72 music lessons for each grade level per year, and in total there were about 650 class evaluation forms (e.g. Appendix F) over the three-year study. In addition, there were about 150 pages of classnotes (e.g. Appendix I) and diaries (e.g. Appendix G). From the enormous amount of data, information on evaluation forms were summarised as class notes; and diaries were read and coded, with recurring and common themes written in the margin. The diary was intended to be kept daily but sometimes circumstances would not allow this to happen. For instance, there were weekly staff meetings after every Tuesday right after school and by the time the meetings were over, it would be quite late and I would be too exhausted to reflect on the events on those days and to write the diary. In this project the diary was kept on an average for two-third of the school year. My own consistency and self-discipline were major battles I had to overcome in keeping the data and exercising the process of AR. As a teacher, I was at times overwhelmed by the amount of work and the stress of the school day that I did not feel like doing anything at the end of the day. Having a positive outlook and a sense of mission in helping the young really kept me going and overcoming some of the hurdles along the way.

With the limited scope of this paper, it was impossible to exhaust all information

and topics involved. I had chosen to write about four major classroom issues in this study, which I believe encompassed most discipline problems, and could happen in any classroom even though the contexts and the ways of dealing with them would be different. Table 7 below shows the summary of AR cycles of these four major problems. Each point I made in this paper was supported by many similar instances happened during the three years, but here I could only illustrate one or two examples.

Table 7   Major Problems and their Action Research Cycles

Problems	Goals	Action Cycles	Outcomes
4.1.1 Noisy/Improper entry & exit	*Orderly entry & exit*	*4.1.1.1 Creating rules together*	*Effectiveness limited & short-lived*
		4.1.1.2 Instructional classroom management	*Slight improvement but also short-lived*
		4.1.1.3 Overcorrection	*Improvement on entry but not exit*
		4.1.1.4 Room rearrangement - Remove sound source	*Effective overall*
4.1.2 Class chaos	*Students focus quickly upon teacher signal*	*4.1.2.1 Lights off; Counting numbers; Hands up*	*Ineffective*
		4.1.2.2 Rhythm echo	*Effective, great improvement*
		4.1.2.3 Rhythm echo/ Body percussion/ Vocal echo Combo	*Effective most of the time*
4.1.3 Misbehaving students	*Students show co-operation & attention*	*4.1.3.1 Teacher Behaviour Continuum*	*Somewhat effective but inconsistent*
		4.1.3.2 Positive reinforcement – token economy, GBG	*Somewhat effective initially, short-lived*
		4.1.3.3 Punishment	*No lasting effect*
		4.1.3.4 Individual Negative/ Positive reinforcement & encouragement	*-) reinforcement - worked +) reinforcement & encouragement - quite effective but it took time to build up*
		4.1.3.5 Relationship building	*Mostly effective, a long term strategy*
4.1.4 Teacher fatigue & well being	*Teacher emotionally & physically in shape*	*Change of perspectives; Use of wireless microphone; Health supplements etc.*	*Great improvement in physical & emotional wellbeing*

4.1.1   Noisy/Improper Entry & Exit

Music classes, like P.E. lessons, are always high time for students as they could

play games and have fun. In order to provide a stimulating and attractive environment for students, the music room is colourfully decorated, with pictures of students in musical activities displayed on bulletin boards, and a wide array of musical instruments, such as keyboards, guitars, and percussion instruments, placed on walls and shelves. Because of the room size, some instruments were within easy reach of the students. When coming into the music room, students showed excitement and curiosity when they saw the variety of instruments, and many would would hit the drums, poke at the piano keys, or strum the guitars on the floor stand, thus creating a lot of noise and chaos, and as a result, some smaller instruments would fall and break. That happened in the first two lessons at the beginning of the 2004-05 school year, especially upon students' entry and exit.

4.1.1.1   Action Plan & Outcomes 1: Creating Rules Together

My first plan was to come up with music room rules along with the children in the beginning of the year (Rogers, 2000; Laslett and Smith, 2002). That took place in the second week, when children had their third music lesson. I did not want to do that on the first week, reasoning that the homeroom and P.E. teachers would already be doing the same, and these young children might be bored by so many rules in all the different classes in the first week. I also thought that most rules in the music room should be similar to those in the regular classroom so there would be consistency in behaviour expectation. During the third class, children affirmed the need for rules when prompted and together we came up with five short rules for music class: sit properly; pay attention; one speaker at a time; raise hand to speak; and no touching of instruments without permission, which is unique to the music room. The rules were posted on the board and for the subsequent two lessons, children were able to keep their hands off the instruments. But by the fourth week, however, many of the children became bolder and touched the instruments in spite of constant reminders. An example would be 2C, which had more disruptive students than the other Grade 2 classes. When the children came in, some went to play the piano while others hit the African drums placed alongside the wall, generating chaos and loud noise. I would usually remind the children by asking offending individuals to read the relevant posted rule. The children would stop right away but after a short while they would touch the instruments again. The constant reminder of rules had no lasting effect. In

hindsight, perhaps the rules should be set in the very first lesson, as Rogers (2000) advised.

4.1.1.2 Action Plan & Outcomes 2: Instructional Classroom Management

After the short 'honeymoon' period (McIntyre, 2003), I tried out Instructional Classroom Management (Kameenui and Darch, 1995) in which behaviour management procedures are instructional and designed to impart information on how to behave. I stood outside the music room, greeted the children, made sure they lined up properly, and gave instructions that they were to come in quietly and sit at their own spots in the circle, without touching any instruments. Most of the children complied. For the few that would still touch the drum or the piano, I motioned for them to go outside and line up again, and after that they would come in quietly. That seemed to work well for the subsequent three weeks. There after many of the same children were in need of constant reminders, to the point that I was tired of telling them the same thing over and over again. I also noticed that children seemed to be extra hyper on certain days, such as on rainy days when children could not play outside during recess, and the few days just before a long holiday. On such days even many of the 'good' children would be more antsy, chatty, lacking focus and co-operation.

4.1.1.3 Action Plan & Outcomes 3: Overcorrection

One afternoon in October, just before the mid-term break, children in 1B were extra hyper. The children had been spending their recesses in their homeroom because of the rain. I was standing outside the music room on the fifth floor, waiting for their teacher to bring them up from the fourth floor. I saw that the children seemed to be 'out-of-control' even as they were outside their classroom, getting ready to come to music. The homeroom teacher had a hard time getting them to line up properly: there were loud chatters, rough play fights, and most children appeared to be oblivious to the teacher's request to line up. When they finally came up to the music room, the excitement continued as children yelled and banged on the drums before they sat down noisily in a circle. Thinking of the strategy of overcorrection (McIntye, 2003), I calmly told them that their entry was unruly and unacceptable, and asked

everyone to stand up and go line up again outside. When they came in the second time, most children sat still and kept quiet. From then on whenever a class had an unruly entry, I would ask the students to re-line up outside. That seemed to work for most classes and the entry became much better. There was one class (Grade 2D) still noisy even when they lined up the second time, so I directed the children to re-line up for the third time. After that they seemed to get the message and became settled.

Leaving the music room at the end of the lesson, however, would sometimes be very noisy. Normally I would stand by the door and ask the children to line up in front of me. While the first few usually stood well, those in the middle would hit the drums by the wall and some children at the back would start banging on the piano, or strum the guitars which I placed on the floor stand. Sometimes it would take quite awhile, like 5 minutes, to settle the children before releasing them to the next class.

4.1.1.4   Action Plan & Outcomes 4: Room Rearrangement - Remove Sound Source

After reflecting on the situation, I thought perhaps the set up of the room should be changed. Rather than battling with the children and constantly telling them not to touch this or that, I removed the sound source by mutimg the volume of the electric piano before I asked the children to line up. Even when the children poked at the keys there would not be any sound. Inspired by the set up inside music shops, I put up clip hangers and hooks on the wall, so the guitars, ukuleles, and some percussion instruments (vibra slap, go-go bells, rainstick, shekere, and so on) could be hung up high, out of the children's reach. In spite of inconvenience and lacking visual attractiveness, the African drums near the door were piled up on shelves on the other side of the room, so the children would not be able to touch them when they lined up. This rearrangement of instruments in the room greatly facilitated the management of student entry and exit, and demonstrated that the physical set up of the music room is crucial to improving student behaviour in this case.

4.1.2   Class Chaos

As the music room is a relatively free environment compared to a regular classroom, it is easy to have chaotic moments during the lesson when children are

participating in musical activities such as singing and playing games. Children's overexcitement might turn into unruly behaviour like shouting out, talking to each other, making noise with the instruments in their hands, playing roughly such as pushing one another, and so on. Transition times are also opportunities for choas, when changing from one activity to another, such as when putting instruments away and getting ready to sing. During those moments the children were absorbed in their own agendas, oblivious to what should be done in the class. At first with most classes I had a very difficult time in getting children's attention: as I stopped the first two people talking, another group of three would be hitting one another. It was like trying to put out several small fires with only one lid, and by the time I put out the third one, the first one would reignite. So I decided to try out the various methods I learned from before (Rogers, 2002): counting numbers, lights off, and putting up hand as signals for students to pay attention quickly. For two lessons I talked to the classes about these signals, which were not foreign to the children as some other teachers had used them before. We even practiced them as games during which the children paid attention quickly upon signaling.

4.1.2.1 Action Plan & Outcomes 1: Counting Numbers/ Lights Off/ Putting Hand Up

<u>Counting Numbers</u>

In counting numbers, I would start counting from one to ten. The goal was to have students stop talking before I counted to five. Some teachers would give a negative consequence if students did not stop talking at five. I did not adopt this method; otherwise I would be constantly punishing students.

04-05 - Sep 8 (Monday)// 8:15 – 8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 4 (out of 10)
- *the class was chaotic after we sang the first song, everyone was busy talking out with high pitched voices which drowned out my voice*
- *I started counting, as a warning to children, but they were too absorbed in their own world and did not hear me*
- *I counted louder and louder and it was not until I counted to nine did most of the children stopped talking. By then my throat was hurting from raising my voice to the max*

<u>Lights Off</u>

Both 'lights off' and 'putting hand up' are signals for students to be quiet. It is easy for students to tell when the lights are turned off but it require their attention to notice the teacher's hand up so they would also put up their hands and stay quiet at

the same time.

04-05 – Aug 29 (Friday)// 1:25 – 2:10 p.m.// Grade 1C// Score: 6 (out of 10)
- *The end of the lesson was chaotic when children were lining up*
- *Lots of loud chatters*
- *Viceroy/ Ken/ Alex – made 'woo' noise & wouldn't stop*
- *Jon & Ted – chasing each other at the back of the room*
- *I said please be quiet but they couldn't hear me*
- *I stood by the door and turned off the lights, a few looked at me but the majority were still talking and doing their own things*
- *Kept Jon & Ted behind and talked to*

Putting Hand Up

04-05 – Sep 10 (Wednesday)// 12:40 – 1:25 p.m.// Grade 1C// Score: 6 (out of 10)
- *chaotic after the game 'Doggie Doggie', children were overexcited and talking loudly*
- *I put up my hand as a signal for them to put up their hands and be quiet*
- *Only Ryan & Justine saw me and followed, the rest were still talking loudly*
- *It took quite awhile for the class to quiet down*

Both Rogers (2002) and Erwin (2004) suggest strategies for teachers to quiet down a class. They include teacher putting up hand and students respond by doing the same, teacher using wind chimes or turning off lights as a signal for students to pay attention. I tried out two methods and added counting numbers, which I learned from a book and from another teacher. In my situations these methods were ineffective, as reflected in the notes above. As most children seemed to be absorbed in their own agendas and failed to see my raised hand. The children's talking were so loud that their high-pitched voices drowned out mine as I was counting the numbers. Finally, turning off the lights was also ineffective: a few times some children even screamed on purpose when the room went dark. In the end, I had to abandon these strategies as they did not work for me and think of something else.

4.1.2.2   Action Plan & Outcomes 2: Rhythm Echo

04-05 - Oct 6 (Monday)// 8:15 – 8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 6.5 (out of 10)
- *The whole class was calmer, some improvement*
- *Some chaotic moments during transitions*
- *I started to clap a four-beat rhythm, as in the song "Bingo", somehow the children echoed the pattern by clapping spontaneously*
- *I went on and clapped other rhythmic patterns, which they also copied. I even progressed to the more complicated patterns with syncopations and most could echo in approximation*
- *Children seemed to like rhythm echo very much, perhaps they thought it was a fun game which captured their attention and made them quiet down*

In one kindergarten class, I started using the strategy of the 'Rhythm Echo' – a four beat teacher made-up rhythmic pattern, which the children copy by clapping. As

reflected in the notes above, the children really liked it. It was discovered 'by accident' when I clapped the rhythm of 'B.I.N.G.O.' and the children responded by clapping the same. From then on I began to use the 'Rhythm Echo' with all other classes, and found that it worked well even with students in Grade 3. Children's attention was quickly diverted from their chatting to participating in doing something they saw as fun and interesting. Even in very noisy situations, when I clapped a four-beat rhythm, I observed that most children stopped talking and began clapping. They turned their attention to me by looking at me with smiling faces, and as I varied the rhythmic patterns, children continued to focus and responded with full participation. It appeared to be like a game to them. I found the children needed no explanation in what they should do. Once I started a pattern, I pointed to the children as a signal for them to copy me, then most would get the cue. Since then, 'Rhythm Echo' has been used regularly when I needed the children's attention. Instead of saying anything, I just clapped. There has bound to be some children who picked up the cue and echoed, then before long most, if not all, of the children would be clapping after me. It helped the children to focus on the lesson again.

04-05 – Nov 13 (Thursday)// 10:50 – 11:30 a.m.// Grade 1C// Score: 6.0 (out of 10)
- *rainy day, kids were scattered and not focused – talking out, unruly*
- *I started with rhythm echo and kids joined in quickly*
- *Somehow I added stamping (my feet) in the rhythmic pattern, kids copied and enjoyed*

4.1.2.3   Action Plan & Outcomes 3: Rhythm Echo/ Body Percussion/ Vocal Echo Combo

As a musician, it helped to be creative and be able to improvise in various situations. Once started with clapping in the 'Rhythm Echo', I progressed in making it more interesting and challenging by using the feet as well. Children especially liked the 'Boom-boom Chick, Boom-book Chick' pattern. After a few measures, some would even start singing: 'we will, we will rock you'. It was attention getting, but I also needed to change to other patterns quickly in order to avoid having children getting carried away and overexcited in singing that song. Soon I also learned extended ways in doing 'Rhythm Echo', as in body percussion, which I learned in an Orff-Jazz Music Workshop. Besides clapping, stamping, snapping fingers, we could gently pat other body parts, such as the chest, arms, thighs (front, side, back), and knees, in this rhythmic pattern game. The combinations can be numerous, from simple to complicated, suitable for children of all ages.

1C – pockets of moments on the verge of getting chaos – when I said something that caused a reaction. Then I calmly sang a name in certain rhythm. Soon the kids caught on and repeated after me. It was fun and kids thought it was a game. I sang the name and made up silly rhyming words, such as Daniel, Paniel, Janiel, etc. And then I move to another name and do it a few times. This cuaght the children's attention.

Once I got the children's attention, I found that it was important to do interesting activities in order to sustain their attention; otherwise they would lose focus again. Usually in a chaotic situation, I started with 'Rhythm Echo' in order to get children's attention, then I continued with body percussion, and finally I went into something which I termed the 'Vocal Echo', as the anecdotal example above. Still in the four-beat rhythmic pattern, I chanted/sang something vocally and the children echoed back. I used 'Vocal Echo' to do greetings, tell a story, say a rhyme, and even give instructions. Usually it was something I made up on the spot. I found that the more I practiced it, the more fluent and versatile I became in improvising.

Example from a Grade 1 Class:

05-06 – Apr 06 (Thursday)// 1:30 – 2:15 p.m.// Grade 1B// Score: 8.0 (out of 10)
- after some rhythm echos, I got into vocal echos. I did not do any verbal instructions telling children what to do. When I chanted something, I pointed to myself. Right after my chant, I pointed to the children, indicating it's their turn to echo. Sometimes when I pointed at the children, I also 'mouthed' the words that I wanted them to repeat. Chldren quickly caught on:

Teacher	Students
Chanting	*(everyone sitting in circle)*
- good afternoon, 1B	*- good afternoon, 1B*
- welcome to music	*- welcome to music*
- it's good to have you here	*- it's good to have you here*
- thank you for sitting so well	*- thank you for sitting so well*
- a big black bug	*- a big black bug*
- bit a big black bear	*- bit a big black bear*
- a big black bug bit a big black bear	*- a big black bug bit a big black bear*
- a big black bug bit a big black bear	*- a big black bug bit a big black bear*
- everyone please stand up (teacher stood up)	*- everyone please stand up (kids stood up)*
- clap three times	*- clap three times*
- once upon a time	*- once upon a time*
- there was a little boy	*- there was a little boy*
- who loved to sing	*- who loved to sing*
- this was his favourite song	*- this was his favourite song*
Singing	
- Hush little baby don't say a word	*- Hush little baby don't say a word*
- Papa's gonna buy you a mocking bird	*- Papa's gonna buy you a mocking bird*
- etc.	

- proceeded to "Going on a Bear Hunt" – an action song, with children echoing each line

In the example above I used this Rhythm/Vocal Echo Combo, starting from greetings, to a rhyme, to some instructions, and then to a song. The body percussion,

chanting, and singing can be used interchangeably and in different combinations. It works really well in keeping the children's attention and is also a great teaching tool. In my experience, the same strategy worked well most of the time with all classes, from Grade 1 to Grade 3. I have even used it successfully with over five hundred Grade 1 to 12 students together in the school gymnasium. In general, the children responded especially well when the teacher was upbeat, enthusiastic, and theatrical.

The amount of material written regarding the use and benefit of 'echoing' as a teaching tool or a learning method is rather limited. It is cited in some reports as a common and useful technique in language learning (e.g. Dai-Zovi, 2009), musical training (e.g. Poelker, 1989), and sports training (e.g. Smith, 2002). Erwin (2004) suggests teacher clapping three times and students respond by doing the same as one of the signals to quiet down the students. Rogers (2002) also suggests hand-clap rhythm copied by all infant students as a non-verbal cue for getting students' attention. In an article devoted to martial art training, Smith (2002) advocates the use of echoing as an auditory style technique. Again, language teachers always have students repeat after them in learning vocabulary, phrases, and sentences. It is also common for learners to repeat after the instructor in dance and other sports training.

Many music teachers use echoing to teach new songs. In the Kodaly Method, echoing is an essential technique in new song acquisition (Forrai, 1988). Goodkin (2002) also uses echoing technique in teaching songs, vocal chants, body percussion, and rhythm training. However, I am not aware of many other music educators who combine rhythm echo, body percussions, and vocal echo, and use them extensively with instructions, greetings, stories, chants, rhymes, and songs as contents, along with actions and movements. In my own analysis, this combination of rhythm and vocal echo is very difficult for an average teacher to employ as it requires the leader to have a strong musical sense, coordination, and creativity. For music teachers, however, it can be an invaluable tool for music instruction and classroom management.

4.1.3   Misbehaving Students

In music, with a full class of students, I found it was important to deal with the here and now. If disruptions were not dealt with right away, they would usually escalade and have a ripple effect, hampering the flow of the lesson and student

learning. Even though strategy such as the rhythm/vocal echo had been very useful, additional plans in managing children's behaviour were still necessary. Rhythm/vocal echo was employed in getting the whole group's attention when there were many scattered children. Quite often, though, there would be just two or three children chatting, not paying attention, or doing something inappropriate and disruptive, such as dancing wildly while all others were just doing small actions to a song. In addition, some children did not participate much. If a child was just not singing during a song, I tried to look at him/her and exaggerate my lip movement as an invitation/encouragement to sing. If the child chose not to sing, I usually would just ignore that, as the Kodaly method suggests (Forrai, 1988). However, I would usually intervene if a child chose to sit down when everyone else was asked to stand in order to avoid the 'ripple effect' in that other children would 'copy' the inappropriate behaviour. If I ignored the two children who chose to sit down when everyone else was standing up, soon some others would choose to sit down as well.

4.1.3.1   Action Plan and Outcome 1 – Teacher Behaviour Continuum

Usually I would follow a chain of actions as suggested by Rogers (2002), progressing from planned ignoring, to physical proximity, to gentle reminder, to warning, to name on board, to giving more serious consequences such as time out, conferencing after class, and detention, according to the severity of the misbehaviour. Wolfgang (2005) calls this chain of actions 'Teacher Behaviour Continuum'. Over the years, there had been children who did not respond much to any of the above. Even the final steps, negative consequences and punishment, seemed to be ineffective at times in stopping misbehaviour in some children.

From my evaluation forms, in each class there would be about one to four children who had a perpetual behaviour problem – being uncooperative and noncompliant. If I were 'soft' with them, using strategies such as planned ignoring, proximity, gentle reminder, they would not give a budge. They tended to ignore the reminders, or that the improved behaviour was short-lived. For example, Steward, a Grade 3 boy, in spite of the several reminders I gave, 'please do not talk', kept right on talking. I had to do something more drastic such as putting his name on the board, and then he would stay quiet for awhile. However, he would be back to his 'normal' self as a frequent chatter the next time he came to music. Every class we went

through the same 'routine'. Several times he was asked to stay behind for a conference, going through the steps in 'Reality Therapy', and I asked him questions such as, 'What were you doing?', 'Was it against the rules?', 'What should you be doing?' All his answers were 'sensible' – he knew he was wrong and made promises that he would co-operative the next time. The 'next times' came and gone with very little improvement in him. Time-out was also used 4 times, each time for about five to ten minutes. He was also put in the office for at least five times for detention. Strategies in 'Teacher Behaviour Continuum' were ineffective in stopping Steward's misbehaviour.

4.1.3.2 Action Plan and Outcome 2 – Token Economy and GBG

<u>Token Economy</u>

The behaviourist techniques, positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, and punishment, had been used frequently with both classes and individuals. At first I used 'Token Economy' in the form of a sticker system, hoping it would help the perpetual misbehaving students. In the beginning of the term, class rules were discussed. The children's co-operative behaviours were reinforced by placing stickers beside their names on the class lists, which were enlarged and posted on the board. For example, a sticker was given if a child raised his/her hand when answering a question when others were yelling out answers. Stickers were awarded four to five times in each class at random intervals, with increased frequency during chaotic moments in order to encourage appropriate behaviour. At the end of each month, a child with the most stickers in each class would receive an award as 'music star of the month' at an assembly. The awards included small tokens such as 'treble clef' pins and egg shakers. In the first three months the programme seemed to be successful as children were really eager to get stickers and would try hard to put on their best behaviour. However, the ones getting the awards were naturally the 'good' students who would behave well even without the sticker system in the first place. In order to give a chance to those who constantly misbehaved, I changed the criteria and awarded the 'most improved' students instead. In a school year we had eight of these award assemblies, which meant that most of the students in the 'middle' group (neither outstanding students nor trouble-makers) would be left out and not get any award. I often heard complaints that 'it was not fair so and so got this award'. I discontinued

using this token economy system after two years because of the following problems:

a. With a class of 22 children, it was difficult for a lone teacher to monitor and track the number of co-operative students. So each time I could only look for the few misbehaving ones and excluded them from getting the stickers. Since the majority of the children would get stickers, it was time consuming to put stickers beside their names for four to five times in each lesson. It not only took up precious class time, but also disrupted the flow of a lesson;

b. There were always those children who cried 'not fair' whether it was truly fair or not. Even those who always misbehaved would also say 'it's not fair' when they themselves did not get the stickers, thus giving the class atmosphere a negative tone;

c. Every time after the award assembly there would be a whole lot of disappointed children who were good but did not get the award. A few times some children even cried when they did not get the award;

d. The small tokens were costly – each time I had to buy 12 of these small pins or shakers, and for 8 times a year, it became quite expensive. Because of the high cost, to increase the number of awardees each time would be impractical;

e. With many of these very affluent children, stickers and small tokens did not mean much to them as they were materially abundant.

It was interesting to note that I actually did not notice much difference in children's behaviour in the year I stopped using the system. This was reflected both in my diary the class average scores (Table 8) which were not statistically analysed. There might be just a handful of children who were difficult to deal with, but I did not find myself laboring extra hard to manage the classes without using token economy. Considering all the drawbacks of using the system, till this day I have not used it again.

Table 8   Average class scores (05-06/ 06-07)

	1A	1B	1C	1D	2A	2B	2C	2D	3A	3B	3C	3D	avg
05-06 with Token Economy	7.0	7.1	7.5	7.2	7.3	6.9	7.2	7.4	7.5	7.3	7.1	7.0	7.20
06-07 w/o Token Economy	7.1	7.3	7.0	7.5	7.4	7.2	7.0	6.8	7.0	7.2	7.5	6.9	7.16

Good Behaviour Game (GBG)

In one school year I employed the Good Behaviour Game (GBG) (Wright, 2001) with three classes of students – two Grade 2 and one Grade 3 class. I started GBG on the very first lessons in the school year because these three classes were quite difficult right from the start. In my experience, usually children would be more reserved and timid in the beginning of the year because of the new environment. However, these three classes were 'exceptional':

August 26, 2005 (Tuesday)   Grade 2C
The class was really scattered, very unusual for the first lesson of the year. Quite a few talkative ones – Mick, Amos, Lorraine, Andrew, William, Lora, Kush, Yanni etc. Right away, I split the class in two halves and explained the Good Behaviour Game to them. The two groups seemed to be even in terms of the mix of student – boys, girls, and number of disruptive ones.

August 27, 2005 (Wednesday)
- *Grade 2D – first music lesson but kids were talkative and scattered the minute they came in. I thought I had to do something quick and started the Good Behaviour Game, as Grade 2C yesterday. It seemed to work right away. The good thing was that there was no reprimenting necessary, just put a line on the board and the children got the message.*
- *In the afternoon, Grade 3C was also very scattered right from the start. I had not encountered a Year 3 class misbehaving like this on the first class of the year. Quite a few potential trouble makers such as Joey. Right away I started the GBG. It got better but result was not as dramatic as Grade 2D this morning.*

Table 9   Number of points after eight sessions of GBG

	Grade 2C	Grade 2D	Grade 3C
Group 1	32	72	36
Group 2	43	65	39

The 'Game' was used twice a week for each class during music lessons. The children in each class were divided into two teams. Class rules were discussed and posted. Each time someone displayed inappororiate behaviours, such as talking out, a point was given to his/her team. At the end of the lesson, the team with the fewest points won a group award. Initially the GBG seemed to be quite 'powerful' as most students tried hard to put on their best behaviour. I found that as a behaviourst technique, it also has a cognitive element. When I put a line on the chart, the children got the message and were quiet right away. It seemed that there was thinking going on in their heads. However, after about a month, the novelty of the game began to wear off, and those chatty ones started to chat again. Table 9 shows the number of points the three classes got in 8 sessions. These scores were not statistically analysed. Grade 2D had an unusually high number of points compare to the other two classes,

reflecting there were a lot of misbehaviour in the class. After 4 weeks of using GBG, I decided to discontinue the programme because it became ineffective. Some of the reasons were similar to those of the drawbacks of using 'token economy':

a. After a few weeks of GBG, some children, especially those who always misbehaved, became 'numb' and care-less about the check marks. They were also oblivious to 'group pressure', and some children in 2D even misbehaved on purpose just to make their own groups gain points;

b. There was a lot of blaming going on – whenever a group got a point, some children in the group would call out, '*Aw, Joey, you made us lose again!*' And Joey would shout back, '*so?*' It made the class chaotic and such unhealthy exchange ruined students' relationship as well as class atmosphere;

c. Every time a group got the 'awards' (small musical-note erasers), many children in the other group were so disappointed. Some would blame the misbehaving children, some would cry 'not fair', and some would 'beg' me for an award. It was not a good feeling for me when I had to turn them down;

d. Yet there were those who truly did not care about those 'awards'. It was very difficult to find an appropriate reinforcer that would appeal to majority of the students;

e. It was very difficult to make the two groups similar in terms of the number of misbehaving children. The discrepancy would make one group gaining a lot more points than the other, and children would get discouraged and give up, as in the case of Grade 2C.

Since there seemed to be more drawbacks than benefits, I came to the conclusion that GBG was an inappropriate discipline strategy in my context. I theorise that perhaps it is more of a preventive programme than a 'prescriptive' programme: it does not work well when there are already severe misbehaviour problems in the class.

4.1.3.3   Action Plan & Outcomes 3: Punishment

With students who were uncooperative and defiant, punishment was always employed to stop their misbehaviour. My most often used forms of punishment were time-out and detention. Some children were so disruptive that I had to put them

somewhere else for a 'time-out'. In Grade 2C, Matt was frequently hyper and disruptive:

April 20, 2006 (Tuesday)   Grade 2C
Frequently when we did action songs, Matt would be 'all over the place', doing exaggerated actions and singing loudly in a 'duck' voice. Planned ignoring, physical proximity, gentle reminder, verbal warning and so on have all been tried but nothing worked. His disruptive behaviour also had a 'ripple effect' on other children and the lesson was disrupted as I always had to stop in the middle of something and corrected behaviour. After seriously warning him three times, I sent him out of the class, just for a few minutes. In most cases he would quiet down when rejoining the class. My purpose of time-out was to send the disruptive child away so that other children could learn. Creating boredom for Matt was secondary, unlike what the literature says. With 22 children, I had to think of the class as a whole and would not let one child violate the right of the other 21 in learning. I think it is proper to remove an extremely disruptive child so that the lesson can continue. However, I would also ask Matt to come in at recess so we could go over what he missed in the lesson.

During the course of this study, time-out was one of the strategies that worked instantly most of the time, under certain conditions. When I put the disruptive child at the corner or outside the classroom, the whole class would become quiet. There seemed to be a 'negative ripple effect' that other children wanted to avoid being punished. However, I would be very reluctant to use it with small children. For example, Grade 1 children are too young to be left alone outside the classroom with no supervision; and time-out inside the music room would still give the child opportunity to exhibit attention-seeking behaviour (like making noise) which disrupts the class. One time I left a child outside and he wandered off to other parts of the school. Therefore, I only use time-out with children Grade 2 and up, and with caution.

Timing-out a disruptive child, besides creating boredom for him/her, was also for restoring the disrupted learning environment for the class. For the sake of the whole class' learning, I would choose to remove the disruptive student. The child in time-out was required to come back during recess to learn what he/she had missed in the lesson.

Detention was another strategy I used. When a child became disruptive in class, I would give him/her several warnings before giving a detention at morning or lunch recess. During detention, I would talk with the child about his/her behaviour by going through the steps in 'Reality Therapy'. Most of the time, however, I found that the effectiveness for detention was short-lived. The majority of the students had not much improvement in their behaviour in spite of frequent detentions. In 2004-05,

Henry, Eddy, and Mason in Grade 1C were frequently getting detentions. In addition to the ones given by me, quite a few other detentions were given by the Primary vice-principal, so these children actually spent a lot of break times in the office. Overall there had not been much improvement in these children's behaviour – they were still disruptive in music and in other classes. Had there been improvement, these students would not have to go back to the office frequently. Detentions given by the vice-principal also showed that these children's misbehaviours were severe and beyond the classrooms. They misbehaved in the dining hall, playground, the toilets, and on the school bus. For example, many times these children urinated all over the toilet floor on purpose. Each of the children served detentions between 20 to 25 times during that year.

For my other students, detention also seemed to be ineffective. It took away their 'privileges' of having playtime at recess but it did not teach them any appropriate behaviour. Eden in Grade 3B (2005-06) was a good example. Because of his frequently impulsive outburst of attention seeking behaviour (shouting/ yelling/ pulling others' hair), I had given him many detentions.

In September Eden got 6 detentions from me. He missed his morning play time. There was, however, no improvement in his behaviour during music. Then in October, I used a different strategy. I tried to build a relationship with him. During lunch recess when he came in for detention, I chatted with him about what he did over the weekend, what he learned in church, and also taught him to play the piano. Still, his behaviour on the whole went through ups and downs and to me there was no drastic improvement. But very often when he saw me in the hallway, he would come and give me a hug. He was a 'black sheep' in all teachers' eyes. By acts of kindness hopefully he wouldn't turn off school, and to know that not everyone is against him - there are kind and caring teachers around.

My examples perhaps illustrated what Laslett and Smith (2002) say, that some children are not much influenced by punishment, because overfamiliarity with it has made them indifferent. Also, many children perceive themselves as unworthy and undeserving, and they also perceive adults in authority as potentially uncaring and hostile. When I kept Phil in Grade 1D behind, his answer reflected the point above:

Jan 23, 2006 (Wednesday)   Grade 1D
Phil was 'off the wall' today in music. He could not sit still and kept shouting out. When confronted he became very defiant. So I asked him to write his name on the board and kept him in during morning recess.
'Why did I keep you in, Phil?' I asked.
'Because I was bad!' He answered.
'You were bad?' I was surprised that a 5-year-old would say that about himself.
'Yes, I was bad. My mom said I was bad, and Mrs. Smith (homeroom teacher) said I was bad.'
No wonder Phil would misbehave. He was perhaps just acting according to what others said about him.

Even though the punished behaviour may only be suppressed in the actual presence of the 'punishing agent' (Buckley and Walker, 1970), in extreme disruptive situations, punishment would still be necessary in order to stop the misbehaviour right away, before it becomes 'contagious'.

4.1.3.4 Action Plan & Outcomes 4: Individual Negative/Positive Reinforcement and Encouragement

<u>Negative Reinforcement</u>

Instead of using punishment right away, often I employed negative reinforcement, which is the reinforcement of behaviour by taking away a threatened consequence if the student shows the correct behaviour (Alberto and Troutman, 1990). After warning a misbehaving child for a few times, I would put his/her name on the board. If the student's behaviour improved, I would erase one letter at a time, he/she would only get a detention only when the name was not completely erased by the end of the class.

May 20, 2005 (Tuesday) Grade 1B
- *1B was very hyper – last class of the day – rainy day, kids stayed in for recesses*
- *when they came in, they were already scattered, talking, lying on the floor, out of their 'spots'*
- *I got their attention finally and asked the whole class to go out again and line up*
- *Learning Chinese songs – back to talking again, so throughout this part I had to do various things to get their attention, rhythm echo, said 'I like the way…', relocated kids, had kids stand up, … and it was really hard work to maintain their attention*
- *After learning the new lyrics I tried to demonstrate the song by singing but it was just too noisy, many kids have their own agendas and just ignored what's going on*
- *I had to raise my voice and said, 'Henry, go put your name on the board, and if your name is still on the board at the end of the class, you'll lose your recess tomorrow'. Then most kids became quiet, some still talked, I subsequently called Michel, Adrian, and Hannah. And then everyone was quiet. I said 'you're wasting our time – because you're talking, we cannot learn'.*
- *Then I gave them a chance by saying 'if you'd show me you can sit still and sing well, your names can be erased.' Everyone behaved very well from then on in order to 'escape' the punishment.*

In my study, negative reinforcement was something that worked instantly most of the time. The class would become queit once I put someone's name on the board. However, I had reservations about using it frequently. Though the literature does not show much about the drawbacks of negative reinforcement, I would rather keep the classroom atmosphere positive instead of constantly giving threats to students. Besides, it would be embarrassing for misbehaving children to have their names on display frequently. Such public humiliation might subject them to teasing by other children afterwards, and might 'harden' them further. So such negative reinforcement

would often be my last resort, much like the use of punishment.

Positive Reinforcement & Encouragement

In my AR cycles, I found that children tended to respond better to positive reinforcement, praise, and encouragement (McIntyre, 2003). It seemed that if I stayed calm and collect, the children would also be less defensive and respond in a calmer manner.

May 23, 2004 (Friday) Grade 1B
- *Kaitlin was a highly inattentive/ distractible child, with great difficulties engaging in tasks that required mental effort such as learning words of songs. She had very short attention span and seemed lacking interest in class activities. My task was to increase her participation during music. For 6 months there had not been much improvement in spite of the various strategies I tried. While most of the other children were laughing and enjoying the lesson, Kaitlin showed no interest. I tried to praise her neighbours who were singing heartily but she did not budge. I had individual conferences with her a few times but they didn't seem to help. I found that her problem was shown in all other subjects as well, so she was referred to the learning support teacher.*
- *Last month I started to ask the children to volunteer to sing solos, and to my surprise, Kaitlin was one of the many who raised their hands. She sang two lines of a Chinese song beautifully, with clear diction and accurate pitches. I then said in an exaggerated and dramatic manner, 'who just sang so beautifully?' She shyly put up her hand.*
  'Oh, Kaitlin, I didn't know you could sing so beautifully!'
  She was grinning from ear to ear.
  From then on, I often created opportunities for Kaitlin to sing solos. She had marked improvement in music. She could focus much better and when she was 'off', I just looked at her and whispered, 'c'mon, Kaitlin, you can do it'. Praising and encouraging her strength did work for her, and she felt good about herself.

Apart from praise and encouragement, other tangible rewards did not seem to work so well in my situations. As previously mentioned, stickers and small tokens would quickly lose their novelty, perhaps because our children were already materially well-off. Apart from food, it was difficult to find an appropriate tangible reinforcer. In training animals such as dogs and dolphins, food is used primarily as reinforcer (e.g. Skinner, 1984). As our society is becoming more humanistic, we do recognise the difference between children and animals, and would not use the same training method (such as feeding children candies when they obey and giving them electric shocks when they don't) for ethical reasons. Our school does not allow teachers to give candies to children as reward even though they might be effective in shaping certain behaviours. There must be a good reason that schools prohibit the use of candies as reinforcers. Perhaps the excessive sugar might cause poor health and tooth decay, or it might increase children's level of hyperactivity. However, not all food items are banned in our school - pizza parties are allowed. It would be impractical for me to hold pizza parties for 12 classes of students regularly. Praise

and encouragement seemed to be the only effective positive reinforcers for me to employ. I have to admit that it was very difficult to stay calm and collect when the children were naughty and defiant. It would take a lot of will power to remain positive in unpleasant situations.

4.1.3.5   Action Plan & Outcomes 5 - Building Relationship

In the school year 04-05, I taught music to a total of six Kindergarten classes, three in the morning and three in the afternoon. All the classes ranged from average to good in terms of student behaviour, except for Kindergarten A morning class, which was one of the most difficult classes I had ever taught, as reflected in the diary:

Sep 8 (Monday)// 8:15 – 8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 4 (out of 10)
- *A terrible class, extremely difficult*
- *Alice – mouthy, smart alec*
- *Arie - ok*
- *Colleen – talks out*
- *Rosie – not focused, not participating*
- *Maddy – willing to sing*
- *Noel – well behaved*
- *Jessie – ok*
- *Adam – cooperative*
- *Donny – mouthy, not participating, unmotivated*
- *Edward – not cooperative, not participating, no control*
- *Howard – mouthy, sent out of circle, 'care-less' attitude*
- *John – squirmed around*
- *Ronald – not participating*
- *Sean - inattentive*

Out of the 14 children, only four were co-operative and willing to sing and play as teacher directed. This was indeed very rare as young children would usually behave quite well on the first class, and only after a certain 'honeymoon' period, their behaviour might deteriorate as they became familiar with the environment (McIntyre, 2003). This class was 'out-of-control' right from the start, with children talking out of turn loudly, not participating, fighting over seating spots, and ignoring teacher's instruction. Because it was the first music lesson, the homeroom teacher put name stickers on children's shirt for my benefit. However, ten out of fourteen children peeled off their stickers and stuck them on their foreheads, faces, or other inappropriate places. They did not follow instructions such as 'let's sit in a circle', or 'let's stand up'. One child, Howard, was so unruly that I had to send him out of the circle for a brief 'time-out' during singing. In this lesson I had to be extra theatrical in order to capture the children's attention. During the very brief time when most of the

children were focused, they demonstrated in-tune singing with a proper rhythmic sense. I moved from one activity to the next in a fast pace in order to capture their attention, disguising into various voices for the different characters in stories, projecting my voice loudly during singing and playing musical games so I could be heard. After this 30-minute class I was totally exhausted and my throat really hurt. It was only my first lesson of the day. I had an overwhelming sense of defeat and blamed myself for this chaotic lesson. The homeroom teacher assured me that the problem was due to the children's immaturity, the composition of the class, and so on, and not because of me. She said the children would behave better once they got to know me, as she also had a difficult time initially and took her a week to have the children settled.

Action Plan & Outcomes: a. Building Relationship

Because each Kindergarten class only had music lesson once a week, it would be difficult for me to get to know the children quickly. After consulting with the homeroom teacher, I decided to pay extra visits to this class during my spare periods. Laslett and Smith (2002) mention that rapport with students is best conducted through less formal contact in playtimes, lunch breaks and school clubs. So before the next music lesson, I visited the class twice: during their outdoor play and snack time. At these informal visits I took pictures of the children and tried to remember their names in order to get to know the children and build a relationship with them. Working alongside with the homeroom teacher, I assisted in various activities such as giving out snacks and helping individuals with their bicycles and jump ropes. Through these visits, the children got the idea that I was also a teacher, just like their homeroom teacher, whom they needed to listen to.

Sep 15 (Monday)// 8:15 – 8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 6.5 (out of 10)
- *A much better class*
- *Howard – had him sit beside me & monitored his behaviour, ignored his minor misbehaviour such as exaggerated actions during action songs (planned ignoring), encouraged good behaviour (praised him publicly when he was sitting properly)*
  - *Seemed to work well, behaviour improved, even sang some songs and did actions*
- *Donny – talked out, not participating, looked 'tired', slouching*
- *Edward – not cooperative, not participating, talked out, no control*
- *Ronald & Rosie – not participating, did not sing, refused to stand up for action songs*

This subsequent lesson was a great improvement from the first class. Some of the children greeted me when I entered their classroom and four children wanted to sit

beside me in the circle. A lot more teaching went on and the children learned a total of four songs. They remembered the story from previous week and wanted to know what happened next. Some of the children were still not participating. Donny was a great concern for me as I seldom see a young child so unmotivated and often appeared to be physically tired. At least after this second class I was not emotionally and physically exhausted. During the week I went for one extra visit before the next music lesson.

Action Plan and Outcomes: b. Continue to Build Relationship

Sep 22 (Monday)// 8:15-8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 6.0 (out of 10)
- *A few misbehaving kids ruined the whole class*
- *Good moments – story of 'Old Man'/ Tuning fork activity*
- *Chaotic moments*
    - *Name game – kids didn't sing properly*
    - *Song & actions – standing up in a circle was always a problem, many were unwilling to stand and move*
    - *Some children were disruptive*
- *Edward – not participating much*
- *Roland – totally not participating*
- *Colleen – attention seeking, sang when not supposed to, uncooperative, disruptive*
- *Donny – looked very tired, unmotivated, rude, not participating*

The lesson was somewhat worse than the last one. Even though it had improved much from the very first class, the participation level was still low compared to the other kindergarten classes. Bothered by Donny's rudeness, lack of participation and lack of care, I decided to have a private conference with him after class. I asked him to come outside of the classroom. In order to get down to his eye-level, I pulled out a small chair so I could sit down and talk to him. However, his facial expression showed annoyance and rudeness, and he flopped down on the chair I pulled out. I realised this was a spoiled child who would not respond to kind pleas and requests, so I showed my anger to get his attention by raising my voice, '*get up and stand straight!*' He was shocked and sprang to his feet. I asked him to look at me (he had no eye contact when talking to others) and talked to him sternly. I asked if he knew why I wanted to talk to him and he seemed to give the answers that a teacher would expect: '*because I was naughty*'.

'*What did you do?*' I asked.

'*I talked,*' He continued.

'*What else?*' I went on.

'*I was not standing up?*' He said . . . .

In this conversation, I found out that he actually did not go to bed till midnight. I asked him to tell mommy that he needed to go to bed much earlier. I wanted to show that I actually accepted him and assured him of his strength in singing, but he needed to be a good listener, like all the other children. I also promised that music would be fun if we all worked together. He seemed to understand and nodded his head.

Building relationship involves more than just seeing the children more often and learning their names. During the times when I interacted with the children, I tried to be fair, kind, caring, gentle, and warm, as Laslett and Smith (2002) advised. I showed a good sense of humour by singing silly songs and telling funny stories. I tried to show my care and concern for the students: by greeting them warmly whenever I saw them, by being a good listener, and by knowing each child as a person: to find out what he/she liked and something about their families. Even though my knowledge of the students was still quite superficial due to the limited time I had, the extra care and concern did seem to pay off for these 4-year-olds.

Oct 6 (Monday)// 8:15 – 8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 6.5 (out of 10)
- *The whole class was calmer, some improvement*
- *Arie & Colleen – tended to go overboard in silliness.*
- *Rosie – sat beside teacher, still all over the place*
- *Maddy – attentive & cooperative*
- *Noel – attentive & cooperative*
- *Alice – ok, able to match pitches*
- *Jessie – attentive & cooperative*
- *Adam – cooperative, a gentleman*
- *Donny – not participating much, but less resistant*
- *Edward – more settled*
- *Howard – absent*
- *John – quite sensible, able to match pitches*
- *Ronald – participated a little more, sang more songs*
- *Sean – sensible at times, able to match pitches*
- *Children liked rhythm echo very much*

Oct 27 (Monday)// 8:15 – 8:45 a.m.// Kindergarten A// Score: 7.0 (out of 10)
- *the class was actually quite good this morning*
- *brought my small guitar with me, children were actually curious and attentive*
- *Donny came and whispered in my ear about something he did yesterday, relationship built*

With other classes, I was able to build a good rapport much sooner, usually by the third week of school in early September. Kindergarten A, however, only started to show improvement by the end of October. By then a relationship had been built as the children began to greet me warmly whenever they saw me in passing, and some even gave me hugs. The first the first two months of school could be a critical time.

As I evaluated the situation after each class, it was like doing a few cycles of AR in terms of building relationship, which was established by the end of October for Kindergarten A. The score (Table 10) in all subsequent lessons reflected the steadiness and stability in the class. The notes (Appendix I) reflected that children became more focused and participated a lot more in music.

Table 10 Class scores for Kindergarten A morning class

Date	Sep 8	Sep 15	Sep 22	Oct 06	Oct 13	Oct 27	Nov 03	Nov 17	Nov 24	Dec 01	Jan 05	Jan 26	Feb 02	Feb 23	Mar 08
Class Score (out of 10)	4.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.5	7.0	7.0	7.5	6.5	7.0	7.5	7.5	7.0	6.0	7.5

Since I taught three different grade levels, I would have most of the same children again for the following year(s). In the school year of 06-07, these children became Grade 2 students. By then both Edward and Howard had been diagnosed with having Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder (ADHD): apart from still having behavioural issues, they both showed significant learning difficulties in reading and math. Another boy, Donny, whom I had so much trouble with at the beginning of his kindergarten year, slowly but gradually improved in all areas. In Grade 2 he no longer stood out in class as a student in need, he participation and behaviour improved. Alice, Arie, and Colleen became sensible Grade 2 girls who showed good musical sense and abilities. Noel, who had always been an excellent student, told her mother that I was her favourite teacher because, in her words, '*Mr. Tanner never screamed at kids like other teachers*'. It was interesting that she would have such perception because as I recalled vividly, I did raise my voice at some children in Noel's class a few times. Perhaps that was because I had never screamed at her, and that Noel was always an excellent student and I gave her a lot of positive attention: by praising and encouraging her; by pointing her out as an example for others (e.g. I like the way Noel is sitting); and by making her a line leader and also by giving her little chores because of her reliability (e.g. taking something to the office).

Perhaps the impression that a teacher gives to the students is important. In their perception, I was kind, caring, and funny (Appendix J), and they even dismissed the few screaming incidents I had. One time I was on recess duty in the playground. A few Grade 4 girls were very mean to the younger children and would not allow them to get on 'their' merry-go-round. I had no tolerance on such bullying behaviour and shouted at these girls who had been talked to about the same issue by numerous other

teachers. Afterwards Katy, another Grade 4 girl, whom I no longer taught, said to me, 'You shouted', as if it was a big surprise to her. I concluded from these incidences that perhaps to most children I was not a 'screamer'.

As a music teacher, I had to take an extra step to build relationship with students. Unlike homeroom teachers who mainly deal with his/her class of 22 students and interact with them daily on a regular basis, I teach all twelve classes in three grade levels, with a total of 264 students. I have much less time and opportunities to interact with each one on a more in-depth and person level. However, the voices of children and others give strong indication that the students enjoyed music classes and that they liked me as a teacher. In addition, parents and school administration were also satisfied with my teaching. Therefore, it can be said that I had much success in building a good relationship with students. Before I consciously made an effort to build relationship with the students, there were much fewer positive feedback from them. In this study, there were very few positive voices in the first year, more in the second year and the vast majority was from the third year (Appendix J). It might indicate that in this AR process, time was really required to build relationship, which was also effective in improving the discipline of music class as a result. Thus, this good 'student-teacher' rapport became one of the major answers to my research question, 'How can classroom management and disciplne be improved so that learning of music can be optimized in the Lower Primary classroom?'.

Even though I might not be able to understand each student like his/her homeroom teacher could, I had genuinely tried to foster a good relationship with my students. My various way, as suggested by various researchers, included:

1) Showing respect and concern; being dedicated and enthusiastic in teaching; expecting and praising students for their best work; being generous in praise; being constructive when criticising; being fair and consistent (Cooper, 2006). I sought to demonstrate to students that I appreciate and care about them as individuals (McCombs, 2003) by showing joy and kindness when interacting with them. I always tried to make decisions that are best for the students, thinking about what I would do if they were my own children;

2) Being aware of any difficulties the student is having, and that academic achievement and student behaviour are influenced by the quality of the

teacher and student relationship (Jones and Jones, 1981). For example, I set up extra practices with those Grade 3 students who had difficulties playing the recorder at recess time, especially during the initial stage of learning the instrument;

3) Blending warmth and firmness towards the students, but with realistic limits (Jones and Jones, 1981, p.111). For example, I kept some of the misbehaving behind during recess and went over with them again what I taught in class (as in the case of Eden in 3B, in 4.1.3.3). Quite often they misbehaved because they had trouble in keeping up with the pace of other classmates in learning. With the additional help and opportunity, they could generally grasp the skills and content of what was taught, and the occurance of misbehaviour was lessened;

4) Letting students know that they are important, showing interest in helping students, explaining reasons for having rules, and encouraging students to participate in activities (Baldwin and Baldwinn, 1982). I went the 'extra mile' for my students. For example, children often misplace their belongings such as snack boxes and jackets. When I found a jacket (with identification) lying in the playground, I would deliver it to the child in his/her homeroom instead of just putting it in the lost and found box. Because I taught all the children in three grade levels, over the years I got to know the majority of the students in the primary school, apart from the new ones. Also, when making students' song booklets, I always took the time to trim the all corners of the clear hard plastic covers as well as both ends of the coil binding so that children would not be accidentally cut by those sharp edges. Those were time consuming tasks which, in my experience, very few teachers would even bother doing.

The core of this teacher-student relationship was born out of my belief that children are valuable and should be treated with love and respect. In this sense it leans towards humanistic philosophy. It is a genuine type of caring, for the good of the children, rather than the 'manipulative kind' as in Behavioursm. Some teachers might not have a genuine caring attitude, they treat students nicely because they want to 'get the job done', or to please the parents or their superiors. Even when behaviourist techniques are used, my underlying motivation is for the good of the

children (Dobson, 1978, 1992, 2006).

Voices from Students and Others

As mentioned previously that the voices from the students and others can be an important form of triangulation. In the context of this thesis, the most important indicator for the establishment of teacher-student relationship was the improvement in students' behaviour. However, that does not mean that students' behaviour would drastically change from poor to excellent. Some children did struggle with other issues such as impulsivity and difficult family situations so they continue to misbehave in spite of the fact that they like their teachers. However, the positive feedbacks did reflect good teacher-student relationship as well as teacher competency, thus indicating good/improved classroom management and children's enjoyment in learning music. It is logical to assert that these were the results of what I did as a teacher in building relationship with students, as outlined in the last section. This success in building 'student-teacher' relationship contributed greatly to the improvement of classroom management and discipline (Rogers, 2000).

There were general indicators (Pianta et al., 1995) showing that I was well liked by the children, as extracted from my diary and reflective notes:

- Each day the children greeted me enthusiastically every time they see me in various locations of the school, even from far away, often to the point that many other teachers would comment, 'wow, you have a fan club here';

- children showed affectionate behaviour such as giving me hugs or holding my hand whenever they saw me, and this was also almost a daily happening;

- children showed their appreciation by giving me self-made gifts, handcrafts, and pictures;

- children verbally expressed that they really liked music;

- children expressed their fondness through reflection sheet/pictures;

- parents expressed their children's enjoyment of music class;

- parents expressed their children's fondness of me as their teacher by always being the subject in their home conversation;

- parents showed their appreciation by giving me gifts at festivals and year-ends.

Again, within the three academic years of this study, there were very few positive voices in the first year, more in the second year and the vast majority of the positive voices was from the third year. My hypothesis was that it really took time to build relationship with students and that it was logical to conclude my effort in doing so did help improve discipline in my music classes. In the first year of this study there were more discipline problems in classes and I always felt 'helpless' as the classes were 'out of control' (e.g. Appendix G, Aug 28). Appendix J shows examples of some of the appreciative notes and emails from students, parents and others. Some highlights and additional examples extracted from the diary are listed below, giving explicit voice to the children involved in the research, and positive feedback and incidents from other sources, from predomenantly the school year of 06-07:

Good Teacher-Student Relationship

- Natalie, 6, gave me a long hug and would not let go when she saw me in the hallway after my sick leave. She said she missed me in music the previous day when I was absent.
- Branda in Grade 2 gave me a picture she drew with '*I love u Mr Taner*' on it. Sometime after I ran into her mom who said to me jokingly in a jealous tone that she herself had never received a picture from her daughter with those words.
- In December 2006 I received a Christmas gift from a parent who told me that amongst all the teachers, I was the only one her son chose to give a gift to.
- Christmas card from 2 brothers (Grade 1 & 2): Dear Mr Tanner, thank you for teaching us music. You are such a funny teacher.
- Note from Ban (Grade 2): Dear Mr. Tanner, I love going to your music class!!!!!
- Many of my former students still came to my music room during break times and expressed that they wished I was their current music teacher.
- An ex-student, already in Grade 6, came into my classroom one day and left a note on the board saying, '*We came to visit u but u wer not here! I miss this class room so much! I miss u!*'.
- Some of my former students, even in Grade 7 and 8, whom usually tried to act 'cool', still greeted me warmly when they saw me around the school. Same with the older ones, in Grade 10 to 12, still came and make conversations whenever they saw me.

Enjoyment of music as a subject

- Phil, a regular trouble maker in Grade 2, saw me in the hallway one morning. He asked if his class would have music that day. After I told him yes, he gave a genuine cheer: '*yay, we have music today!*' I was really surprised because his behaviour was usually quite poor in class. Even so, he showed that he did enjoy music lessons.

Teacher Character and Competency

- Kellet, a new Grade 2 student, sent me a card that said '*I love your music and I will always remember you! I love this year because of you*'.

- An 'expert' was invited to give demo music lessons from which the music teachers could observe and learn. In one Grade 3 lesson, I sat with the students on the floor while listening to the 'expert'. Lara and Leann complained to me, '*this is so boring. We hate this lesson. Why can't YOU teach us?*'

- While the 'expert' was teaching in another Grade 2 class, Chloe, pointing at the bulletin board which says 'Music Is Fun', said to me, '*Hey, it says Music Is Fun. This lesson is NO fun. This is SO boring! I want you to teach us!*'

- It was the second day of school in August 07 and I got an unexpected visit from six Grade 7 students during lunch hour. They were reminiscing about the past - '*I used to sit here*', '*Oh, I remember this drum*', etc. It was 3 years ago that I taught them. They still remembered the fun time they had in music and came visit.

- Summer school (07) – just after two days of summer music class, a parent (who was also a teacher) came and told me, '*Stephanie (age 5) loves your class so much! She wants to come back again next week.*'

- One mother (who was a principal in another school) sent me an email in March 2007 saying: '*Just a little note to say a BIG thank you for being such a great inspiring music teacher! Patricia loves your lessons and your songs. On Feb. 7th my youngest brother got married in Italy and of course, people asked her about school…Your name was mentioned a lot, so I thought YOU are the person who should know how much we all appreciate you. Music opens up the heart to harmony and well-being. Thanks for your valuable contribution!*'

- Note from a Grade 2 parent: Dear Mr. Tanner, thank you for the excellent job you are doing to instill the beautiful world of music to our children. May they learn to love it as much as you do.

- Words from colleague, March 24, 2006 - yesterday the Kindergarten teacher was away and I wasn't sure if the classroom teachers knew about it. So first thing in the morning I went and told Mary, the head teacher about it. She said, 'wow, that's really unusual behaviour in this school! Somebody actually cares!' That was a great compliment for me.

- Words from colleague, May 2, 2007 - after my recess duty a student jacket was left in the play area. I picked it up and found it was Ben's so I went to look for his cubbyhole outside his Grade 3 classroom. Yolanda the Art teacher walked past and commented, 'Oh, you're good!''

- One time I was asked to substitute in a Grade 6 music class. Because it was on very short notice, I had to quickly pull something together. After the lesson, one of the boys, Tony, came to me and said, 'That was the best music lesson I've ever had!'

- In November 2005, after her visit to my class, the department head, who was also a parent, sent me an email: '*I loved your lesson! You are very talented. I was tapping away to the beat all through the lesson!*'

- Somehow my 'reputation' as a competent teacher spread, my music room and class became one of the 'must-see' destinations during visitors' school tour conducted by the admission office; other school administrators also brought visitors to my class frequently.

My good rapport with students is one of my strengths, which helps both my students and me. Because of this rapport, I gradually had less discipline problems; and the students tended to enjoy music as a subject. It must be stressed that relationship building is not a one-time deal, but rather, it is the teacher's persistence and accumulation of effort. Children often might not respond to a single incidence of 'kindness' from the teacher. The results often can only be seen over time. As indicated earlier, most of my positve feedback (voices) came in the third year of this study. On the one hand, I had known and taught some children for a good length of time; and on the other, I had also grown as a teacher and became more assertive and comfortable with the children as well as the environment (e.g. more skillful in teaching). All through my teaching career, I had numerous other similar experiences in relationship building as with Kindergarten A. In my honest reflection, there had also been instances in which I found myself raising my voice and shouting at the

children.

Screaming

As much as I hated screaming at the children, as reflected in the title of this thesis, a few times the children were so trying that I felt I was at the end of my rope, and screaming seemed to be the only choice at the time in order to stop the children from their unruly behaviour. Being a gentle person, sometimes I did have to do something more drastic to stop children's misbehaviour right away. Some situations were 'urgent', for instance, children playing roughly and piling on top of one another, and if I didn't react strongly, some children might get hurt seriously.

No one enjoys being yelled at and it is very unpleasant for both parties. Many teachers, however, would constantly yell at students, perhaps because it works instantly – at least for the time being. I understand the feeling totally because many times the children were so unruly that I became angry and screaming at them seemed to be the only way I could think of. Time and again I encounter children who are distractible, unfocused, uncooperative, rude, and had no regards for others; they socialize during instructions, or blurt out comments and remarks to everything the teacher says; they might scream or run around inappropriately. They would push you to the limit and if their misbehaviours were not stopped, others would follow – Kounin's (1970) 'Ripple Effect'.

May 20, 2007   Grade 2A
With the same programme and methods, I get different receptivity and responses from the kids. Most really enjoyed and paid attention, but some, regardless of what's going on, were scattered. It's too bad I had to come to the last resort – threatening remarks and raised voice. But with all the other positive approaches the children just did not respond. Such as 'I like the way Joey is sitting'. Some kids just went on talking and didn't even hear me calling their names, like Tony today. I had to really shout to get his attention.

May 28, 2007   Grade 1C
In the past, positive, pampering approaches had been used but these children did not respond well, perhaps taking advantage of this 'kindness' and went on their merry way. I hate using this kind of punishment type approach – inducing fear in them, but sometimes this might be necessary. Some children have not learned to stay in boundary and kept pushing their own agendas. Hopefully this kind of no-nonsense approach – giving extremely unpleasant consequences to their misbehaviour would serve as a 'wake-up call' to these children. Eventually the goal is to build relationship with them and gain their trust.

In 2005 there was a Kindergarten class with quite a few very disruptive children and I really dreaded every time when I had this class. I tried using positive

reinforcement with stickers on name chart. It worked for a very brief two weeks and then the class again became noisy and scattered. One girl, Kristy, in particular, was very trying. Physically she was half a head taller than the rest of the children but in fact she was quite immature. She always wanted her own ways and seemed unresponsive to teacher's care and encouragement. Very often she blurted out inappropriate remarks impulsively and the other children would laugh and add comments - a ripple effect. During one lesson in December, I shouted at her and told her to stop misbehaving. She was stunned and stopped right away. Seeing this, the other children also became silent. From then on the class became much better, with children co-operating more. I found out that Kristy could sing quite well and sometimes I singled her out to sing alone. My encouragement to her seemed to work then. I taught Kristy for two more years, in Grade One and Two. She became quite friendly with me and even gave me quick hugs when she came to music. I no longer teach her now as she has already entered Grade 5, she still comes to visit my music room once in awhile.

The other incidence happened in 2006 with a very unruly Grade 1 class. Usually in the Lower Primary classrooms girls tend to behave better than boys (Kindlon & Thompson, 2000). This particular Grade 1 class, however, was dominated by three extremely 'bossy' girls, who literally controlled everyone and everything that happened in the class. At recess they dictated whom their peers could play with and what games to play; while in class they were sneaky, outspoken and disruptive. I attempted various methods, including positive reinforcement with stickers, negative reinforcement, time-out and so on but nothing really worked. The ringleader was an 'untouchable' and a bully. It seemed that I was unable to build up a rapport with this particular child - she was aloof and I was not able to break through the barrier in any way. Since the children misbehaved consistently in all other classes, parents were notified of the problems but even after parent-teacher conferences, not progress was shown.

One music lesson in November the class was again at its worse. The three girls were being very rude and disruptive by shouting out inappropriate remarks while I was trying to teach a new song, 'Down by the Bay', to the class. One lyric line was *'for if I do, my mother will say'*.

'This is a stupid song', Mandy blurted out.

The other two laughed and added, 'yea, *the mother is stupid*', and '*I'm bored*'.

Seeing the lesson was going nowhere, and against my own belief and usual practice, I yelled at the ringleader, '*Stop it right now, Mandy! Who do you think you are, disrupting the class like this?*' I was totally fed up with their attitude and at that moment shouting at them seemed to be my only option to stop their nonsense.

Then to the other two girls I also shouted, '*Anne and Sally, don't you copy what Mandy says every time. She is NOT the boss! I am sick and tired of you girls constantly spoiling the class for everyone else. If you don't want to learn, go to the office right now. If you want to stay in this class, you'll have to stay quiet and pay attention. Do I make myself clear?*'

The girls were stunt with wide eyes. The class became very quiet. The children had never seen me behave like that before. The strange thing was, from then on, the class improved drastically. I did not have much problems with the class since then. I theorized that was a negative reinforcement ripple effect – the other children saw that these bossy girls were screamed at and they wanted to avoid this unpleasant experience. At the same times, perhaps the other children were also glad that the teacher finally did something to 'punish' these class bullies.

According to my own observations, I did not detect any grudges held against me by these 5-year-olds in this particular case. Anne and Sally talked to me voluntarily quite often and sometimes they gave me a quick hug upon entering the classroom. Later on somehow a few children in that class started calling me 'daddy', and soon the rest of the class follow suit. One day in January 2007 I went on a class trip with this Grade 1 class. When I got on the bus, all the children were already seated. Seeing me, Mandy (the ringleader) called out, '*daddy, daddy, sit here with me!*' Somehow we had built a good rapport in spite of the 'screaming' incidence.

In hindsight, I realised that screaming at the children might not be an appropriate response. It could have been counterproductive in that the girls became defensive and resentful, and entered into a power struggle with the teacher. This experience of my own weakness helped me to understand why many teachers would resort to screaming and yelling. In my two cases, it was fortunate that no negative emotional side effects (Laslett and Smith, 2002) as a consequence, and that the results (elimination of

undesirable behaviour) had been long lasting.

September 23, 2006 (Tuesday)
Grade 1B – waited outside for the class to come up. It took them a long time to line up. Some boys at the back of the line were goofing around, hitting each other all the way up. The Chinese teacher was at the very front and the line of 22 children was so long that it was impossible for the teacher to monitor those at the back. The noise was incredible. When they came up the Chinese teacher was shaking her head, saying that they class had been hyper all day. I got their attention and said in an angry voice that I had been waiting for them for 10 minutes, and that they were wasting their class time. I told them to come in and sit down quietly. Seeing that I wasn't pleased, they did what I told them to. Collin and Kalie were at the end, bringing their water bottles with them. Kalie came in first and complied when I asked her to put her water bottle near the door. Collin wanted to have his bottle with him and I said no. I told him that he's not supposed to bring his water bottle in the first place. He answered, 'Well, I wanted to'. I raised my voice and yelled at him and told him to take his bottle back to his class. He was stunt and the whole class was quiet. Kalie also took her bottle back.
This class needs a firm hand and many just took advantage of the teacher's kindness. I told them that at recess time, the Grade 6 children practised their line ups – walking up and down the stairs and they lost their play time. I asked whether they wanted to do the same, and they answered no. The class from this point on went well.
I don't raise my voice often at all. But I find that sometimes it might be necessary and helpful so the children get the point. But yelling didn't work every time. When Joey was in Grade 1, he was another child with uncontrollable behaviour. I yelled at him and that didn't seem to work. It ended up with a power struggle as he talked back willfully.

In my years of teaching, only a few children behaved consistently better after I yelled at them but most did not. People do not like to be yelled at. My few 'effective' cases were perhaps due to the fact that screaming had not been my usual behaviour in class and that children saw me as a caring teacher. As Rogers (2002) says that when a teacher keeps his/her tone and volume of voice pleasant and confident, it will help group calmness and enable student attention. When we need to raise our voice for particular attention, or to communicate our frustration, anger, it will have an appropriate effect. Furthermore, he suggests that occasional screaming at very naughty children will help them stop misbehaving and realise the seriousness of the matter – but this is to be used sparingly otherwise it would lose its effect. Charles (2005) also notes that sometimes the teacher has to put an immediate stop to grossly unacceptable behaviour in the classroom.

March 23, 2007 (Thursday)
With the same programme and methods, I get different receptivity and responses from the kids. Most really enjoyed and paid attention, but some, in spite of what's going on, were scattered. It's too bad I had to come to the last resort – threatening remarks and raised voice. But with all the other 'positive' approaches they just did not respond. Such as 'I like the way Zara is sitting'. Some kids just went on talking and some didn't even hear me calling their names, like Tanaya. I had to raise my voice to get her attention.
Children have different dispositions: some are active and some quiet; some are highly motivated and some passive; some are loud-mouthed and some shy. There are a lot of individual differences. For some classes perhaps some children somehow got into a negative behaviour pattern, which needs to be broken. A 'normal' course of action would not get their attention, only a more 'heavier dosage' of action of cause changes in their behaviour.

Parsons and Brown (2002) note that the use of punishment as a means of changing an individual's behaviour or eliminating an undesirable behaviour is somewhat complicated and, in most cases, ineffective unless it is used in combination with the reinforcement of an appropriate, incompatible behaviour. As Dobson (2006) says that punishment is effective if the teacher has a good relationship with the child, and the child knows that the teacher really does care about him/her, and that punishment is not used out of anger. So the important issue was perhaps that I had built a good rapport with the children, and constantly reassured the children that they were valued and accepted. This is consistent with Dobson's (1978, 1992, 2006) idea that parents and teachers need to discipline children in love.

I found that a teacher's love and care would go a long way even at the time there was no change in the child's behaviour. As Laslett and Smith (2002) note, discipline is inseparable from relationships between teachers and children, and classroom processes – the ways in which learning tasks are prepared, presented and structured. Similarly, Rogers (2000) also writes about the importance of building a relationship, as it seems to precede everything a teacher does. If a teacher has a good rapport with students, discipline would be much easier. Even though I shouted at the children, I probably did something that was 'justified' in the eyes of other children, as many of them might also be sick of those girls' bullying behaviour. Furthermore, basically I was a caring teacher and the children all knew it. I would not publicly humiliate children, as Laslett and Smith (2002) advice. Perhaps sometimes it is helpful for the teacher to express anger constructively. Barker (2003) notes the constructive anger expression helps to ease a difficult situation, particularly if the anger is justified. This is not simply an opportunity for someone to 'vent', it must be approached with the attitude of solving a problem. Both Mills (1976) and Meighan (1978) find that children are surprisingly unanimous in their comments about teachers' behaviour. They do not mind strict teachers, so long as they are not nasty as well. Thus, I theorise that children should be given the message that they are not to take advantage of kind teachers.

Robertson (2002) says that in order to achieve 'crowd control', the teacher must be persistent, unambiguous and insistent, leaving students in no doubt that they mean

what they say and are in control of themselves and the situation. It may be necessary to raise one's voice above the noise to gain attention. Quite often the noise level from the children was so high that I literally had to shout in order to get myself heard. But that would be different from screaming which is definitely not a good way to discipline children, and it must not be one's usual method of controlling children. Shouting is merely raising one's voice, but screaming seems to have a negative emotional (often anger) dimension in addition to the raising of voice. Cummings et al. (1981) affirm that increased exposure to anger by caregivers increase the likelihood of a negative emotion reaction by children. It is most crucial to build a good relationship with children and to discipline them with love. Contrary to what Slee (1995) suggests, I think control in order to guide is necessary in education. Also, in light of what Dobson (2006) says, children often need boundaries in order to learn self-control. Along this line of thought, shouting at children might show teacher assertiveness in a dramatic way, which breaks a dysfunctional pattern. Some children might be spoiled and are used to having their own ways, and perhaps being shouted at would give them a clear message as who the 'boss' is and that it also would create windows of opportunity for the teacher to show his/her care for the student. When a teacher sets and consistently enforces clear behaviour boundary, instead of inducing fear, it would help foster a sense of security in students. This AR process had also helped me to develop as a teacher by being more assertive and consistent in enforcing behaviour guidelines.

4.1.4   Teacher Fatigue and Wellbeing

The literature shows that student misbehavior can lead to teacher dissatisfaction. More specifically, it may lead to stress and burnout (Schottle and Peltier, 1991) and contribute to an inability to care about students (Chemlynski, 1996). In one study, teachers reported student behaviour negatively influenced their teaching (Akiba et al., 2002).

When I first got this teaching job, I was surprised to found it so physically demanding and emotionally draining to teach young children who constantly demand teacher's attention and monitoring. Each day I taught an average of 5 lessons, and each 45 minute-lesson was like a theatrical performance, requiring immense energy. Usually by the last lesson of the day, I would be totally exhausted. In the school year

of 2005, I constantly experienced general tireness from lack of sleep, physical exhaustion, frequent sore throat and colds, feeling of anxiousness and uncertainly, and dread of teaching certain classes. I was in a difficult situation because it is crucial for the teacher to be physically able in order to perform the teaching duty day in and day out. I knew that in order to do my job well, I needed to be in good shape – having enough sleep, a healthy body, as well as a clear and sound mind.

Laslett and Smith (2002) say that enthusiasm should be every teacher's second subject, shown through interest in the subject matter and concern in setting interesting and stimulating work, demonstrated by enjoyment of the company of children and the ability to share a joke. It seemed that when I was healthy, upbeat, enthusiastic, and energetic, the children tended to enjoy the lessons more and behaved better. On the other hand, when I was physically exhausted and downhearted, I tended to be impatient and irritable; I also became more negative and usually the class would be more chaotic and the children more trying.

May 04, 2005 (Mon)   Grade 3A
- *I was very tired. After a long weekend I could not sleep well last night. I stayed awake for a long time.*
- *I didn't do well the whole day as I was very tired and had no energy. When I sat down at my desk I even felt asleep a few times.*
- *I cut down all my 'moving around' activities and just sang with the children. And of course the children were antsy after awhile and started to lose concentration.*
- *After the class my throat was very dried and I felt drained.*
- *The class did not do well either. Kids were talkative and did not concentrate well.*

After most major holidays, I found I usually could not sleep well the night before school started. I always felt anxious and uncertain, and would stay awake for a long time. Naturally the next day I would be very tired from the lack of quality sleep. I did not understand why I was like that even after years of teaching. In sharing my experience with others, I found that my experience was not unique. Many of my colleagues (some with more than 20 years of teaching experience) reported having the same 'nervous and anxious feeling'.

October 22, 2006 (Monday)
Just after the mid term break and it seems that most of the teachers are tired, it's because most teachers couldn't sleep well last night. It's strange that even for the very experienced teachers there's still the anxiousness before school starts

I was not alone in having this anxious feeling before the new start of school after

a break. I did not know why other teachers were anxious, but I theorized that one major contribution to my nervousness was because I needed to arrive at school before 7:30 a.m. My school is situated on top of a hill with about 12 other schools in the immediate vicinity. On any given school day the public buses, which I take in the morning, are jam packed with students. Along with the great number of our students taking private cars, traffic is very heavy on the two-lane street leading to my school. As a 'non-morning' person, I have to get up at 6 in order to avoid getting caught in the traffic jam. For years it had been a constant psychological burden for me to worry about getting to school late.

I thought of ways to overcome this, as it was not healthy to be stressed out every morning even before the first class began. In 2006 I started to change some of my habits as well as my thinking patterns. First of all I tried to go to bed earlier - before 10 p.m. And then getting up at 6 in the morning would give me ample time to get ready. Instead of having breakfast at home, I would delay it until I got to school, which would save time for me. Furthermore, I made a decision that in spite of the cost, I would take a taxi to school when necessary, and not be stressed out by rushing to take the train and then the bus. This way of thinking had alleviated psychological stress, and in the three years of this project, I only had to take the taxi once.

August 28, 2006 (Tuesday)
I got up at 6:00 a.m. and got to school at 7:15. Practically no traffic. Now I have to remember to make it to the NP bus stop at 7 a.m. in order to catch that bus.

In music class I need to talk and sing loud enough for all the children to hear. However, it is harder for a man's low voice to pierce through the children's high voices. Especially when I play the piano or guitar at the same time as accompaniment, I would have to sing even louder. When I first started teaching music in this school, I constantly overused my voice and frequently visited the doctor for my throat problems. In the first three months of the school year (04-05) alone, I visited the doctors almost weekly. I constantly sought ways to improve the situation. In December, I made a costly investment in buying a set of professional wireless microphone system. Ever since I started using the system to enhance the sound volume, my throat condition improved drastically. I no longer needed to strain my voice everyday for several hours. My frequency of visiting the doctors diminished

greatly, from weekly to monthly, and in the whole school year of 06-07 I only visited the doctors three times.

In addition, for the problem of frequent sore throats and colds, I also took the advice of other teachers and started taking health supplements. The voice is very important to teachers, especially music teachers who constantly demonstate 'good' singing to children. It is very straining for me to use my voice in teaching and singing day in and day out. I could not avoid overusing my voice and sore throats and tightness of the throat do happen frequently, thus diminishing the effectiveness of my teaching. I tried to drink a lot of water, and on the first sign of dryness in my throat, I would use the Propolis throatspray, which helped in alleviating throat problems. Whenever I felt a sore throat or cold emerging, I would take daily dosage of Echinacea, vitamin C, and garlic tablets. According to my diary, it had helped at least 6 times in 2006 that my emerging sore throat and colds were suppressed as a result.

January 6, 2006 (Tuesday)
Even though there were only three lessons yesterday, near the end of the last class I was having a slight sore throat and feeling totally exhausted. I took a 2000 mg Echinacea softgel. Then today at lunch time I took another Echinacea foftgel and used the throatspray, and even after 5 classes today I felt fine and my throat wasn't sore.

My own perspective in 'owning problems personally' also impacted me as a teacher. Quite often just a few children were able to disrupt the whole class, making it terrible and I felt that I had accomplished nothing. I would also feel bad and blame myself. I found that this feeling was also common to other teachers. For example, in 2006 we had a very difficult Grade 1 class and one day the veteran Art teacher told me that she felt like a complete failure for not being able to control the children who were absolutely wild in her lesson.

Instead of 'owning' the problem and setting up unrealistic high standard for myself, I learned to change my perspective on things by telling myself that the children were not against me. Children's misbehaviours are quite consistent that many teachers would find the very same children difficult to teach. In addition, instead of focusing on the few disruptive children, I should concentrate on the majority who is in fact co-operative, and eager to listen and learn. Teaching children is a long-term investment and we often do not see immediate results (Rogers, 2002). We shape the children only in a small way, along the long journey of their lives. This

little part, however, could be very important and the fruit might come in five or ten years (Kohn, 1996). These thoughts helped me in my everyday encounter with the children.

November 23, 2006 (Monday)
Positive attitude – Mondays have always been difficult for me because of having six lessons, plus duty, and sometimes also meetings after school. I dreaded Mondays, but lately I try to have a good attitude, thinking that it's a privilege to teach and the job is meaningful and I should treasure this opportunity and it's a blessing to have a job I enjoy. Most of the children are great, only some that are difficult and they are difficult in all other classes, not only in music. Most of the time they are not happy because constantly being scolded by other teachers. I can try to reach out to them and make a difference. This kind of thought really helps me get through the day.

As mentioned, in the last two years of this study I had visited the doctor a lot less frequently. The above changes I made were effective. I felt much better physically and emotionally, and no longer dreaded teaching certain difficult classes. Furthermore, there was another incident that showed my improvement: in the beginning of 2006 my wireless microphone failed to function one day, and it took one month for the microphone to be fixed. At first I was worried that my throat would not survive that month. However, I found that I was doing fine that month and did not suffer from sore throat. Then near the end of that school year the wireless system broke altogether and I did not bother to invest in another system. My overall classroom management must have been improved since I have been teaching without voice amplification for three years without much throat problems.

Thus, being physically and emotionally healthy, with the right perspectives, help immensely in the discipline and mangement of children in class.

4.1.5 Summary of Strategies Used

There are different ways to categorise the discipline strategies: some are long term and some short term; some are core and some occasional strategies. In this study, AR was the core approach. Within this core, a host of different strategies have been employed. This is what it looks like if I rate them on their relative effectiveness on a continuum from 0 to 10, with 0 being ineffective and 10 being most effective:

0   - lights off (ineffective)
1   - counting numbers (mostly ineffective)

- hands up (mostly ineffective)

2   - token economy (no lasting effect)

        - GBG (effectiveness short-lived)

3   - creating rules together (effectiveness short-lived)

        - instructional classroom management (effectiveness short-lived)

4   -

5   - punishment (stop unruly behaviour right away, but no lasting effect)

        - overcorrection (immediate effect but cannot be overused)

6   - teacher behaviour continuum (somewhat effective but inconsistent result)

7   - individual positive reinforcement/ encouragement (took time to build up)

        - individual negative reinforcement (effective but cannot be used too often)

8   - room rearrangement (effective but still limited by the size & set up of the room)

9   - rhythm/vocal echo (effective for most situations, but cannot overuse)

        - relationship building (mostly effective, long term strategy)

        - teacher's perspective & well-being (effective)

10   –

As shown above, some strategies were more effective than others. To start with, a teacher needed to have a positive perspective on students and teaching, and be in shape emotionally and physically. Appropriate room arrangement was also essential. Good relationship with students was essential but took time to build and effects might not be immediate. These were all core and long-term strategies. During music lessons, the most effective strategy for getting the whole group's attention was 'Rhythm/vocal echo', which could be employed all the time. Some strategies produced mixed results included 'Teacher behaviour continuum', 'Individual positive/negative reinforcement', 'overcorrection' and 'punishment' which was essential in certain situations when unruly behaviour had to be stopped right away. 'Creating rules together with students' and 'Instructional classroom management' would continually be employed in the beginning of the future school years even though their effectiveness might be short-lived. They could be the foundation on which other strategies are build on in the future. Strategies that were ineffective include 'Token economy', 'GBG', 'Hands up', 'Counting numbers' and 'Lights off'. However, their employment in the future will not be ruled out, depending on the students and classroom makeup. Effective intervention has to be sensitive to the

immediate, specific context in all its complexities, including individual pupils, the school as a whole, the curriculum and the teacher.

4.2   Reflections & Discussions

Undertaking this project had been an invaluable experience for me and there were many things I learned as a music teacher undertaking AR, through which the management and discipline in my music class improved. Here I can only capture and highlight a few things that I have learned through this process:

4.2.1   No Sure Win Method

Rogers (2002) says that there is no sure-win method in classroom discipline. Human behaviour is a complex matter and quite often, young children's behaviours are not as predictable as we would like them to be. No one perspective of strategies worked unfailingly for all the classes due to individual differences; and no one approach of methods worked unfailingly for the same person. As Vincent (2004) notes, every approach will not work for everyone and there is no one best strategy. Similarly, it has also been suggested that the best approach is a varied approach (Erlandson, 2002; Hand, 2003). This has certainly been the case in this study.

As shown in the last section, I learned to use a variety of methods and strategies in my lessons and could not strictly adhere to any one of the 5 approaches (Psychodynamic-interpersonal model, Behavioural approach, Sociological model, Eclectic-ecological approach, and Human-potential model). As suggested in the systemic approach (Olsen and Cooper, 2001), I needed to use whatever worked. I usually followed a simplified 'course of actions' when misbehaviour by an individual occurred: from planned ignoring, to praising correct behaviour of those around the 'offender', to using physical proximity, eye contact and non-verbal cues (such as shaking my head), to gentle reminder, to verbal correction, to verbal warning, to verbal reprimand, to punishment. If the whole class was chaotic, my sequence would start with rhythm echo and verbal echo in order to divert children's attention, then by praising correct behaviour in the class, then by showing displeasure and giving verbal warning to the whole class, then by stopping the lesson and having children line up outside the music room again for re-entry. This is also consistent with Wolfgang's

(2005) 'Teacher Behaviour Continuum', in which teachers move through three phases along the path from minimum to maximum intervention: the Relationship-Listening Face, Confronting-Contracting Face, and Rules and Consequences Face. The faces incorporate a teacher's silently looking on, non-directive statements, questions, directive statements, modeling, reinforcement, and physical intervention and isolation.

Gartrell (1995) makes a distinction between misbehaviour (intentional wrong behaviour) and mistaken behaviour (mistakes made in the process of learning). For example, singing a wrong note is not misbehaviour. As a teacher, I need to be sensitive so I would not punish mistaken behaviour. However, I found that sometimes mistaken behaviour could change into misbehaviour. For instance, some children behaved inappropriately because of immaturity, such as getting over-excited while singing an action song by running around the room. They did not mean to be disruptive. However, if they still carried on their horsing around in spite of teacher's request, then their mistaken behaviour became misbehaviour - this happened often with young children who insisted on their own agendas.

In my use of the combination of the five different perspectives in classroom discipline, I tended to rely more heavily on some than the others, based on their practicality. Behaviour approach came in handy when dealing with young children because it usually produced more immediate results. Token economy, positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment, good behaviour game and so on were all employed. Depending on the situations, there had been varying degrees of success. For example, rewarding stickers worked for some children but not for those who did not care. Quite often those who worked hard for stickers would behave well even in the absence of stickers. It was difficult to find the appropriate tangible reinforce in my school situation. Punishment also worked for some, but for others, the effects were short-lived. It is not appropriate for the teacher to keep punishing students and keep increasing the severity of the consequence. Kind words and encouragement went a long way for me, as Hopkins and Conrad (1976) note that a child's behaviour does seem to be better and atmosphere brighter where ample praise is used in teaching. Overall, behaviourism provided important techniques for molding children's behaviour in the 'here and now' situation, such as when I needed the class to be quiet or misbehaviours to stop immediately. But as Kohn (1996) says that rules

and consequences alone only attempt to create compliance, they do not teach students to be ethical people – people that have self-control.

The Social approach was rarely employed in music class except for the use Instructional Classroom Management. As a subject teacher, it was very difficult to hold class meetings or to utilise many other strategies within this approach. The psychodynamic approach was useful in that it helped me to go beyond merely shaping a child's behaviour and try to understanding him/her as a person. The systemic approach also offered insight in the employment of multi-approaches.

The Humanistic/Cognitive approach was used mostly in one-to-one situations, when I kept students behind for a conference. Overall I found that the success rate was not high in my situations. When confronted, most, if not all, of the students would give me sensible and rational answers, such as 'I wasn't paying attention', or 'I will not misbehave again'. However, the individual would make the same mistake the next time, and the next time. I found that it was often not the case that children did not know what to do, just that they chose not to do the right thing or they were not able to have self control. Students who could not control themselves might need additional help such as psychological and/or medical support. However, I found that in my context children often had their own agendas. They seemed to know what the appropriate classroom behaviours were when asked but chose not to follow them. When the teacher calmly requested them to comply, they would either ignore it or would comply for the moment and went back to the inappropriate behaviour in the next instance. After a few attempts the teacher might get frustrated and become angry, and raised his/her voice did the students comply. I hypothesise that most teachers started out trying to be kind and understanding, but were taken advantage of by students. Perhaps that was why a lot of teachers become screamers in order to induce obedience in children. In behavioural terms, these teachers might have somehow unknowingly reinforced students' inappropriate behaviour because of inconsistency. It might also be that somehow students chose not to respect these teachers because of their certain behaviour (e.g. lack of teaching skills or lack of care for students); or somehow the student, from his/her perspective, did not like the teacher.

Tauber (2007) describes Dobson as a behaviourist, perhaps because of his

advocacy in the use of punishment. However, in reading Dobson's (1978, 1992, 2006) work more carefully, I find he is not at all a behaviourist. On the contrary, Dobson is in fact quite 'humanistic' by asserting the value of human beings, and by urging parents and teachers to 'love' their children unconditionally. However, Dobson also believes that there is a down side in our human nature and punishment would be useful and necessary in order to correct an erring child.

The many years of teaching and interacting with thousands of children in various continents led me to theorise that Humanism (assuming human is all good) could not be correct. I tend to side with Dobson that humanity has a dark side as well as a good side – the deviating human nature versus human goodness. For example, the many incidences in U.S. school shootings (Kachur, 1999) showed us the 'fallen' side in humankind. In addition, it seems that in spite of all the theories and strategies we have, discipline problems will not go away (Willis, 1996). So one should not have the illusion that school discipline problems will disappear – we can only strive to improve the situation.

Furthermore, I theorize that children require a lot more guidance than a humanist, such as Slee (1995) would suggest. Some form of control is necessary in order to educate (Dobson, 2006). If we left children alone there would be chaos rather than the unfolding goodness and potential, much like what the movie 'The Lord of the Flies' portrays. Children need teachers, not merely facilitators to foster their 'inner' potential. In Dobson's view, children need strong guidance as they do not naturally choose the right paths, for example, with no parental guidance, most would choose to watch TV instead of doing homework.

Due to individual differences, some children would need more guidance and structure than the others. For some classes I needed to be tight and strict, and joking and relaxing with them would only be met with chaos because many children would take advantage of the situations. There was an incidence that showed me if I was too 'loose', even a normally co-operative class could become chaotic. For the first half of the school year (2005-06), Grade 3B was a model class: children were focused and co-operative and I never had to raise my voice in lessons. I became more relax with them and would joke with them more often. After a few such lessons, I found many

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in the class became unruly and inattentive, they would go overboard in their silliness and even screamed out loud.

It also took constant practice for me to maintain good discipline. I might have built up good theories in discipline but that would not guarantee me being able to practice good discipline in class. McManus (1994) writes,

'Returning to school (students with behavioural and learning difficulties), full of ideas, I found I couldn't control my classes. All my skills and expertise had no effect …. Although I had written a book about surviving in such situations, I couldn't survive myself' (p.61).

McManus is honest enough to admit his lack of success in classroom discipline in spite of all the experiences he had and the theories he generated. He had even written a book on the subject. Yet when he returned to the 'real world', he had a hard time coping with the students. By the same token, I need to be knowledgeable and resourceful in discipline strategies, and constantly maintain and improve my craft of discipline, making AR an everyday practice. I theorize that perhaps there is a parallel between improvisation of music and the use of discipline strategies. A seasoned jazz musician always 'makes things up' when playing music. Likewise, if a teacher is well versed in the different discipline strategies, he/she can draw on a strategy that might fit the situation at hand; if it does not work well, another strategy will be attempted right away, much like a jazz musician improvising on the spot.

Since there are no sure win methods when it comes to discipline, it will be helpful for teachers to be well versed with the different approaches. Through the help of AR can one find the best methods to improve his/her own situations.

4.2.2   Physical Environment

As more open arrangements facilitate social exchange (Quinn et al., 2000), the set up of the music room lends itself to student disruption and 'exploration'. Even though physical environment was not the emphasis in this thesis, I found that my use of space and the placement of furniture and musical instruments could facilitate the management of behaviour. In my case it was true in general that, children tended to behave better when the classroom environment was clean, neat, tidy, and organized,

consistent with findings from other researchers (e.g. Walker et al., 1995). Curious children would naturally touch the instruments and things on the bulletin board. They must be organized strategically as to minimize accidents, opportunities for disruptions and chaos.

4.2.3   Genuine Care and Concern – the Value of Relationship

As stated in the Literature Review section, the importance of 'student-teacher' relationship seems to be the only common factor linking all the 5 approaches of discipline together. The literature suggests that it is important to establish good relationship with students, and treat them with respect. I often tried to think from parents' perspective, 'what would I do if they were my own children?' In all possibility I tried to interact with children in a positive way. Instead of telling a student to sit properly, I would say 'I like the way Jennifer is sitting', hoping the other children would also sit up straight.

Kennedy (2007) states that student wellbeing is all about relationships – the child interacting with his/her environment and the sense of self that develops through and is developed by these experiences. Furthermore, it is the child's perspective that really matters (Pianta et al., 1995) – in spite of what a teacher does in building the relationship, the child has to like the teacher and see the relationship as valuable.

In previous sections as well as in Appendix J, numerous examples have been given, showing the voices from students and others (mainly from the final year of study) as a primary source of data, contributing to the triangulation of result and findings. Such positive feedbacks from administrators, parents, and students also gave me great encouragement and helped me to realize that I was 'on the right track'. On the other hand, over the years as a teacher I had not received any negative criticisms from school administration, colleagues, parents, or students.

4.2.4   One Child at a Time & Ripple Effect

Through my teaching years, I found that children often behave differently between when they are alone and when they are in a group situation. During a lesson, it was crucial for me to foster an atmosphere and environment that is conducive to learning.

When one or two children started to misbehave or to mouth off something like 'it's boring', other children would be negatively affected. When one child wanted to go to the toilet, many others would follow suit. This is a 'ripple effect'. Many children were not problematic when I encountered them on a one-to-one basis, but they could behave quite poorly when in a large group. This is consistent with Bandura's (1977) 'Social Learning Theory' which notes that children often imitate other's behaviour. Thus in a large group the peer pressure can either be positive or negative. Nevertheless, it would sometimes be helpful to work with these 'trouble makers' individually in order for them to improve their group behaviour.

Sometimes it was hard to change the whole group of students all at one time. By working on one child at a time, the improvement in a naughty child can sometimes have a positive effect on others. Whenever I noticed some improvement in one of the 'naughty' children, I would do a lot of praising to reinforce that good behaviour, hoping that the child would be pleased with this positive attention. Fil in Grade 1A constantly disrupted the class by exhibiting inappropriate attention seeking behaviour such as singing loudly in a 'duck' voice, doing inappropriate/exaggerated actions while singing, and running around the room during lesson. Since I found that he was actually quite musical and could sing quite well, I would single him out and praise him every time he sang appropriately. I would also thank him after class for behaving appropriately in class. After a couple of weeks there was a noticeable improvement in Fil's classroom behaviour.

Barsade's (2002) experiment showed that there was significant influence of emotional contagion on individual-level attitudes and group processes. Durkheim's formulation of 'anomie' also states that when individuals are not able to tie their behaviour to some clearly defined norms, deviancy and disruption may occur (Morse, 1978). Thus the sociological model of discipline is about creating a classroom environment in which positive peer pressure is employed; and the systemic approach states that problem behaviour as a part of the social setting within which it occurs (Molnar and Lindquist, 1989). This is also consistent with the idea of proactive discipline (Wolfgang, 2001). Therefore, the implication of 'ripple effect' is the importance of creating a positive class atmosphere, which points to the importance of student-teacher relationship.

4.2.5   Teacher Health and Quality

Teaching young children is often physically draining and emotionally stressful. Therefore it is important for a teacher to be physically healthy. This seemed to be the 'pre-requisite' of all the other discipline strategies, long term or short term. Without good health, a teacher could not exert his/her full potential and energy in teaching. When I was tired and feeling unwell, such as having a sore throat or cold, I could not function properly, as I tended to be irritable and short-tempered. Furthermore, I would not have the enthusiasm and energy in conducting the lessons. This would also be true for all teachers. It is important for teachers to be upbeat and alert in order to cope with the demand of a classroom. Thus getting enough rest and exercise would be essential. Furthermore, it is good for a teacher's emotional health to deflect and not to take classroom behaviour problems personally. Keeping a positive perspective can make teaching a lot less stressful.

Children themselves can be very trying and often I felt like I was in a battle with them, my will against theirs. Some children can be so annoying that they get 'under the teacher's skin', making a teacher very difficult to focus on the more likeable side of these children (Salzberger-Wittenberg et al., 1999). However, I found it was very important to build a good rapport with children, including those who always misbehave, for the benefit of both the teacher and the students. In Yoon's (2002) study, negative teacher-student relationships were predicted by teacher stress. Significant correlations were found among negative affect, teacher stress and negative relationships. Yoon also claims that increasing teachers' awareness of their stress and helping teachers identify its effects on their relationships with target students are important areas to be addressed.

Rogers (2002) says that teaching is not for everyone. It is a profession that is naturally, inherently, even normatively, stressful. Its daily demands are multi-task and simultaneously require one to not only have planned well on the one hand, but also to be flexible and able to think on one's feet. In my experience, I found that being flexible is very important in my role as a music teacher. There had been a lot of unexpected circumstances and environmental variables, which happened regularly.

For example, quite a few times the Chinese teachers did not show up for Chinese music lessons due to various reasons and without prior notification; or sometimes the children's mood and ability to focus were hampered by factors such as the weather (rain, heat, or cold) or what happened prior to music class. In such cases if I insisted in teaching what I had planned instead of adjusting my lessons accordingly, the children would not respond well and my lesson would likely be met with failure. I also found that the ability to be flexible, much like the ability to improvise for a musician, require the teacher to have a good fund of knowledge, wealth of experience, and good judgement, which can be products of practicing AR.

May 7, 2007 (Wednesday)
- *flexibility – when I came in at 7:15 this morning, I found a big piece of false ceiling had fallen, soaked and broken, right in the middle of the room. Apparently there was a serious water leak, soaking the piece and when it became too heavy it came crushing down. Fortunately there's no one in the room. It was apparent that the leak continued because part of the carpet is still wet, and the dimension of the water mark is about 3'x1.5'.*
- *How could I teach in such a condition? Children had to sit on the carpeted floor and it's wet? I quickly went to the empty room next door. I would not be able to use my own computer for lyrics so I wheeled in an old overhead projector and set up a portable Korg keyboard. Very quickly I sketched an alternative plan for today by changing most of the songs I planned to use. This room is way too small for any movement so I took out a few books of rhymes, which I read and sing to the kids. I told the classes what happened in the music room and asked them to help make learning fun even though we were in a very small room. Most kids were actually very good and made an effort to adapt.*

Besides flexibility, quite often the most important aspects in my dealing with children were not my teaching skills, but my patience, consistency, and care. Consistency was a difficult lesson for me: there had been times when I failed to deliver certain kind of consequences I said I would when the children misbehaved, either by negligence or by avoiding the confrontation because of my exhaustion. There were also times that I screamed at the children out of anger, not controlling my own emotions. Schutz and Zembylas (2009) say that unpleasant classroom emotions have considerable implications for student learning, school climate, and quality of education in general. I also struggled with the competing viewpoints about the authority of the teacher: on the one hand, to be kind and loving; and on the other, to be firm and not to be taken advantage of by bullies. Often there were no easy answers in helping children as teachers needed to practice 'tough love' (Dobson, 2004). These incidences reminded me of my need for constant improvement. Action Reseaerch helps me to reflect and to steadily overcome my own shortcomings.

The longer I taught younger children, the more I found that it was crucial for the teacher to be a role model for the children. Bandura (1977, 1986) says that children learn through a process of observing and imitating others. Teachers serving as daily models for children in their classrooms should consider the behaviours they may be exhibiting and the impact these modeled behaviours may have on their students. David (1999) suggests that the primary teacher has immense influence on students, his/her integrity and characters become a living model for students. Salzberger-Wittenberg et al. (1999) also agree that the teacher plays a crucial role in the mental and emotional life of students. Stronge (2002) suggests that while instructional and management processes are the key to effectiveness, many interview and survey responses about effective teaching emphasise the teacher's affective characteristics, or social and emotional behaviours, more than pedagogical practice. However, many schools today place place too much emphasis on curriculum and teaching skills and neglect the importance of teacher characters. Perhaps institutions need more attention in cultivating teachers as caring and loving educators.

Finally, Banner and Cannon (1997) also argue that teaching is an art, which most of us forget. Trained in the sciences and techniques of education, professional teachers have given far too much attention to techniques they use. Instead, the focus should be on qualities, both natural and cultivated, of those who teach. Those people cannot be separated from what they do, and the human factor in teaching is infinitely variable and beyond the reach of scientific inquiry. They further say that

> '*The basic elements of teaching are qualities that come to inhere in us… Rarely can they be taught – they are ingredients of our own humanity, to which contents and methods are adjunct… The ingredients of teaching are learning, authority, ethics, order, imagination, compassion, patience, character, and pleasure*' (p.3 & 17).

4.3   Conclusion

After three years of doing Action Research in the area of classroom management, a great amount of anecdotal notes, forms, and records were generated. From these data, four problem themes were chosen and their AR cycles were shown. Due to the limited scope of the paper, only one or two examples were cited for illustration. I

found that screaming and yelling were undesirable ways of classroom discipline as there were many other ways I could use to achieve positive results. The most crucial findings for me were the use of rhythm/vocal echo, positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement, and the importance of teacher well being (being enthusiastic and on top of things). These methods and techniques helped me to manage the whole class at crucial times. Working with limitations in the classroom, it was easy for me to resort to crowd control and yell at students out of frustration. It was important for me to stay positive and healthy, physically and emotionally. Other important long-term strategies include building relationships and working with one child at a time – for the group is made up of individuals. As a teacher, I need to be knowledgeable, resourceful, and yet flexible in my discipline approaches, as the literature suggests that there is no single best approach in the subject of student discipline. I found that the student management methods I developed from doing AR also matched my personal philosophy and orientation – to be loving and yet firm in guiding the children, which is consistent with Dobson's (2006) view of human nature.

5   Conclusion and Implications

5.1   Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to develop the best teaching practice possible in music for young children, focusing on classroom management and discipline, through AR and teacher self-reflection. Teaching children can be a frustrating experience as the dilemmas of teaching are well-documented (Berlak and Berlak, 1981; Galton, 1989). I found it challenging to teach music to young children, as they often have their own agendas. The literature offered numerous invaluable insights and suggestions regarding effective classroom management. However, possessing sound knowledge in classroom management is very different from being able to apply the theories successfully in everyday classroom situations. Besides, it is by no means easy to apply general suggestions to my specific context. The teaching environment for me as a subject teacher was more varied and diversified compare to a homeroom teacher, hence there needed to be different ways and strategies for meeting the needs of the students (Moyle, 1992).

In my twenty years of teaching experience, I have met numerous teachers who gain control by shouting and using threats. It could be that shouting intimidates people, and most often the quickest way to quiet down some unruly students. It could also be that there are so few prescriptions in education – something is right for someone some of the time, and the difficulty is getting the classroom formula 'right' most of the time. As Rogers (2002) says it is easy for teachers to lose their initial enthusiasm and goodwill after a few years of teaching. However, it is my goal that students can be motivated, harmonious, and happy in music class. It is also essential that the teacher is enthusiastic and has good rapport with students; that the learning environment is positive and encouraging; and that words spoken in the classroom are for building up, and not putting down an individual (Rogers, 2002). Thus, the key research question in this project was 'How can classroom management and discipline be improved so that learning of music can be optimized?'

The amount of literature in both Classroom Management and AR is enormous. In reviewing the literature in classroom management, Hyman et al.'s (1982) category of five models was adopted in order to present the various discipline approaches:

Psychodynamic- interpersonal Model; Behavioural Approach; Sociological Model; Eclectic-ecological Approach; and Human-potential Model. Major examples in each approach were given.

It was argued that most of these approaches could not be applied directly, as each classroom situation is somewhat unique. Many are too general to be relevant to a particular situation. Some are more relevant for dealing with one child at a time instead of a class as a whole. Besides, it could be confusing for teachers to know which strategies to choose from as some have apparent contradicting underlying philosophies. Therefore, even with the plethora of research literature, I would still need to find answers for improvement in the area of discipline in my specific classroom context. The conclusion was to employ AR, the most appropriate way to answer my research question.

For three academic years I engaged in AR. The cycles involved collecting data through forms, diaries, anecdotal notes, audio recording and videotaping; devising plans to improve certain situations; evaluating the outcomes; and devising further plans when the original ones were of limited success. With the limited scope of this paper, four problem themes were chosen with their AR cycles presented, illustrated with one or two examples. I found that screaming and shouting, which hurt student-teacher relationship, were undesirable ways of classroom discipline. There were many other ways I could use to achieve positive results. The most crucial findings were the use of rhythm/vocal echo, positive/negative reinforcement, and the importance of teacher well being (physically and emotionally fit, enthusiastic, positive, and encouraging). These helped me to manage the whole class at crucial times. Other important long-term strategies included relationship building and working with one child at a time. I found that the student management methods I developed from doing AR also matched my personal philosophy and orientation – to be loving and yet firm in guiding the children. Several 'effective' strategies stated in the literature were not effective in my situations, such as token economy, GBG, instructional classroom management, reality therapy, and so on. The process of AR also helped me to face challenging situations with positive hopes instead of pessimistically dreading difficulties and to continually grow and improve as a teacher.

5.2   Limitation of This Research

I am aware of the fact that all research studies have limitations. Given the scarcity of resources and previous studies available to support research of this kind, the following are some of the limitations and criticisms that others might have on this project:

a. Subjectivity

As Hopkins (2002) implies that classroom research in interpretative approach is best understood by people who are participating in it, I realised that teacher perception alone was not enough. I also needed to take into account the students' perspectives. We did not fully understand the thoughts of children who were five and six. As complex human beings, there were also individual differences in young children's perspectives. Since students' perspectives were limited as most interpretations of data stem from personal reflections, there might well be a degree of subjectivity in interpreting the data.

b. Generalisability

Many would question the generalisability of findings from AR. However, perhaps no educational researches, be they positivist or interpretivist, are totally generalisable. All social researches are in some ways context specific. Teachers are encouraged to use research findings critically and apply theories with care in their own specific situations (Hopkins, 2002; Kincheloe, 2003).

The findings from this project were not meant to be generalized to a population, as in other Qualitative researches. It is to capture the range of things and to develop theories that explore the concept in classroom management and discipline in my specific context. Even though other music educators might find commonalities and similarities in the teaching experiences and wish to adapt my findings in their own situations.

c. Drawing a 'critical community'

As a lone researcher, it was essential to share my thoughts and findings with a group of critical friends – administrators and colleagues who could help by giving constructive criticisms and/or affirmations in order to move my thinking forward

(Lomax, 2002). In doing so, the objectiveness of my research would increase. Because of circumstances, the number of such critical friends had been small, only 18 in total throughout the course of the three years.

In this project, I had both Chinese and Western colleagues as critical friends. Culturally, my Chinese colleagues might be too polite to be critical (Dimmock, 2002). Also, be they Chinese or Western, I cannot rule out the possibility of not getting true reflective feedback from my colleagues.

As reflected in their comments, most of the feedback from my critical friends had been somewhat 'polite' and superficial. They were for the most part, very positive and very few criticisms and suggestions regarding my lessons. Most thought I was already doing a great job and minor problems were due to the children's own difficulties and inattention. Only three out of 18 offered useful and practical suggestions. For my future projects, this is an issue that needs great attention.

d. Fear of exposing weakness

Related to the point above, it is important for the researcher to be comfortable with the culture of action research (Lomax, 2002). Drawing a critical community means exposing the more vulnerable sides of my practice. Sometimes I was not totally as ease teaching in the presence of other colleagues, especially when some of these critical friends were my superiors who might interpret my hesitation about the best way forward as lack of ability as a teacher. I might also have been uptight and not act my true self in the presence of others. In the future, hopefully the frequent visits of my critical friends over time will help both parties to relax and to be our true selves.

e. Conforming to rigidity

Hopkins (2002) cautions that in doing AR, teachers should not get trapped into the tight specification of process steps and cycles, thus inhibiting independent action. Semantically, Hopkins (2002) also shows concern that there is a tendency for teachers to overuse words such as 'problem' and 'improve', giving the impression that action research is a deficit model of professional development. I might have fallen in that trap by not remembering that there need not be a problem exist for someone to do action research; as a tool, action research adds a self-conscious discipline to good reflective professional practice (Lomax, 2002).

Echoing Hopkins' (2002) other concern, I also need to stay flexible in doing future AR and not be trapped in the rigidity of the proposed AR cycle and timeline. After all, AR is a tool for better teaching, not an end in itself.

f. More systematic record of video files

I realised that in this project, the recording of media files (videotaping, audio recording, pictures) were more or less random and the frequency of taking these recordings were not high. Videotaping, for instance, should have been done more frequently, with at least 4 videos for each class per term. That means each class would have a total of 12 sample videotapes taken at regular intervals throughout the school year. The same should have been done for audio recording and picture taking as well, even though videotapes would be most important because they capture the lesson in motion and include both sound and picture. More media files would perhaps add to the trustworthyness and objectivity of the study, especially when these files are viewed and interpreted by others, such as critical friends.

5.3   Implications for Teachers

There Will Always be Discipline Problems

Be it human nature or environmental factors, children will misbehave and there will always be discipline problems in the classroom. As Vincent (2004) says that discipline is a task that will be a part of teacher's daily work life. Teachers can only seek to prevent and minimize behaviour problems but should not have the illusion that misbehaviour can be eliminated totally.   While putting forth our best teaching strategies, we also need to anticipate problems and plan for probably solutions. Each teacher needs to well verse in the various discipline models and approaches, to explore and find a style that suits him/her, and constant developing professionally in new situations with new ways.

Children Need Proper Guidance, Love, and Acceptance

As children have the tendency to deviate and push the limits, teachers must set guidelines for students and enforce limits (Dobson, 2006). It is important to note that punishment must be employed out of goodwill and the love of children, in the context

of a good relationship. Controlling by screaming at children is undesirable and must be kept to a minimum. While minor behaviour problems can be ignored or de-emphasized, willful rebelliousness and intentional misbehaviour such as put downs or bullying must be dealt with right away while seeking to understand the underlying causes and help troubled students.

Teachers need to build up students, not only on academic skills, but also as responsible and contributing citizens of society. As Rogers (2002) says that good citizenship is developed through love and acceptance, and not through coercion or threats.

Teacher's Quest

A teacher is a living model for students (David, 1999). His/her integrity, affective characteristics, or social and emotional behaviours, are as important (if not more important) than instructional and pedagogical practice (Stronge, 2002). However, in reality, teaching is an occupation that involves considerable emotional labour (Schutz and Zembylas, 2009). Ingersoll (2003) estimates that nearly 50% of U.S. teachers entering the profession leave within the first 5 years. Those who stay on are often feeling tired, burned out, and stretched in all directions (Boreen and Niday, 2003). Many veteran teachers who have been in the profession for a long time are susceptible to being stagnant in professional growth and desensitized to the initial love of children and teaching. Many are tired and beat, teaching became monotonous. Many thought they have 'seen it all' and lost the patience, enthusiasm, and joy in teaching youngsters. Screaming and shouting at children became an easier way to control in the classroom (Rogers, 2002). However, all teachers, young and old, need constant and continuous development and growth. It is important to reflect on what we do and why we do it, in order to reignite the love for the children and passion for our work.

Action Research – For All Teachers

Action Research is about seeking on-going improvement to on-going problems. What I had done in this project was to consciously articulate what I did as good practice in discipline, and all teachers can do the same for their own professional growth. I stand as a witness that through AR, my teaching had improved and I had

been constantly growing both personally and professionally.

Since there are no definite rules telling teachers when to do what (Vincent, 2004), it is important for teachers to develop good judgment. All the theories are suggestions and may be situational, and cannot be applied across the board. For example, when faced with student misbehaviour, sometimes the teacher should use planned ignoring while other times the teacher needs to take action right away to avoid the escalation of problem. A teacher's sound judgment is important in situations as such. It will help teachers to develop a varied approach (Elrandson, 2002; Hand, 2003).

All teachers should be encouraged to practice AR (Ponte et al., 2004). While most, if not all, teachers already do that naturally in their daily teaching, the process of AR would best be formalized. As Cooper and McIntyre (1996) note that the professional craft knowledge of teachers is particularly valued as an enormously rich source of practical wisdom, only that teachers themselves have generally not articulated it clearly enough to examine it critically. Furthermore, ideas from teachers' craft knowledge need to be examined carefully in terms of their clarity, coherence, generalizability and implicit values and assumptions, and be supplemented, reinforced and challenged by ideas for practice from a variety of other sources, such as pupils, research, and theories.

Ponte et al. (2004) also note that programmes using AR seem to have the best chance of success when there is commitment, continuity and communication in the education team. Action Research by teachers would contribute greatly to their personal professional growth and such professional knowledge (in written form) would contribute greatly to the school community at large. Articles by teachers can be published in school websites, educational magazines, or even academic journals. As Conway (2000) says that '*if we want teachers to care about research and to be curious about their own teaching practice, then we must educate them in pre-service and in-service programmes to realize that research in the classroom is possible and gratifying*' (p.29).

5.4   Implication for Future Research

I am conscious of the fact that this work is in the very early stages, many areas need to be explored further and in greater depth. The issue of student discipline will be on going in schools and in particular, classroom management in special subject areas such as P.E., music, and art, is in need of more research and attention, by educators in various contexts.   Ripple effect and modeling of behaviour in the classroom are also interesting and practical subjects for further exploration. For example, the relationship between one child's misbehaviour and the reaction of the class can be looked at in greater depth.   Furthermore, there needs to be more practical research done in the area of music education.   Regelski (1994) notes that '*most research done in music education fails to have any impact simply because the problems selected are not seen as problems by those who presumably would benefit from their solution*' (p.79).   Leglar and Collay (2002) even argue that university researchers have a near-monopoly on research activities and the questions they ask are not the same as those that interest K-12 practitioners.   Therefore, as Conway and Jeffers (2004) note, teachers should be encouraged to explore the AR or teacher research model and to submit results from such collaborations to local and national conferences and journals for dissemination.   This is the key to theory and practice connection.

5.5   Contribution of Thesis

Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that in qualitative research, the important question is '*How can an inquirer persuade his/her audiences that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to*?' (p.290)   The results from this thesis, I believe, is definitely worth paying attention to.   In spite of the fact that this study is context-specific, the outcome of this thesis has made a positive contribution and difference to the research community, to the educational community, to the school community, to myself as a teacher, and most important of all, to the students whom I taught.

The topic of this study is original and one of its kind.   No one has ever explored discipline issues in Lower Primary music class through the use of AR before.   The results, though context-specific, can spark interests in further studies and investigation

in areas such as classroom management and discipline, pedagogy, early childhood education, music education, psychology of music, action research, rhythm/vocal echo techniques and so on. Furthermore, a number of original ideas were developed and tables were constructed, such as the 'Common Frameworks of Discipline' (Table 1) and 'Types of Relationships in the Five Discipline Approaches' (Table 2) in which the original concept of 'Relational Numbers' was conceived. These contribute new knowledge to the research community and can be useful for other researchers as references or 'stepping stones' to the development of other concepts. More specifically, the following has benefitted and added knowledge to the community of educators:

1. I have further developed and extensively embellished the use of Rhythm/vocal echo technique which captures and sustains children's attention. For me this has been a major answer to my research question, and an invaluable technique for getting the attention of a large group of children and maintaining their focus. This is an original endeavour. By repeating teacher's vocal chants in a rhythmic way, children develop a sense of beat and rhythm, at the same time, internalize the message the teacher brings. The technique is particular useful in a music room setting, especially for young children; and can definitely be a worthwhile tool for further research and development.

2. In regards to the use of different strategies and models at different times, the study demonstrated the importance of the blending of the models, be they Behaviourist or Humanist. In my context the employment of the discipline models was not an 'either-or' situation. For example, I found that individual positive and negative reinforcement were appropriate when dealing with young children who are more concrete in their development. The Behaviourist techniques were often useful for guiding young children in developing appropriate behaviour for effective learning in the music room, as they give more immediate results when dealing with the children as a large group. However, my underlying motive was humanistic in that each child is valued as unique individual and the strategies used were meant to be ways to guide them to their full potential as human beings. It brought me to tentatively conclude and suggest that human behaviour is complicated and can perhaps be viewed from different perspectives, and each model/perspective might represent a 'part-truth' but not the

'whole-truth'. Through the use of AR, the teacher can explore the best method to fit a particular situation. Therefore, this study further demonstrated the effective use of AR for teachers' professional development and professional growth. As stated in the literature, AR increases teachers' effectiveness and enhances continual teachers' enthusiasm in teaching (Chhen and Manion, 1989; Hopkins, 2002). From my experience I would strongly agree with Hopkins (2002) that no educational theory is useful unless it can be effectively implimented by practitioners.

3. This study prompted me to suggest that as educators, we need to rethink the role of 'teacher-student' relationship in the classroom. All of the five discipline approaches, as diverse and opposing as their underlying philosophies can be, advocate the importance of building 'teacher-student' relationship.

Four of the approaches emphasise on meeting children's social/emotional needs. As the Psychodynamic-interpersonal model acknowledges the complex nature of human relationship, building trust and communication in the adult-child relationships will take time. However, it is essential in order to meet the child's need of connectedness (Dreikurs, 1968). The Sociological model advocates that students' emotional needs be met (Elias et al. (1977). The Eclectic-ecological approach states that problem behaviour is a product of social interaction (Cooper and Upton, 1991); and the Human-potential model stresses the empowerment of students to make good choice. In other words, a student needs to be emotionally and socially well adjusted or balanced . Building a good teacher-student relationship can thus seen as meeting students' basic need of love, acceptance, and human connection. Perhaps the role of teachers, especially teachers of young children, is more than just imparting academic knowledge; and beyond the use of programmes, methodologies, and techniques. As Dobson (1992) stresses that behind a teacher's discipline there is love and compassion. Even so, as Shulman and Mesa-Bains (1993) notes that the significance of teacher-student rapport has largely been neglected.   Even today, the situation is not much different as it was 20 years ago even though our practices have become more humanistic (Rosiek and Atkinson, 2007).

If this be the case, there would be the need in teacher education, at both the school and university level, to rethink and refocus on strengthtening character

training and building rapport with students. In addition, more academic research would be necessary in all facets of this important area, for example, on the kinds of relationship that are necessary to enhance student learning.

4. As a practitioner, I gained a deeper understanding of my own discipline (music education) and pedagogical strategies, and thus improved my teaching practice. I have become a much better teacher in the process - from a novice to a competent music educator of young children. The research question, 'How can classroom management and disciplne be improved so that learning of music can be optimized in the Lower Primary classroom?' has also been answered. The answers are by no means 'model answers for all teachers, they are not even standard answers for all of my own classroom management issues, but by and large I have learned how to cope with discipline issues such as excessive noise, interruptions during teaching, excitability, not focusing, not listening, or not following directions. Even when none of my strategies worked, I learned to persist in doing AR, and the stress from discipline issues had been minimized and I no longer dreaded when facing an unruly class. This was a personal breakthrough and in turn greatly benefited the students and the school.

Through this study I have come to model a 'caring attitude' for students and alternative ways of classroom management without forging the appearance of being tough and angry, thus reduce the use of yelling and shouting. I learned that it is important for educators to 'go the extra mile' instead of just 'doing the job'. The attitude and motivation of a teacher are of utmost importance, as Banner and Cannon (1997) say that the personal qualities successful teachers possess and the ways they enhance learning and understanding have received very little attention, and it is time for educators to reflect on this moral aspect of teaching.

In this study I came to realise the importance of teachers having 'hands on' skills, and not enough in just possessing impressive theoretical knowledge/concepts, as witnessed by McManus (1994). It might imply that school administrators and consultants need to have on-going classroom experience in order to give relevant and meaningful advice to teachers. It might also indicate that the decision of implementing certain curriculum or programmes in teaching should be bottom up

instead of top down. If administrators initiate the use of certain programmes, it would be essential to have field tests by teachers in their classroom context, and the continual use of the such programmes should be subject to teacher's collective approval and decision.

Finally, I have learned the importance for educators to work out something creatively and maximize their effectiveness in spite of the restriction of the environment. We sometimes complain about our work situation because of the lack of resource or time or manpower.   In life, however, we seldom have perfect circumstances and have everything matching our own expectations and needs. For example, in my own class situation, children's learning and classroom discipline would immediately improve if there was a teaching assistant (T.A.) in the room. But in reality the school had no budget to hire a T.A. in spite of my continual request through the years. Through AR, however, the classroom situation had drastically improved even without an aid. From this experience I concluded that positive attitude and hard work can change difficulties and crisis into opportunities for growth.

5.6   Final Thoughts

It is important for teachers to form a warm and supportive relationship with young children. At the same time, teachers need to be firm sometimes when guiding and teaching, knowing that children are inclined to take advantage of teachers' kindness. Slee's (1995) idea of discipline being educational and not controlling, in my view, is not helpful to the development of the child as a whole person. Children need to learn to take responsibilities of their own actions.   Boundaries and consequences help youth to behave in a framework that promotes social harmony and stability.   In the classroom, proper control can help children to focus and achieve educational goals.

My thesis is very specific, and the findings and conclusions are by no means scientific truths to be applied in all classroom situations. The suggestions should not be considered ultimate answers to any discipline situations, not even my own in a different situation. However, as Walker (1998) notes, when these suggestions are applied under actual teaching conditions, they can greatly assist music educators in

developing the basic expertise that can enable them to be effective forces in the musical lives of young people. As Erwin (2004) says, each teacher is the expert in his/her grade level and subject, and will know which strategies will work best for the students. Too many variables are involved in all cases of misbehaviour to enable a single mandate to be offered as the best solution. Readers are encouraged to find the best solution to a particular problem as they perceive it.

Finally, the importance of teacher self-reflection cannot be overemphasized. It is worth quoting Romano (2004) again in closing, as he says:

"Closer examination of the 'bumpy moments' in my teaching helped me to systematically look at the events over time and offered a retrospective view of how I could handle things differently or make changes to my teaching. Because such moments are usually lost in the continuous activity of teaching, I cannot be sure that I would have been able to gain these insights had I not engaged in this form of Action Research." (p.664)

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Appendices

Appendix A   Reality Therapy (The Ten Step Approach) (McIntyre, 2003)

a.	Select a 'problematic' student and list his/her disruptive incidences.
b.	List interventions and make appropriate adjustments to suggest workable strategies.
c.	Plan to help the student start the day on a positive note (e.g. personal compliment).
d.	When student exhibits problem behaviour, ask, 'What are you doing?' Thinking about a behaviour helps the student to recognize its existence, own it, and prepare to stop it. When student gives an answer that states the actual behaviour, the teacher then say 'Please stop it'. Do not accept excuses and keep pressuring for the 'right' answer.
e.	If after steps (c) and (d), the problem behaviour continues, have a conference with the student. Ask a series of questions: 'What are you doing?' 'Is it against the rules?' 'What should you be doing?' An accurate description of classroom rules helps the student to reflect and realize his/her display of inappropriate behaviour.
f.	If step (e) fails, repeat (e) again and substitute last question with: 'We have to work this out. What kind of a plan can you make to follow the rules?' Come up with a positive action plan and the student must tell you what he/she will do in a similar situation.
g.	If student disrupts again, employ in class time out. The student may rejoin the class after having devised a plan for following rules, informed you of the plan, and made a commitment to follow it. Remove student from room if he/she disrupts the class during in class time out.
h.	If step (g) does not work, in-school suspension is implemented.
i.	If student is completely out of control, parents are asked to take him/her home for the rest of the day.
j.	If step (i) is continually ineffective, the student must stay home or receive alternate placement that is better able to meet his/her needs.

Appendix B   Six Types of LSCI (Long et al., 2001)

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1. Red Flag Intervention
- Used when a child introduces a conflict from home, or shows a delayed response to some previous situation within the setting.
- Power struggles are typical;
- The child over-reacts to a small event and employs displacement as defense mechanism.

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2. Reality Rub-In Intervention
- Used when a child reacts in an extreme manner because of his/her unique and unrealistic perspective of a situation;
- The adult shows empathy and helps the child to perceive reality accurately;
- Denial and avoidance are defense mechanisms that the child may employ.

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3. Symptom Estrangement Intervention
- Used with agreesive/abusive youngsters who rationalize this behaviour by blaming their victims for 'starting it';
- The adult may disarm the child through flattery, and then benignly confront the child with the reality of the crisis event and present sanctions for behaviour;
- The goal is to socialize a child who does not conform to conventional norms of social behaviour.

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4. The Massaging Numb Values Intervention
- Used with well-intended children who experience acute feelings of guilt and remorse due to impulsive or "unthinking" behaviour;
- These anxious and depressed children may be scapegoats, inviting punishment from peers or adults;
- Build children's self-esteem by emphasizing their positive qualities, and to bolster their capability for self-control in stressful situations.

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5. New Tools Intervention
- For children who lack social skills to develop or maintain good relationships with others;
- Children shun by peers because of their awkward and frequently inappropriate attempts to find favour;
- The adult sees those abortive attempts for what they are, and addresses them in an understanding manner.

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6. Manipulation of Body Boundaries Intervention.
- Used when one child is manipulating another for personal gain, or perhaps for 'sport'. A child may fall prey to an exploitative peer if his self-esteem is poor, doing 'whatever it takes' to gain favor;
- Seeks to cut the manipulator's strings and helps the hapless victim to engage in better decision-making;
- Focus on either the puppeteer, the puppet, or both.

Circle of Courage
- a strength-based approach, based on Native American ideals, capitalizes upon the resiliency characteristic of the young.
- The 4 united ideals include belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity, as represented by 4 colours of the circle, representing 4 races.
- Response Abilities Pathway (RAP) curriculum - helps youth connect to others for support, to clarify challenging problems, and to restore harmony and respect.

Developmental Audit
- An assessment tool that identifies the skills, strengths and abilities ED/BD youth possess, enabling adults to maximize the effectiveness of their efforts.
- grounded in resilience science, neuroscience, & ecological research on positive youth development.
- focuses on Adler's private logic and goals of a young person in conflict.

Re-Education (Re-ED)
- An ecological model of treatment by Nicholas Hobbs.
- Holistic, strength-based, emphasizing children's assets and the importance of their family relationship and social structure, and concerned with both physical & mental health.

Restorative Justice (Balanced and Restorative Justice)
- applies to youngsters who have significantly wronged others through their maladaptive criminal behaviours.
- offenders are encouraged to recognize and acknowledge the human dimensions of the offensive behaviour, and 'right' their wrongs against others to the furthest extent possible.

Peer Mediation
- similar to Restorative Justice.
- may not involve an authority and is usually applied to conflict situations with no legal consequences.

FAST Track
- a critical component is Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHs), a social curriculum termed a 'model programme' by the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence at the University of Colorado.
- holistic, includes home visits, recognizes the complexity of behaviour change while supporting children in their developmental, psychological, and socio-economic struggles.- Parents are trained in behaviour management while children receive social skills training, tutoring in reading, and 'friendship enhancement' activities.
- Affective, Behavioral, Cognitive and Dynamic (ABCD) techniques are embedded within the K-6 curriculum, emphasizing on the affective or emotional aspects of problem-solving. Lessons are delivered 3x/week, and benefit all children.

Building Effective Strategies for Teaching (BEST)
- a whole-school approach that the State of Vermont has taken towards ED/BD students.
- built upon 3 major components: safe places, challenging experiences and caring people.
- fosters school climates that are secure and based upon mutual respect and dignity.

Outdoor Education
- uses the environment & team-building to develop confidence, self-esteem, relationship & personal values of troubled youngsters.

Expressive Therapies
- enable ED/BD youngsters to express symbolically feelings and perceptions they may have difficulty expressing verbally. Such expression may help the therapist to better understand a child - or to facilitate dialogue around a significant issue.
- *Art Therapy* - use of artistic media (crayons, paint etc.) to express thoughts & emotions.
- *Music Therapy* - clinical & evidence-based use of music interventions to accomplish

individualized goals within a therapeutic relationship by a professional. Beneficiaries include youngsters with mental health needs, developmental and learning disabilities, substance abuse problems, and brain injuries.

- *Dance (Movement) Therapy* - therapeutic use of movement to improve physical & psychological wellbeing. Mind and body are inter-connected with respect to mental health. It enhances self-awareness, self-confidence and interpersonal growth.
- *Drama Therapy* - use of drama and/or theater to achieve therapeutic outcomes. It provides an opportunity for participants to express emotions while re-enacting events in their lives.
- *Play Therapy* - a child's natural means of expression – play – is used to assist him/her in coping with emotional stress or trauma (Kaduson & Schaefer, 2006). It is most effective with distraught children who have an understanding level of a 'normal' 3-8 year old. By playing with specially selected materials, under the guidance of a person who reacts in a designated manner, the child plays out his/her feelings, bringing hidden emotions to the surface where the child can face and cope with them.
- *Bibliotherapy*, used since 1930's, involves the use of reading materials/stories to help youngsters cope with traumatic events and changes in their lives (Pardeck, 1995). Teachers/ counselors select a book with the thought it may help a youngster better understand or grapple with a difficult situation.

Counseling & Psychotherapy
- *Collaborative Problem Solving (CPS)* - cognitively-based model of individual therapy developed by Greene (2005), contains affective and behavioural dimensions. 'Children do well if they can' is the underlying assumption and guiding principle. CPS involves determination of the cognitive deficits a child possesses using the Pathways Inventory, then collaborative problem-solving so both parties may satisfy their own concerns. Cognitive deficits are remediated indirectly through the process of collaboration.
- *Reality Therapy & Choice Theory* - in Psychotherapeutic Approach, also contain elements of psychoeducation.
- *Resolution Focused Therapy (Residential Treatment Model)* (RFT) - short-termed, psychodynamic approach to treating individuals in residential placement developed by Alternate Family Care, Florida. RFT helps the child to make an emotional connection between current behaviour and events from the past.
- *Discipline with Dignity* fosters development of a school climate of mutual respect and student dignity in all situations. Student discipline is viewed as an integral aspect of classroom life, not as something that is imposed upon, or separated from, classroom activity (Curwin and Mendler,1999).

Classroom Conferencing (McIntyre, 2003)
- Individual reasoning with the student regarding his/her inappropriate actions.
- procedural guidelines provide structure to the counseling situation, allowing individuals to adapt according to their style, and foster student ownership of his/her behaviour.

Non-Directive Counseling
- Rogers (1961) – the troubled individual can talk about problems, resolve difficulties with minimum direction from the counselor, because everyone has the motivation and ability to change in order to become a better, more 'self-actualized' person.
- The teacher-counselor, accepting, non-punitive, acts as a sounding board, by observing, listening, and deliberately responding according to certain guidelines while the student explores and analyses the problem and devises a personal solution.

Appendix D   Level of Reinforcement (Raschke, 1981)

level	description	examples
1	Challenging oneself for self-evaluation purposes	self-evaluation, identifying ways to improve, personal performance on a graph and self goal-setting
2	Deciding how one will learn the material	class discussion, library research
3	The work products affect the look of the classroom	display learned material on bulletin board
4	Student decides upon the working conditions	dim lighting, background music
5	Response Topography – student decides how knowledge/ability be displayed	recording answers on CD, writing work on board
6	Social Approval – working for the recognition and approval of others	displaying work on bulletin board
7	Special privileges – effort earns preferred duties	being line leader, classroom monitor
8	Contingent activities – do the activity you dislike to earn one you enjoy (The Premack principle)	playing a favourite game, special trip
9	Tangible Rewards – physical, non-edible items	stickers, badges, certificates
10	Edible Rewards – primary reinforcers	chocolate bars, candies

Appendix E   Lower Primary Music Evaluation Form

Class: Date: (   )   Time:

1. overall tone/atmosphere of the class:
    - relaxed   - chaotic
    - harmonized   - bored
    - happy   - tension
    - fun   - tired
     -                        -
     -                        -
     -                        -

2. the children who received warnings:
  (1: verbal warning   2: name on board   3: action)

name	1	2	3	comments

3. Teacher's rating & comments: (description)

Appendix F   Lower Primary Music Evaluation Form Sample

Class: *2C*   Date: *Jan 20, 2004 (Wed)*   Time: *12:40 – 1:25 p.m.*

1. overall tone/atmosphere of the class:
   (underline the appropriate words, or add descriptive words when necessary)
       - relaxed   - <u>chaotic</u>
       - harmonized   - bored
       - <u>happy</u>   - tension
       - fun   - tired
         -                        -
         -                        -

2. the children who received warnings:
     (1: verbal warning   2: name on board   3: action)

name	1	2	3	comments
James	x	x		being silly, testing limits
Anna	x	x		hyper, not focused
Anthony	x			out of seat
Jonathan	x	x		drew on board, no permission
Sandy	x			screamed

3. Teacher's rating & comments: (description)
       - somewhat difficult class, kids were hyper but not too bad
       - rather chaotic during games, but kids were happy
       - lots of laughter
       - overall 6/10
       - for next class, try breaking instructions down to smaller steps

August 28, 2006 (Tuesday)
- first official day of school – lessons started
- I got up at 6:20 a.m. and got to school at 7:15. Practically no traffic. Now I have to remember to make it to the NP bus stop at 7 a.m. in order to catch that bus.
- the G.1 children have half days this week in order to ease into the school year and they don't start their music lessons till next week
- apart from the whole Primary assembly in the morning, I only have three lessons of Year 2 classes
- for all the G.2 classes I asked children to come out and draw an eye, ear, mouth, hand, and foot, one item at a time and explained what they remind us of
- G.2D Chinese Music before lunch went well, with a Chinese teacher helping, the children actually behaved quiet well
- G.2A Western Music went ok. Children were a bit more restless as they came from lunch recess, hot and sweaty. Most were ok, a bit more excited about expressing their ideas. Rod stood out as lacking self-control, but still manageable.
- G.2C Western Music, children came from PE. Again a little restless and hot. This class has the most children who need frequent reminders to behave – Joey, Vic, Florence, Kevin, John, Henry etc. Others such as Peony and Monica can be loud and noisy, though they are not misbehaving maliciously. And of course Joey would top them all. Even this first class he was pushing his limits, not following directions, not listening well to teacher. But then I didn't want to go extra hard on him thus creating a negative image for him and start the misbehaving pattern. Today he did listen after a few reminders. Mrs. Graham, the homeroom teacher came towards the end of the class. Joey glanced at her and then tended to behave a little better. He knew who he could push. Gotta be tighter with him.
- Even though there were only three lessons today. Near the end of the last class I was having a slight sore throat and feeling totally exhausted. I took a 2000 mg Echinacea softgel. I was tired and felt frustrated that 2C was quite 'out of control' on the whole.

August 29, 2006 (Wednesday)
- this morning I was a bit late and waited for the bus for quite awhile, 15 minutes. But because local schools haven't started yet, the traffic was still good.
- G.2B after recess was a bit restless. A few kids talked out in spite of the fact that the Chinese teacher was here. I need to be tighter with the class. Asked Anthony and Tasha to stay behind and reminded them about the mouth. The other kids to watch out for are Alex, Tom, Eve, Zach, and Kalvin (new). Throughout the class I did move kids around and tried to deal with problems right away. That means when I notice someone talking, I correct them right away and don't let things escalate.
- 2D was probably the best G.2 class so far. They were more quiet and sensible apart from Will blurting out at times. I was able to joke more with them and even put on the funny nose glasses.
- Three G.3 classes in the afternoon went ok, as I at first thought would be difficult, teaching the same things three times in a row.

August 30, 2006 (Thursday)
- At 8:30 this morning there was a G.1 assembly in the lower library, just to go over the rules and introduce the teachers. I led them sing a couple of songs – Spider Man and Skinnermarink. Then afterwards I sat beside Lev who was very restless. I had to straighten him up a few times.
- G.2A after recess was ok but not remarkable. Some came in noisily like Nat & Chris. I had to send them out again and re-enter. Rod was non-complying. When everyone was standing up he sat down, playing the 'I won't listen to you' game. During Chinese song he wasn't paying attention to the Chinese teacher and wasn't singing. Jaime wasn't attentive either and barely singing. The class atmosphere was a little dragging, not much excitement and students seemed not very motivated.

September 6, 2006 (Thursday)
- quite tired today. Didn't sleep well last night after going to the bathroom in the middle of the night. Then the phone rang and didn't know who that was.
- Got to school in good time.
- G.1C was much better today with Chinese teacher present. They were late and I had to go down to class to get them. The class was 10 minutes short, but that might be as well. At first a bit restless

but then it was ok. Most people forgot their spots so had to read the names again. Fortunately it went smoothly with the help of the Chinese teacher. Then we had the 'game' for recognising the spots while singing "Two Tigers". Andy always just stood there when we were supposed to walk around the circle singing. I stood beside him and reminded and pushed him a few times and he became much better. Will was again mouthing out constantly but was controllable. He really stood out as someone who is willfully noncompliance. While I was introducing the instruments, Lucio talked out and I said perhaps we should skip Luca because he's not listening. That fixed the problem.

October 22, 2006 (Monday)
- just after the mid term break and it seems that most of the teachers are tired, it's because most teachers couldn't sleep well last night. It's strange that even for the very experienced teachers there's still the anxiousness before school starts
- Example of Quick Action – Sequence of instructions : G.3D, one of the better classes – the failure of multi-instructions – the students were to receive a recorder evaluation sheet and a Christmas song booklet and a pencil which they use to write their names on both. My estimation was wrong, even for this class, many children were not able to handle following three instructions at the same time. Many sheets were loose, many booklets have no names. I should do one thing at a time – pass out the first sheet, tell the kids they will write their names on the sheet, and pass out the pencils. Then tell the kids they will receive a song book let on which they will write their names, and then pass out the booklets. After everyone has written their names, they I ask them to put the sheet in the booklet. Then assign group monitors to collect the booklets.
- Quite tired at the end of the day. So glad that I don't have a meeting to go to.

October 23, 2006 (Tuesday)
- G.1C – pockets of moments on the verge of getting chaos – when I said something that caused a reaction. Then I calmly sang a name in certain rhythm. Soon the kids caught on and repeated after me. It was fun and kids thought it was a game. I sang the name and made up silly rhyming words, such as Daniel, Paniel, Janiel, etc. And then I move to another name and do it a few times. This cuaght the children's attention.
- Less tiring today. Slept ok last night.

January 8, 2007 (Tuesday)
- another year, another term
- so far the G.2s seem to be better than the G.3s and the G.1s in terms of behaviour and co-operativeness
- G.2C – Joey has matured and improved in behaviour. Today he sat for a lengthy time and participated in singing. He even volunteered to sing solo. At one time when we were looking at he screen, he was sitting in the very front, he climbed up to a chair. I casually called his name and shook my head, indicating that he should get down, and then looked away. It worked. He came down right away, without making a fuss. I did it right by doing it casually and as if it was just a small matter. I didn't give him the attention, I just expected him to do it.
  When G.2C children were singing John kanuckanucka, I was playing the piano and feeling satisfaction – all were singing and playing appropriately and were having fun. They rotated properly.
- G.1C and 1B were somewhat noisy today but I did not shout. I just clapped and did things to divert and capture their attention. I would sing a name in rhythm. One time someone said 'it's not fair'. I casually chanted "it's not fair" a few times and then I told the story of "not only it's fair, it's final"
- 1B – Lev did not stand out today – it was Mike and Adgar. They thought it was fun to disrupt and be funny.

- fast moving pace – a lesson need to move fast, with energy and momentum
- know what you're doing – the teacher has to be familiar with the material and know the songs very well in order to keep the lesson going. No fumbling around the pages and no hesitation, otherwise you will lose the children. I need to keep up my skill level in playing instruments and keep music reading to a minimum. When I demonstrate a song, I need to sing, and play, and attend to the children all at the same time.
- many short activities in a lesson – if an activity is too long the children will get bored
- materials & equipment well prepared – overhead projector, screen, computer, CD player, MD

player, etc. Everything has to be in good condition and working.
- Anticipate problems – in children who need special attention and plan how to deal with them; also in equipment and know what to do if something doesn't work
- Be flexible and creative – in spite of planning, something bound to happen unexpectedly. Children throw up, urinate on carpet, break the shakers and beads go all over the place, get upset and cry, unexpected fire drill, etc. etc. Never a dull moment. Be a problem solver, flexible, and creative. Always ready to make up plan B or plan C right on the spot. Regular reflective practice and experience will help a great deal.
- Have a sense of humour
- Don't take problems personally – it's mentally unhealthy if you take things personally. Children are children. Or someone says boys will be boys. It's just their nature when they act up.
- Be fit and have good physical health – make sure you have enough sleep. It's hard to teach when you're tired and cranky. The children will suffer as a result.
- Be a good time manager – effective time management is essential for a busy teacher. Work hard and at the same time, work smart. Do things right away and don't procrastinate. Keep a to do list or log. Check off items you've done. Use a calendar planner to plan and meet the dead lines. E.g. from nic.
- Divert attention – instead of raising my voice and tell the kids to quiet down, start a clapping pattern, clapping/stomping, rhyming echos etc.

February 12, 2007 (Tuesday)
- yesterday was the first day back from the Chinese New Year Holiday. The weather was very cold, the kids were more 'subdued', every time after the holidays they're like that
- I was a lot more patient after the break than before the break, when there were lots of rainy days and kids were very hyper and antsy, perhaps because of 'pre-holiday' syndrome

April 25, 2007 (Monday)
- G.2C – corrected behaviour right away. Also did a reflection at the end of the class, with Chinese teacher present. Give them the score and ask how they could do better. Next time also should give the positives – like Abel played the drums perfectly
- Unusual behaviour in the school – a few weeks ago the kindergarten music teacher was away and I wasn't sure if the teachers knew about it. So first thing in the morning I went down and told their head teacher about it. She said, wow, that's really unusual behaviour in this school because somebody actually cared! That's a compliment for me!
- Go the extra mile – after recess duty a school jacket was left in the play area. I picked it up and found it was Yvonne's so I went to look for her cubbyhole outside his classroom. Tim, the art teacher, walked past and commented, 'Oh, you're good!'
- Prevention of Cold & Sore throat – 2 weeks ago Monday I really didn't feel well, with a sore throat coming and a slight cold. So a few days in a row I took Echinacea and Garlic tablets and also used throat spray frequently. It really helped and I was getting better. Another time that I had prevented a sickness
- Positive attitude – Mondays have always been difficult for me because of having six lessons, plus duty, and sometimes also meetings after school. I dreaded Mondays, but lately I try to have a good attitude, thinking that it's a privilege to teach, I can be salt and light, and the job is meaningful and I should treasure this opportunity and it's a blessing to have a job I enjoy. It really helps me get through the day.

Dear Parents,

Greetings! My name is Edwin Tanner. I am your child's music teacher. At the start of the school year, I would like to take this opportunity to introduce myself, and tell you a little bit about the music programme.

This is my eleventh year teaching at OUS. As a music educator and also a musician/singer/ songwriter, I obtained my BMus and BEd from the University of London, and MA from the University of Tasmania. Currently I am also a doctoral candidate at the University of Leicester, specialising in Leadership & Learning. Previously I have taught various subjects in the USA, including Primary and Secondary Vocal & instrumental music.

The Music Programme at OUS for the Early Primary years is built upon the Kodaly philosophy that embraces a child-centred approach to teaching music by which the curriculum is designed in a logical, developmental and sequential manner, and is age-appropriate. Singing is the basis of our curriculum, on top of which, instruments, tuned and untuned, are utilised to enrich the children's musical experience. The music programme involves a lot of hands-on activities where children are involved in music making, listening and performing all the time.

Currently I am writing my doctoral thesis and my research is on maximizing music learning of each child through the best practice in classroom discipline and management. Since it is based on events happening in the classroom, regular videotaping will be done for the sole purpose of teacher reflection and evaluation (i.e. no public viewing). Anonymity will be ensured in my report all children's names will be fictitious in my report.

Please kindly fill in the consent form below and return to the Primary office by Friday, September 12. I look forward to sharing a lot of musical fun with your children and you. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions regarding the music programme or your child's music growth. Thank you

Sincerely,

Edwin Tanner
Music Teacher

GRADE 1 – 3 Music – Parental Consent Form

We understand that the music classes will be videotaped for teacher's professional reflection, evaluation, and will not be viewed by the other parties. The identity of my child will remain anonymous.

_____   _____
        Name of child   class

_____   _____
        parent's signature   date

Appendix I   Sample Class notes (Kindergarten A morning class)

Nov 03	7.0	1st time in music room, walked quite nicely, in line Class not bad, several people tried to talk at once Reinforce turn taking Good that I stopped the class when someone yelled while singing Donny – not singing, not participating John – inattentive Ronald – pretended to be a tiger, bothered Jasper Warned, not working, relocated
Nov 17	7.5	Quite good, marked improvement from before Ronald started to sing – Christmas songs Donny – not singing, but not disrupting the class
Nov 24	6.5	Needed some work Walking up the stairs wasn't remarkable Donny started to sing some more
Dec 01	7.0	Class getting much better even tho still need work Edward – improper walking when in line Donny – started to sing a bit & do a bit of actions Ronald – not playing jingle bells
Jan 05, 04	7.5	not bad after the holidays Kids seemed to be more 'sedated' Donny even attempted to sing Ronald – also attempted to sing

Jan 26	7.5	cold, cold day, no air con on
		All the girls & Ronald came in & sat in circle as told
		  Rest of boys went to look at new pictures hanging
		  Had to herd them to sit
		Most girls sang well
		Ronald participated, great improvement
		Donny didn't sing much but hedidn't bother others
		On a whole attentive when singing from nursery rhyme books
		Edward 2x – improper line up & jumped stairs
		  sent to back of line and walked again

Feb 02	7.0	Ronald/ Donny – sang/ participated some more
		  Much better behave in class
		John/ Edward – squirming & talking out
		Rosie – not focused
		Howard – rhythm stick – too forceful, poor coordination
		  Poor fine motor skills

Feb 23	6.0	Many kids looked tired – Monday morning All girls sang & participated, along w John Edward – attention seeking & trying, inappropriate behavioiur not participating, laid on floor Sean – cooperative & attentive – need more participation Donny – not causing trouble but not singing much At least I see a smiling face at times, not sullen Alice – seemed unpopular with other girls Ronald – absent Howard – inattentive, moving around, uncoop during game Moved him out of circle
Mar 08	7.5	the class is more settled & focused, even Donny, Edward Stepping on beat – Edward, Colleen – good Ronald, Adam – talked inappropriately The whole group was focused during "Lil Bunny Foo Foo"

Appendix J   Samples of Written Positive Feedbacks

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1)   From Colleagues (Emails):
- I loved your lesson! You are very talented. I was tapping away to the beat all through the lesson! *(Department head: 21/11/05)*
- It was great fun in your classes! I think what you do is amazing. *(Visiting music educator: 07/02/06)*
- I stand in humility having GREAT colleagues like you. All your wonderful loving kindness to me, to others and to the many children are great attest of you as a true professional. You're truly inspirational and I want to thank you for being who you are. *(Administrator: 26/02/07)*

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2)   From parents (Emails & Notes):
- Sasha loves your classes! Thank you! *(01/09/04)*
- Annie is so thrilled with the lunch time choir. She said she wished it was everyday!!! Thank you for inspiring her to sing! Samantha wishes she still had you for her teacher … *(29/09/05)*
- I just want to thank you for letting me sit in and observe your class, which I thoroughly enjoyed. You're a great and inspirational teacher! *(16/10/05)*
- Thank you for a most enjoyable semester of Choir! George really looks forward to your choir and it is obvious from today's performance that the children all sang from their hearts and were filled with enthusiasm! *(16/03/05)*
- Thank you so much for teaching Helen and Henry over the last two years. I'm indeed very grateful for the time you spent in their lessons. You certainly enlightened them and they told me that they had a wonderful time during your lessons. *(21/06/05)*
- Wendy has had such a happy year in 3D . . . you make music so much fun and so special for the children. Thank you! *(18/06/06)*
- Just a little note to say a BIG thank you for being such a great inspiring music teacher! Patricia loves your lessons and your songs. On Feb. 7th my youngest brother got married in Italy and of course, people asked her about school…Your name was mentioned a lot, so I thought YOU are the person who should know how much we all appreciate you. *(10/03/07)*

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3)   From current students (Notes, pictures, & cards):
- I wish I could stay with you forever!   (*Kath, 7*)
- Thank you for teaching us music. We learnt a lot of recorder from you.   (*Bic, 8*)
- I love your music and I will always remember you! I love this year because of you – I hope my teacher next year is the same as you.   (Kellett, 8)
- You are so kind like an angel, you are the beast music teacher Ive ever seen. (*Eve, 7*)
- Thank very much for teaching me a lot of music! I like all the songs you teached me. You were a great music teacher. *Timmy (7)*
- Thank you for teaching me this year. You're the best music teacher ever.   (*Nick, 6*)
- You are my favorite music teacher. I think you are the best teacher in the whole wide world. (*Michelle, 8*)

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4)   From Grade 2 students (reflection sheets):
- I like singing with mr taner.
- I like mr taner.
- I love Mr tanner.
- I love wut mr taner dus for us.
- I like Mr. Tanner.
- I lik the waye mr tannr plas the peeanow.

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5)   From ex-students (notes):
- I really miss this classroom! I love the setting too.   (*Elen, 10*)
- I miss u so much! You r the best! *(Ingrid, 10)*
- We came to visit u but u wer not here! I miss this classroom so much! I miss u! *(Sophie, 10)*

Appendix K   Sample of Video File

In attached DVD