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ABSTRACT

Aggressiveness and violence in schools are concerns that educators have to address. Using a random method of sampling, this study focused on six secondary schools located in the Chicago Public Schools System. Each school's administrator was interviewed, and two teachers at the school were also interviewed by a person trained in the Urban Teacher Selection Interview. Clusters of comparable traits were identified, and a statistical comparison was made, with teachers scoring well on the Urban Teacher Selection Interview. This study articulates common characteristics of gentle teachers (de-escalators) who provide students with classroom environments which promote non-threatening, accepting, risk-taking communities. Twelve teachers are described as de-escalators or escalators by their school administrators. Gentle teacher characteristics are identified through the use of Q-sorts, t-tests, discriminant analysis, and the Urban Teacher Selection Interview. A high correlation is found between outstanding teachers in the interview and characteristics that administrators find common to teachers who de-escalate violence and aggression. Five appendixes present statistical results, the administrator interview form, and the teacher interview form. (Contains 45 references.) (Author/SM)

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ATTRIBUTES THAT PREDICT TEACHERS' DE-ESCALATION OF
AGGRESSION AND VIOLENCE IN THE CLASSROOM

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE
SCHOOL IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM, INSTRUCTION, AND EDUCATIONAL
PSYCHOLOGY

BY

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ABSTRACT

Aggressiveness and violence in schools are concerns that educators have to address. Teachers understand and recent research in brain functioning confirms that learning is not only hampered but impossible in settings where students do not feel safe and secure enough to take educational risks.

Using a random method of sampling, the study focused on six secondary schools located in the Chicago Public Schools System. Each school's administrator was interviewed and two teachers at the school were also interviewed by a person trained in the Urban Teacher Selection Interview. Clusters of comparable traits were identified and a statistical comparison was made with teachers scoring well on the Urban Teacher Selection Interview.

This study articulates common characteristics of Gentle Teachers (de-escalators) that provide students with classroom environments that promote non-threatening, accepting, risk-taking communities. Twelve teachers are described as de-escalators or escalators by their school administrators. Gentle Teacher characteristics are identified through the use of Q-sorts, t-tests, discriminant analysis, and the Urban Teacher Selection Interview. A high correlation is found between outstanding teachers in the interview and characteristics that administrators find common to teachers who de-escalate violence and aggression.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The 90's has been a decade that continues a spiral of increasing violence in and around schools. It often seems that aggressiveness and violence run rampant in schools throughout the country (Wilson-Brewer, Cohen, O'Donnell, Goodman, 1991) (Will, 1993) (Elders, 1994) (Dill and Haberman, 1995) (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Whether this is partially true or mostly true is deeply troubling. The problem has even surfaced as a National Educational Goal, "By the year 2000, every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning." These calls are part of a national political agenda that often translates into ever more repressive measures that only serves to intensify the problem. Even though the Council on Crimes in America presses for more prisons, longer sentences without parole, and treating juveniles as adults, statistically violence and aggressive behavior in and around schools has today not been affected in any appreciable way (Schanker and Sugai, 1995) (Ayers, 1997).

The National Crime Victimization Survey reports that 2.7 million violent crimes take place every year at or near schools (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1995). Crimes, especially in urban schools with increased poverty populations, although staying about the same in numbers, have become more lethal (Schanker and Sugai, 1995). In

Chicago over a four-month period during 1996, there were 2262 violent offenses committed on school property. These offenses, mirroring other populations, include homicide, robbery, assault and battery, sex crimes, and other violent acts stemming from the use, possession, or sale of illegal substances (Report from the School Patrol Unit, 1996). Elders' 1994 study also found that 71% of students polled in her study had a personal knowledge of bullying, physical attack, or robbery at their school. In addition, between 1989 and 1993, gang presence in schools had increased from 15% to 35%. She concluded that a gang's presence in schools is strongly associated with increased student reports of victimization and fear (Elders, 1994).

The pervasiveness of intimidation, aggression, and fear in our society has been well documented. It is even more pervasive and pernicious in urban schools that serve children in poverty. Bill Ayers pointedly refers to the doubling of homicide rates for youths, the doubling of homicides committed with guns, and the doubling of arrests of nonwhite juveniles on drug charges (Ayers, 1997). Martin Haberman (1995) projects that, by the year 2,000, 50% of all urban school children will be from diverse cultural backgrounds living in poverty with little hope if current rates of crime in schools escalate or even stay the same.

For children and youth in poverty from diverse cultural backgrounds who attend urban schools, having effective teachers is a matter of life and death. These children have no life options for achieving decent lives other than by experiencing success in school. For them, the stakes involved in school are extremely high (p. 1).

For learning to occur at all, teachers must build classroom environments that promote safe havens for students in urban schools where violence or threats of violence

are often the cultural norm. We recognize instinctively the truth of this statement and much has been written to support this assertion.

Abraham Maslow, in his seminal work (*Personality and Motivation*, 1970), developed a need theory which states that individuals must satisfy basic physiological and safety needs before having the ability or motivation to move to higher level needs. For Maslow, the need for safety is part of a “hierarchy of human values [that]. . . . are not only wanted and desired by all human beings, but also needed in the sense that they are necessary to avoid illness and psycho-pathology” (p. xiii).

Furthermore, the basic physiological and safety needs must be met before learning or the motivation to learn can take place.

If we remember that the cognitive capacities (perceptual, intellectual, learning) are a set of adjustive tools, which have among other functions that of satisfying our basic needs, then it is clear that any danger to them, any deprivation or blocking of their free use must also be indirectly threatening to the basic needs themselves (p. 47).

Teachers must be responsible for developing settings that allow students to achieve at higher levels than those that are primarily functional. A child who is “insecure, basically thwarted, or threatened in his needs for safety, love, belongingness, and self-esteem is the child who will show more selfishness, hatred, aggression, and destructiveness” (Maslow, p. 121-122).

Other recent research has consistently described a phenomenon that occurs to individuals faced with violence or threats of violence (Tomlinson, 1998). Persons in these environments are unable to physiologically attend to situations where learning should take place. If a teacher is unable to bring calm to their students’ surroundings,

this phenomenon occurs that actually prevents learning from taking place. Much research on brain functions helps explain this phenomenon. It is, first, important to briefly outline the triune brain's major components that include (MacLean, 1978): (1) the R-complex or the reptilian system located in the brain stem that controls automatic and ritualistic behaviors; (2) the limbic system that responds to survival issues by "fight or flight"; and the (3) neocortex that houses our creativity, use of language, and meaningful learning. In observing this model, researchers have shown important correlations between brain activity and learning. Of particular importance to this paper is the phenomenon that Leslie Hart identified in 1983 as "downshifting," a process whereby the brains of threatened individuals downshift to the reptilian or limbic areas. Downshifting has a variety of effects on the individual: subtle distinctions between external and internal cues are lost, increasing inabilities in participating in complex intellectual processes, and decreases in brain growth (Caine and Caine, 1991).

The most important problem [for a child] that must be avoided is downshifting from the neo cortex down to the limbic system. Downshifting can lead to a self-feeding negative spiral. Brain growth is curtailed during this time as long and short term memory (which entails the development of dendrites) are shut off. . . . Since the educational system seems to be responsible for the development of the brains of humans, avoiding downshifting in students should be very important to teachers, parents, and administrators . . . students cannot create dendrites (learn) when they are experiencing anxiety or anger. Since anger breeds anger and anxiety, teachers and parents should be careful to control their negative emotions if they expect children to learn (Beamish, 1995, p. 27).

In other words, students who feel threatened, anxious, or anger from parents, peers, and teachers find it not only difficult, but impossible to learn.

Is there a better way to describe today's urban public school? Not only are students often involved in situations that are risky and can produce anxiety and fear in and out of the classroom but

In the conventional classroom, threats to the student stand ever present through the basic setting of captivity; the powers of the instructor to punish, demean, embarrass, reject, or cause loss of status, and the "fishbowl" effect of being forced to perform in constant danger of ridicule or public failure (Dill and Haberman, 1995, p. 70).

In situations such as these when students feel threatened "full use of the great new cerebral brain is suspended, and faster-acting simpler brain resources take larger roles." Hart concludes that "Virtually all academic and vocational learning heavily involves the neocortex, it becomes plain that the absence of threat is utterly essential to effective instruction" (Hart, p. 108). In light of the increase in aggression and violence in schools and the near impossibility of learning in these environments, it is imperative that teachers "create a school experience in which students succeed and relate to one another in ways not determined by the threat of force and coercion" (Haberman, 1991, p. 132). These teachers must model for students gentle responses to aggression where

. . . students grasp the vision of a new way of behaving by (1) experiencing teacher patterns of communicating that are gentle; (2) observing how "gentle" teachers respond to threats, verbal abuse, given stimuli, or typical environmental violence, and (3) seeing what teachers value (Dill and Haberman, 1995, p. 70).

Teachers know intuitively that children who feel safe and secure in their classrooms take educational risks in order to succeed and, as they are called upon to become evermore responsible for student achievement, teachers know that an important defining element to that success is a teacher who has the ability to de-escalate aggression

and violence in the classroom. “For genuinely effective urban teachers, discipline and control are primarily a consequence of their teaching not a prerequisite condition of learning” (Haberman, 1991, p. 294). Gentle Teaching (GT), not coercion and intimidation, is essential for a child’s success in school. A school and a society that tolerate intimidation and aggression in urban schools exacerbate an already horrific situation.

The problems created from an increase in violence in schools and recent research on how the brain learns inform this study. If GT can defuse violence in schools, then the opportunities for student learning to occur might be greatly enhanced. The study articulates common characteristics of gentle teachers who provide students with classroom settings which promote nonthreatening, accepting, risk-taking communities. It also describes an instrument for identifying teachers who possess these desirable qualities. The theoretical basis for this study includes recent research already cited on how the brain/mind learns and characteristics of effective urban teachers. Martin Haberman, in his research on effective urban teaching, has described these characteristics as the beliefs, thoughts, and performances exhibited by “Star Teachers.” In his work, Haberman found that effective (Star) urban educators possessed seven functions that were inextricably linked to a belief system they held strongly where “Each of these functions represents a cluster of teacher behaviors and the ideology stars hold as a rationale for engaging in these behaviors” (Haberman, 1995, p. 21).

Haberman represents Persistence as the first notable effective urban teacher behavior or function. This is a belief that

. . . it is the [teachers'] responsibility to find ways of engaging their students in learning. . . . Whatever the reason for children's behavior - whether poverty, personality, a handicapping condition, a dysfunctional home, or an abusive environment - classroom teachers are responsible for managing children, seeing that they work together for long periods, and ensuring that they learn (Haberman, 1995, p. 22).

These teachers view their jobs as continually attacking problems that prevent their students from learning. For Star teachers, teaching is a problem solving process that they participate in continuously.

The second function described by Haberman is Protecting Learners and Learning. Characteristically, Star teachers are not tied to the text but to what engages students. There is a personal connection to the lesson. They have a deep understanding and passion for learning and act as models for their students. In urban settings, these teachers usually use projects rather than usual text driven direct instruction. Their commitment to children's learning often brings them into conflict with other staff members or administrators. Stars believe the primary responsibility of the teacher is "to patiently, courteously, and professionally persist and negotiate with the principal" or anyone else that might prevent their children from continuing with their learning (Haberman, 1995, p. 39).

The third function Star teachers exhibit is the ability to Put Ideas into Practice. In Appendix A, this function is referred to as Generalizing. These teachers are consistently expanding their classroom repertoire and actively looking for materials and techniques that will engage their students.

Some teachers are able to act; they can conceive of numerous specific things to do. They can keep children active and busy. Others are able to conceptualize and

verbalize about teaching; they can see purposes and implications. . . . Stars can do both (Haberman, 1995, p. 41).

The fourth function that Star teachers exhibit is an Unwillingness to Blame the Victim which, in Appendix A, is referred to as Victimization. These teachers are well aware that children in poverty situations often are faced with tremendous obstacles but believe passionately that what a child learns is the teacher's responsibility. They do not blame the academic deficiencies of the millions of children labeled "at risk" on family, society, or their peers but see schools with "irrelevant curriculum and authoritarian and boring instruction exacerbating the problems that children bring to school" (Haberman, 1995, p. 52). Stars focus on what they are able to do with their children in their classrooms.

The fifth function of Star teachers is their Professional-Personal Orientation to Students. In Appendix A, this function is referred to as Orientation. This function deals with the needs of some teachers to have children dependent on them for approval or some other emotional need. These teachers often see themselves as surrogate parents or in some messianic role. "Star teachers seek to create learners who will be independent and not need them" (Haberman, 1995, p. 60). They are positive about their relationships with their students but see that relationship as providing a motivation for students valuing learning as intrinsically rewarding and a lifelong pursuit.

The sixth function that Star teachers exhibit is an Understanding of and an Ability to Work with Large Urban School Bureaucracies which, in Appendix A, is titled Reality Based. Large urban bureaucracies often act in ways that do not benefit students or

teachers but, rather, the bureaucrats. Star teachers recognize that they will be constantly stressed by the demands of the bureaucracy and provide themselves with coping mechanisms that often include networking with like-minded teachers who act as a support group. Star teachers also provide students real classroom experiences that are relevant to their lives. To do this, these teachers often have to meet irrelevant bureaucratic requirements necessary for these experiences to happen. Star teachers know well how to use the system for the benefit of their students.

The seventh function of Star teachers is the Ability to Admit to Serious Mistakes.

In Appendix A, this function is referred to as Fallibility.

Individuals who cannot admit, recognize, or abide mistakes in themselves are not likely to be tolerant of others' mistakes. An individual who believes he or she has somehow done something wrong, or is a lesser person for having made a mistake, is likely to feel this way about others. Teaching is the worst possible job for such a person! Children not only make mistakes all day, every day, but many of their errors are serious ones involving human relations and matters of friendship and trust. It is the nature of life in the classroom for mistakes to be a recurrent and typical condition (Haberman, 1995, p. 69).

In typical urban schools, children do not willingly respond in class and, when they do, are often ridiculed by their classmates. Students take pride in not learning and, therefore, do not risk making any mistakes. "These street values can only be changed by teachers who actively teach children that we all learn by making mistakes. Indeed, there can be no learning without mistakes" (Haberman, 1995, p. 71).

In addition to these seven functions of Star teachers, Haberman has listed two other functions common to Star teachers. These functions, according to Haberman, are not assessable in an interview situation because they deal with a teacher involved in the

act of teaching in a classroom with the day-to-day experiences all urban teachers face.

The first additional function of a Star teacher is Emotional and Physical Stamina. Stars are able to withstand the frustrations inherent in urban education and still derive great joy and satisfaction from teaching. In Haberman's words "they act as if they can teach anything they care about - and they care about a great deal" (Haberman, 1995, p. 73).

Finally, Star teachers have Organizational Ability. They take children where they are and move them to where they need to be. This is accomplished most often through projects that are cross-cultural, inter-disciplinary, and global . They do not follow a curriculum or text in a lock step fashion, but rather determine what students need and then provide the appropriate resources that meet their individual needs. To do this, These teachers need a high level of organizational skill in managing time, materials, and student groupings. In addition, Star teachers are on the learner's side because they do not perceive themselves as judgmental raters. Their goal of learner independence leads them to use coaching as their basic means of teaching, and coaches do not merely serve as sources of knowledge. They show how, they interest, they involve, and they seek ways to connect subjects with the children's background and experiences (Haberman, 1995, p. 86).

These characteristics of effective urban teachers serve as the basis for this study that intends to identify common characteristics held by teachers who are perceived as "Gentle" in their school communities. That is, teachers who have the ability to decelerate violence and aggression in their classrooms. The Urban Teacher Selection Interview instrument is used to determine if, in identifying potentially effective urban teachers, it is also identifying Gentle Teachers. This researcher's expectation is that it will identify

effective urban teachers who are also Gentle Teachers because we assume that to be effective, urban teachers must be “gentle” teachers. I expect that these teachers so identified must

see their jobs as helping to create safe havens where, for a good part of every day, the madness of violence will not intrude and their children will experience freedom from fear. . . . Teacher strength is an inner quality demonstrated by an ability to share authority with children and youth whom most people are unwilling to trust (Haberman, 1995, p. 91).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

References to “Gentle Teaching” appear in Kris Juii’s comparison of differing approaches to dealing with aggression in children (June, 1990). In reviewing the history of both psycho dynamic and behavioristic approaches to managing aggression in children, Juii briefly presents the basic assumptions of both approaches.

Psycho dynamic theories have the common assumptions that feelings and needs are of primary importance in the life of a child. . . . They include the need for love, security, attachment, belonging, success, dependence, and independence, and a personal identity. Traumatic experiences and deprivations in the early years may result in lasting personality disturbances. . . . [and] the child’s reaction to these frustrations may take the form of withdrawal, submissiveness, psychosomatic symptoms, or overt aggression (p. 4).

In contradiction to these theories, are placed behavioristic principles whose roots are found in the work of Pavlov, Watson, Thorndike, and others. Juii discusses, at some length, B.F. Skinner and the development of his theories on operant conditioning that extended the view that aggression was a learned behavior and “interventions consist of fostering and rewarding adaptive and nonaggressive behavior through observations of appropriate behavior, role playing, and learning social skills” (p. 13).

Other more recent developments within behavioral technology such as cognitive behavior modification and relaxation training are also discussed. Today, Juii states that

behaviorism is “the predominant force of intervention in mental health and rehabilitation and in school programs for handicapped children, and in the universities behaviorists play a dominant role in psychology, special education, and other fields” (p. 16). He further points out that the popularity of behavioristic approaches was due mostly to easily understood principles and implementation while, at the same time, responding to the need in social services for more objectivity and accountability. He concludes with three major criticisms of the behavioristic model: long range effectiveness of interventions, accuracy of measurement procedures, and the ethics of managing vulnerable and defenseless children with aversive therapeutic techniques. Finally, Juii presents John McGee’s psycho dynamic approach, Gentle Teaching, as a treatment method that is informed by behavioristic models. He observes that differing views of human beings might ultimately be synthesized in some combination that would better and more ethically deal with these individuals.

Gentle Teaching, in this instance, is a behavioral procedure used by John McGee in a therapeutic setting working with severe behavioral disorders (1992). McGee describes Gentle Teaching as a method of therapy which includes “unconditional valuing.” More to the point, it is defined in an article by Jones and McCaughey “as a nonaversive method of reducing challenging behavior that aims to teach bonding and interdependence through gentleness, respect, and solidarity” Jones and McCaughey’s study (as cited in Mudford, 1995). In severe cases of behavioral disorder, McGee supports the view that treatment should

accelerate key care giver behaviors (e.g., value giving, elicitation of value giving, warmly helping, and protecting) and to decelerate others (e.g., the use of punishment and restraint as well as the display of other dominant interactions). . . . all care giver interactions need to begin with, center on, and lead to unconditional valuing (Mudford, 1995).

In many cases, the usual practice involving behavior modification for persons with mental retardation was aversive and punitive. McGee offered as evidence a series of 15 cases where Gentle Teaching (GT) was used and claimed significant results McGee and Gonzales (as cited in Mudford, 1995).

Anthony J. Cuvo, in responding to McGee's claims, believes that the results McGee achieved were not due to the behaviors of the care givers, but to some other unidentified variables (Cuvo, 1992). He believes the claims made for GT by McGee cannot be tested because the experimental design was fundamentally flawed and, therefore, not replicable. Another behaviorist, Jon S. Bailey, responds to McGee's claims in a step-by-step refutation of the procedure (Bailey, 1992). First, he comments that the definition quoted in Jones and McCaughey is an outcome and not a procedure. Secondly, Bailey suggests the three assumptions underlying GT (bonding, communication, valuing) are vague and difficult to understand in the treatment of developmentally disabled patients. GT has no defined treatment procedures nor the scientific base for the treatment. He goes on to state that

The difference between GT and behavior analysis have little to do with philosophy, because behavior analysis is a set of techniques and not a philosophy at all. In our effort to develop a science of behavior, we have specifically avoided spouting philosophy in our published works (Bailey, 1992).

Finally, in 1995 Oliver C. Mudford takes another look at the Gentle Teaching controversy. In reviewing McGee and other practitioners' claims that Gentle Teaching was very successful in treating more than a thousand individuals with mental retardation and severe behavioral difficulties, Mudford is skeptical because all the evidence is anecdotal. Of the 73 individuals that McGee claimed to have treated successfully, Mudford finds the data less than credible. Analyzing McGee's presentation of data on 15 individuals with profound to mild retardation who were claimed to have been successfully treated with GT, Mudford raises these concerns. One, there is no mention of the efficacy of psychoactive medications in the treatment of these individuals although it appears that 1/3 was receiving some medication. Two, there were continual internal inconsistencies in reporting the data. Three, much of what was reported in the study "seem to require subjective judgment of the intentions of care givers by the observers" (Mudford, p.350). In nine independent cases, GT was tried and was found to be unsuccessful in seven of these cases. However, in these seven unsuccessful cases "procedures that had obtained some empirical verification in the applied behavior analysis literature, but are not included as gentle teaching techniques were superior and effective" (Mudford, p. 351). To date, Mudford argues, "Independent attempts to replicate his [McGee's] original claims have failed more often than not" (Mudford, 1995, p. 352). He discounts the claims of GT proponents and sees the method as ethically indefensible in treating mental retardation.

Moving from cases of profound retardation or other psycho-social debilitating states to the classroom, what is the more recent view of effective educational practice that

decelerates violence and aggression in the classroom? Although the discussion among proponents of a behavioristic or psycho dynamic view helps inform this paper, the central issue is identifying characteristics of teachers who are able to diffuse situations that prevent learning because of violence, fear, and intimidation.

It has been well documented that the most common reaction to behavior problems in schools has been punitive (Englander, 1986). Although we know that punishment and coercion may be affective in the short run, negative responses are non-productive in the long run (Topping, 1983) (Swick, 1985) (Haberman, 1991) (Kohn, 1996). Schools have traditionally held that effective teaching behaviors can be practiced where students are also viewed in behavioristic terms. This view looks to make curricula “teacher proof.” Practitioners of a systematic use of behavior modification techniques in the classroom believe children and adolescent misbehavior can be prevented if the home and school are restructured so that they no longer facilitate the development of deviance. Haberman (1973) found that “teacher proof” curricular content “[has] not yielded many generalizable results to the body of effective behaviors to be included in teacher education programs” (p. 114).

In his work with T.M. Stinnett (1973), Martin Haberman reviewed different attempts at identifying effective teacher behaviors. From published sources, he observed a variety of studies that aimed to identify certain personality traits held by effective teachers. He found them all to be less than satisfying for the following reasons. Laboratory studies often quoted are also highly unreliable because of the relationship between the university and the laboratory school. In 1987, Haberman again addressed

effective teaching practices and noted that much of the research on effective teaching practices had been done in urban settings “and derives from research studies, the writings of experts and the experiences of practicing teachers” (p. 3). He recognizes the research on factors outside of school that importantly affects learning (socioeconomic class, parental involvement, public support) but maintains that the dismal record of ineffective instructional practices in urban schools is the legacy of “college professors and university programs [that] have not prepared teachers to be effective in urban schools” (p. 5). He goes on to state that, in the recent past, most new educational programs or initiatives pretend that similar principles govern both urban, suburban, and rural schools. This is a mistaken belief held by many parties inside and outside of educational circles. For Haberman

Schooling is a function of not only teaching subject matter but of analyzing the interactions between the nature of the student, the nature of the school, and the nature of teaching. Were this not true, we would not have a system failing to serve the poor and minorities coexisting with a system which is essentially sound for suburban, small town, and rural America” (1987, p. 10).

Haberman goes on to develop thirteen reasons for some continuing shortages in effective urban teachers. His research shows that teacher education programs are effectively non urban and the university settings outside of school sites where education classes are often held lend much credence to the inability of beginning teachers to translate these experiences into effective practice in the urban classroom.

In traditional teacher education programs, Haberman contends that the most important criteria used by universities to select potential teachers is Grade Point Average, basic skills tests for teachers, and written language tests. The “selection criteria does not

address their appropriateness for predicting subsequent teaching success and certainly does not relate to predicting teaching success in urban schools” (1987, p.30). He further maintains that universities have only one segment of the population in mind when developing these entrance requirements for teachers. These are recent high school graduates who have always wanted to teach and enter, from high school, with this goal in mind. These are not the persons who ultimately become teachers. Overwhelmingly, persons who become teachers are:

- 1) students who decide during the course of their college careers that they want to teach-college careers which may involve study at more than one institution over periods longer than four years; and
- 2) college graduates with all forms of baccalaureate degrees who decide to prepare for teaching later (1987, p. 31).

In effect, universities establish quotas and admission policies for potential teachers that still does not select well. As a matter of fact,

The best thing that can be said about the selection process is that it is immaterial; the worst that might be said about it is that it is a systematic application of university prejudices which effectively prevents new populations, who might be very well more capable, from entering teaching in general and urban schools in particular (1987, p.33).

In this analysis, Professor Haberman offers nine recommendations for selecting persons to teach in urban settings. First, universities should only select students who have the ability to interact well with children and adolescents before being admitted into schools of education. Their admittance must come only after a face-to-face interview where the possibility exists that the candidate could fail the interview. Also included in the selection process should be a first course that is “as rigorous as possible and should deal with the day-to-day work of urban classroom teachers” (1987, p. 39). This course

should also insure that students understand their content area and “have the cognitive ability to translate high level, abstract principles from various subject matter areas into content which can readily be taught to children and youth of all ages and abilities” (1987, p. 39). Applicants should also, as part of the selection process, be rigorously taught and tested on certain essential pedagogical skills before entering student teaching. If applicants are unsuccessful at learning the appropriate teaching skill, they must be prevented from continuing. Becoming a teacher should be a “continuous process of evaluating a students’ reasons for wanting to teach” and allow for decision points where applicants can select out of the program with enough time to find other careers (1987, p. 42).

Included in his nine recommendations, is that teachers’ education programs must include ways of evaluating and training new teachers with an ability in reflection on their own practices. Haberman contends that most preservice and in service teachers usually are professionally isolated and must, therefore, have the ability to reflect on their own practice while continuously learning and reconstructing their own teaching. If beginning teachers are unable to do so, they will very likely fail, quit, or dropout.

Finally, urban classroom teachers should be recruited as the clinical professors in university programs. These clinical professors and other faculty members would help provide gatekeeping functions, oversee selection, serve as instructors, and help provide insight into the full range of skills needed by effective urban teachers. Essential to selecting appropriate teacher candidates for urban schools is developing new criteria for the selection process. These include “a workable effective system for recruiting,

selecting, and inducting members of minority groups into urban teacher education programs” (1987, p. 45). Haberman also suggests that universities actively search out “capable and well-educated individuals” for entrance into their teachers’ education programs. Haberman suggests that universities merely screen students they already have “using inappropriate criteria with a population unsuited for and disinterested in urban teaching” (1987, p.48).

Through analysis of behaviors exhibited by effective urban teachers, Professor Haberman arrives at five critical areas for selecting teachers for urban settings. More recently, Haberman has expanded these five critical areas into seven functions that effective urban educators possess (Haberman, 1991b). These seven functions have been described in detail in Chapter I and are the bases for the Urban Teacher Selection Interview instrument we use in this study.

Although not specifically included in the seven functions of effective urban teachers, Haberman holds strongly to the belief that underpinning teacher effectiveness in an urban school is the ability to prevent violence.

Beginning teachers must recognize that preventing violence is an integral part of their legitimate work; the more effective they are at empowering youngsters, the less violence they will engender; the less effective they are, the more violence they will cause (Haberman, 1995).

A study on the health status of youth in the United States also found that schools place a great deal of emphasis on policies regarding adolescent behaviors such as: emotional distress, suicide, violence, substance abuse, sexual activity, and pregnancy. School wide policies do not affect, in any important way, these risky behaviors. Empowering students

through a connectedness with school “is a critical protective factor against a variety of risky behavior, influenced in good measure by perceived caring from teachers” (Resnick, et al. 1997). In other words, risky behavior such as violence is preventable when teachers see that student empowerment promotes violent free learning communities.

In essence, this paper takes both its research base and its inspiration from Dr. Haberman’s work. Teacher effectiveness in an urban classroom that is most often surrounded by violence, frustration, and anxiety requires, above all, teachers who have the ability and commitment for providing students a safe and secure setting that promotes learning. What describes effective teachers in urban settings? Are these descriptors common to all Gentle Teachers? Does the Urban Teacher Selection Interview provide school decision makers an appropriate tool for identifying teachers with these skills? These questions are central to this research.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Is our understanding of effective classroom practices enhanced by including characteristics of Gentle Teachers who have the ability to de-escalate violence and aggression in the classroom? Are these characteristics quantifiable? Are they common across variables that include race, gender, age, and teaching experience? To answer these questions, this study articulates common characteristics of Gentle Teachers who provide students with classroom settings that promote non-threatening, accepting, risk-taking communities. It also provides a tool for identifying teachers with these characteristics. Our analytic strategy was, through the use of the Q sort methodology, to highlight those clusters of characteristics that identified teachers who escalated or de-escalated violence or aggression in their classes. Although these are preliminary findings, this study is a broad approach meant to provide a foundation for future ongoing analyses of one characteristic of effective urban teachers, Gentle Teaching.

Sample

Six high schools were randomly chosen using a table of random numbers from a pool of seventy-eight Chicago high schools in each of the six regions that geographically include the entire city. Each high school, as mandated in the 1989 State of Illinois School

Reform Act, must reflect the racial make-up of all teachers in the system. The researcher asked each principal to identify two teachers as exemplifying a person who either escalates or de-escalates aggression or violence in the classroom. The question was scripted and is as follows:

Think of a teacher in your building who de-escalates aggression or violence in his/her classroom and then think of another teacher who you think escalates aggression and violence in his/her classroom. In other words, who are the teachers that have the least/none or some/most office referrals, have classes that are loud and unfocused, have a reputation for allowing students to be verbally and/or physically abusive and intimidating in class, have property damaged or stolen from them or their students, and may have had some serious offenses or crimes occur under their supervision. Do not identify which teacher escalates or de-escalates violence or aggression at this time.

These two teachers were then interviewed by a person trained in the Urban Selection Interview technique designed, developed, and copyrighted by Martin Haberman.

In the 1996-1997 school year, six principals were interviewed and asked to select persons on their staff that best exemplified teachers that escalated or de-escalated violence and aggression in their classes. Most principals consulted with their assistant principals before presenting the researcher with two teacher names they thought exemplified the traits under investigation. One secondary school principal even gave the charge to his assistant principal who was more familiar with the faculty and, therefore, better able to identify escalators or de-escalators. By consulting with other administrative

assistants in charge of discipline, much of the personal bias that a single administrator might bring to the selection was minimized. During this interview, administrators were also surveyed and the following statistics tabulated. Of the six administrators polled, 50% (N=3) were males, 67% (N=4) were married, 50% (N=3) were Caucasian, 34% (N=2) were African American, and 16% (N=1) were Hispanic. Their average age was fifty-three years and their average years teaching was twenty-eight. 67% (N=4) of the administrators had "Master's plus 30" designations while 37% (N=2) held Doctorates.

Interviews were also held during the 1996-97 school year with the twelve teachers identified by the school administrators. A pre-interview survey was conducted with all twelve teachers. The six that were acknowledged to be persons who escalate aggression and violence in their classroom had these traits: 50% (N=3) were male, 67% (N=4) were married, 67% (N=4) were Caucasian, 33% (N=2) were African American, 83% (N=5) held at least a Master's degree while 17% (N=1) held a Doctorate. Their average age was fifty-three and their average teaching experience was twenty-two years. On the other hand, the six teachers that were acknowledged by their administrators as having traits that de-escalated aggression and violence in the classroom had these characteristics: 50% (N=3) were males, 67% (N=4) were married, 67% (N=4) were African American and 33% (N=2) were Asian, 83% (N=5) held Master's degrees while 17% (N=1) held a Doctorate. Their average age was forty-six and their average teaching experience was twenty-five years.

The administrators and teachers involved in the study, randomly chosen from the six Chicago Public School regions, accurately reflected Chicago's schools population. It

is expected that there is a high correlation among administrators to the responses in the study. Although the teacher sample represents only high school instructors, questions in the study are not grade level specific and, therefore, should be generalizable to all teachers no matter what their grade. It is the intent of this study to identify traits common to Gentle Teachers that cuts across any variables. It is also expected that teachers identified as having the ability to de-escalate violent situations will score well on the Urban Teacher Selection Interview.

As with any live subject investigation, each subject was afforded the right to refuse participation prior to the Q sort. Each participant did sign a consent form and was guaranteed total anonymity both as a person and as a school.

Methodology

Data collection was done mainly through the use of Q sorting and Q technique. It is a type of factor analysis that is best suited to a few subjects as in this study. Thompson and Dennings (1993) found that “Q technique is about the business of defining types (or prototypes) of people, and so is very useful in testing typological premises” (p. 2). The technique, originally designed as a research tool by William Stephenson, a trained psychologist and physicist, has enabled researchers to bring scientific study to subjective mental processes. Kerlinger (1986) has stated that

Q methodology . . . [is] a set of philosophical, statistical, and psychometric ideas oriented to research on the individual. Q technique is a set of procedures used to implement Q methodology, Q sorts and their correlation (p. 507).

In this study, the methodology clusters individuals with similar responses for a given set of variables that include gender, race, age, and teaching experience. The correlations of

statement variables are studied by examining the rank order of those variables found in statements reflecting the seven descriptors in the Urban Teacher Interview described in Chapter II. The administrator is asked to rank order statements that represent what he or she strongly agrees about teachers in the study to statements that represent what he or she disagrees about teachers in the study. The Q sort (Stephenson, 1970, 1978, 1980) is a way of organizing the complexities inherent in defining teachers who de-escalate aggression and is also a “scientific way of sorting out subjectivity” (Stephenson, 1953). Stephenson (1980) further states

Q sorts are operations of “focalizing attention” under given conditions of instruction, in which measurement is of a person’s feeling and belief with self reference. . . . The individual, in Q sorting, may of course use judgment, reason, and comprehension, all of which we call conscious. But the underpinning is “affectability,” and quantification is with respect to feeling, belief, and self-reference. The outcome for any individual is operant factor structure, subject to various laws . . . a structure that is indicative of objective properties of communicability of which the person is quite unaware (p. 884).

Q sort methodology has two types, the “structured” and “unstructured.” In most research studies that use this methodology, the Q sorts have been “unstructured.” That is, “An unstructured Q sort is a set of items assembled without specific regard to the variable or factors underlying the items. Theoretically, any sample of homogeneous items can be used in an unstructured Q sort” (Kerlinger, 1986, p. 511). A “structured” Q sort, however, has a theoretical basis that is embedded in the items selected by the researcher.

Our study is based on Kerlinger’s (1986) “structured Q sort where a ‘theory,’ or a hypothesis or a set of hypotheses, are built into a set of items” (p. 512). This Q sort was designed to test the hypotheses that characteristics of Star teachers, found in the Urban

Teacher Interview as defined by Haberman, are also characteristics held in common by Gentle Teachers or those who have the ability to defuse situations that might lead to violence. As a matter of fact, to be a Star teacher one must also be a Gentle Teacher. Returning to the Q sort technique, Kerlinger (1986) observed, "The Q technique is mainly a sophisticated way of rank-ordering objects (items, stimuli, etc.) and then assigning numerals to subsets of the objects for statistical purposes" (p. 509). The sorters (administrators) rank order items directly related to descriptors used by Martin Haberman in identifying characteristics of effective urban educators (Haberman, 1995). These descriptors are organized into 70 statements (see Appendix A), confirmed by Dr. Haberman as correctly mirroring those characteristics (M. Haberman, personal communication, April 18, 1996).

In choosing 70 as an appropriate number of statements, we followed Kerlinger's (1986) advice:

The number of cards in a Q distribution is determined by convenience and statistical demands. For statistical stability and reliability, the number should probably be not less than 60 nor . . . in most cases . . . more than 100. A good range is from 60 to 90 (p. 509).

The statements were then placed on two color coded sets of index cards to be sorted by the administrator. The yellow cards were for the teachers the administrators felt escalate aggression and violence in the classroom while the green sets were for the teachers the administrators felt de-escalate violence and aggression in the classroom. Carr (1989) points out an important feature of the Q methodology, "Because [administrators] are required to distribute their responses in terms of a fixed distribution, usually an

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approximately normal distribution, all subjects will have the same mean rating, the same standard deviation of ratings, and the same distribution of ratings” (p. 4-5).

Q sorts were explained and directed by the investigator over the 1996-1997 school year at the school sites in one-on-one sessions with administrators. After having selected the two teachers that exemplified persons who either escalated or de-escalated violence in their buildings, the administrator Q sorted all 70 statements for each teacher selected. Q sort data for this study consisted of the scores six administrators gave teachers in their schools on the 70 statements. Appendix A lists the 70 statements on the cards and indicates seven categories (Haberman, 1995) that describe Star teachers: victimization, protecting learners and learning, fallibility, persistence, reality based, generalizing, and orientation. The chart also includes a “+” or a “-” that reflects the characteristics of effective urban teachers as developed by Haberman and embedded in the statements. That is, ideally “Star” teachers would answer “yes” to the “+” and “no” to the “-” statements.

The ranking directions detailed by Joan Aitken (1988) were used in this study. She recommends that the subject place all statements into three stacks: the first stack will be those statements that reflect the sorter’s strong agreement with the statement, the second stack contains statements that the sorter strongly disagrees with, and the third stack contains statements that are left over, ambiguous, or ones that the sorter is unable to place. Eventually, all cards fit into the rank order grid (see Figure 1).

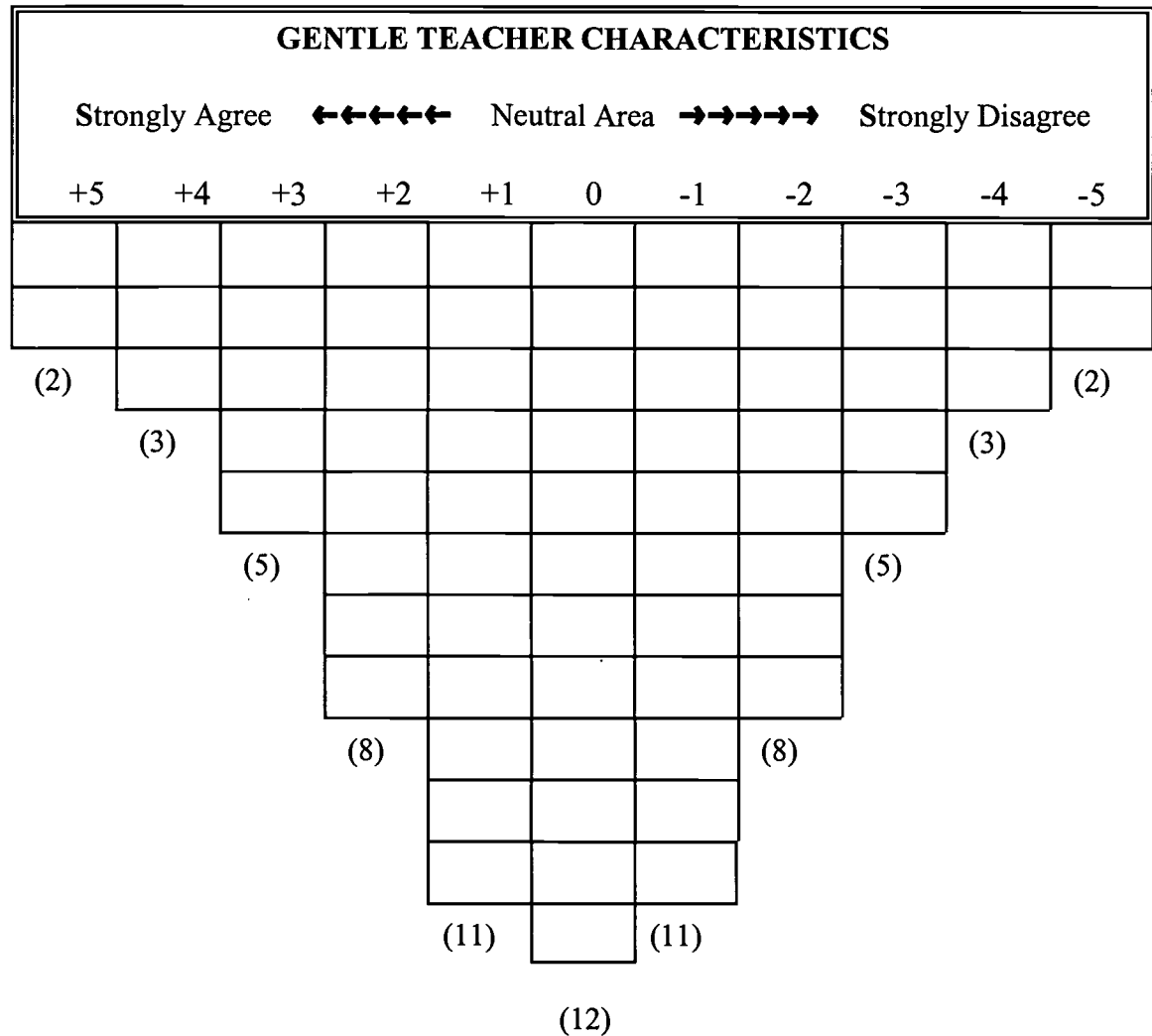
In sorting the index cards, administrators place those cards that they strongly agree with to the left in one stack and, then place those index cards that the sorter strongly

disagrees with to the right in another stack. A central stack was also being built which include cards that are left over, ambiguous, or ones that the sorter is unable to place otherwise.

From the agree stack, the administrators is asked to pull the two statements with which they can most strongly agree. These are the two statements administrators think characterize best teachers who de-escalate violence and aggression in the classroom. The administrator then writes the number of these two statements on the far left, the +5 column, of the Q sort grid.

Figure 1.

Q sort grid: Procedure for rank-ordering gentle-teacher characteristics



Then returning to the remaining cards in the stack, administrators select the next three strongly agree statements and records the corresponding numbers in the next “+4” column of the grid. The administrators continue to use the agree stack in this way until those cards have all been recorded in the grid. If administrators need additional cards in order to complete the agree sections, they pull from the center or neutral stack. On the

other hand, if they have cards left over, they place the remaining cards in the center or neutral stack. After all the agree cards have been recorded, administrators select the two statements with which they most strongly disagree about the teacher and record those number in the far right side “-5” of the grid. Administrators continue choosing from the disagree stack: the next three in the “-4” column, the next five in the “-3” column, and so on. If the disagree stack becomes depleted, they must choose from the center or neutral stack to completely fill out the disagree portion of the grid (see Figure 1).

Finally, the numbers of the 12 remaining cards are entered into the neutral or “0” column. The administrators, therefore, work from the extremes toward the middle in assigning statements to the grid culminating in all 70 items being rank ordered. “Because subjects will distribute their responses in terms of quasi-normal distribution, all subjects will have exactly the same mean rating, the same standard deviation of ratings, and the same distribution of ratings” (Kerlinger, p. 509). Refer back to Figure 1 for values assigned for each “Gentle Teacher Characteristic” in the statistical analysis and the number of statements allowed in each stack.

Q sort methodology has had some criticism leveled against it because the questions posed are limited and limiting and the numbers of subject are also usually small. Kerlinger recommends that statistical significance be raised in order to counteract the small sample size and any violations of assumptions. Because of this recommendation only significance levels of 0.01 or stronger will be accepted. Any significance levels that are weaker than the 0.01 standard are not acceptable.

After the administrators sort and tally all the cards, they are asked, “Why did you pick this teacher as the one whom best/worst exemplifies a person that de-escalates or escalates situations that promote aggression and violence in the classroom.” This question provides the study additional anecdotal information that may not be included in the 70 statements. Correlation Coefficients among administrators are then calculated to show the extent that administrators are similarly ranking priorities. Stephenson maintained that all precepts, concepts, and reports of events naturally cluster into categories. He terms these natural clusters “concourses” and contends they are revealed using statistical analysis. In using those values assigned by the administrators to each statement for the 12 teachers in the study, rank order correlation coefficients (r 's) among all administrators on each item are calculated. If administrators are sorting cards similarly, patterns will appear. Independent variables such as age, marital status, gender, ethnicity, teaching experience, and academic achievement are also examined in order to provide any additional information about variability in administrators responding to the Q sort. Because of the small number of subjects, variables will be grouped.

The following null hypothesis will be considered:

HO1: There will be no difference between administrators' ranking of priorities across gender, age, marital status, ethnicity, teaching experience, or education.

Aitken (1988) has maintained that “Although some Q studies use large number of subjects, most rarely use more than approximately 50 subjects. . . .there is adequate evidence that the method can be used successfully for a sample of one person or a thousand persons” (pp. 4-5). It is for this reason that Q methodology accommodates

small samples. As Aitken (1988) asserts, the sample could include only one person, a rigorous analysis of that single individual in a context that would quantify feelings and beliefs, and still be acceptable. The “individual, in Q sorting, may of course use judgement, reason, and comprehension, . . . but the underpinning is affectability, and quantification is with respect to feeling, belief, and self-reference” (Stephenson, 1980). Being able then to concentrate on this small sample is particularly appropriate for this study of Gentle Teachers.

Each teacher, identified by the administrator as having the ability to either de-escalate situations that promote violence or aggression or escalate those situations, is also interviewed by the researcher trained in the Urban Selection Interview. Only after the interviews were the teachers identified as either having the ability to de-escalate violent situations or escalate them. The patterns arising from the Q sorts are then analyzed to determine if there is a consistency between persons identified as gentle teachers (de-escalators) and those who score high on the Urban Teacher Interview.

Gentle Teaching, as already noted, is a complex characteristic. Some of GT’s detractors in clinical settings view any descriptions of that ability as subjective. The Q sort technique and methodology (Stephenson; 1970, 1978, 1980) is a way of ordering complicated questions and is also useful in “sorting out subjectivity” scientifically (Kerlinger, 1986). Furthermore, Stephenson (1980) believes that “each person’s own subjectivity is potentially more knowledgeable, by nature, than almost anyone has dared to believe.” The use of subjectivity in Q methodology, Stephenson further maintains “has

greater significance on educational theory and practice than it has been granted up to now” (1980, p. 882).

Data Analysis

A variety of statistical procedures are used to answer our research questions. Most statistics were compiled through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-X) on a main frame computer (Norusis, 1990a; Norusis, 1990b). Any additional post hoc statistics were run on the Statistical Analysis System (SAS), main frame version.

T-tests were run comparing differences in administrator sorting of the 70 cards due to subject variables of age, gender, teaching experience, ethnicity, and education. All administrators ($n = 6$) in each group are compared to the 70 variables (cards). The purpose of this test is to find whether administrators sorted differently because of age, gender, experience, ethnicity, or education.

To further analyze the data, a Discriminant Analysis statistical technique is used. This analysis studies the differences between two or more groups with respect to several variables simultaneously (Klecka, 1980). The two primary purposes for discriminant analysis are: (a) describing major differences between groups, and (b) classifying new cases into the groups based on a combination of discriminating variables of measure. This statistical technique is used to find variables that better predict teachers who have the skill necessary for de-escalating situations that are violent or potentially violent.

Six primary assumptions should be satisfied when using discriminant analysis (Klecka, 1980). These are (a) data cases should be members of two or more mutually exclusive groups, (b) the discriminating variables used to distinguish between the groups must be measured at the interval or ration level of measurement, (c) no variable may be a linear combination of other variables, (d) two variables that are perfectly correlated

cannot be used at the same time, (e) population covariance matrices are equal for each group, and (f) each group should be drawn from a population which has multivariate normal distribution.

Prior to computing the discriminant analysis, Wilkes Lambda was computed to determine overall significance and protect against chance findings of significances. A stepwise discriminant analysis was then computed. The stepwise procedure is used where the result of previous research and theories are not strong enough to specify the precise list and ordering of discriminant variables (Klecka, 1980). This method allows for the elimination of weak or redundant variables.

Results of this analysis yielded a canonical correlation coefficient. This coefficient represents the maximum linear combination that indexes the degree of correlation between two clusters of variables (Klecka, 1980). This correlation shows how mutually exclusive the two groups were when defined by the discriminant function.

Discriminant function equations were then calculated that best predict Gentle Teaching characteristics from the variables used (70 statements). For the teachers in this study, the equation was used to determine which statements sorted by administrators were most predictive in determining a de-escalator or an escalator.

In this study, the items selected are based on Haberman's characteristics of effective urban teachers (1995) as described in Chapter 1 and articulated in much of his other work. Each of the 70 statements have a positive or negative value attached to it. This depends on whether this statement is characteristic of a "Star" or a "Quitter" and fits into one of Haberman's seven categories (see Appendix A). These statements are rank

ordered by administrators and drawn only from the work of Dr. Haberman and, therefore, constitute a “structured” Q sort. First, this researcher wanted to know whether the 70 statements reflected accurately Haberman’s groupings put forward in Chapter 1. That is, did administrators find congruence with Haberman’s categorizations? Second, it was our intention to find characteristics held in common, in Stephenson’s words “concourses,” by school decision makers that defined in some more descriptive way Gentle Teaching. Third, was the Urban Selection Interview a good predictor of teachers who have the ability to de-escalate violence in school situations?

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In responding to the original research questions outlined on the previous page this chapter will, first, provide the results of the tool used in the research and its reliability among all research participants. Section Two details the sampling, demographic variables, and the t-test analysis. Section Three presents the results of a discriminant analysis. Finally, Section Four presents the results of The Urban Teacher Interview protocol.

Research Tool Reliability

The Q sort methodology used in this research is detailed in Chapter III and individual items on cards used in the sort are found in Appendix A. An internal reliability analysis was run on these 70 items. The researcher finds that the tool holds together with an overall Cronbach reliability alpha of .98. Three cards (19, 30, 66), however, continue to be problematic and show a negative correlation. This researcher took all the cards and reentered them using the seven Haberman categories described in Chapter 1. All but one of Haberman's categories have strong Cronbach alpha scores. The category Victimization (cards 1-13) has a coefficient alpha of .90; while Protecting Learners and Learning's (cards 14-26) has an alpha of .89; Fallibility's (cards 27-40) coefficient alpha is .88; Persistence (cards 41-47) also has an alpha of .89; the group

Reality Based (cards 48-55) has an alpha of .91; Generalizing (cards 56-63) has an alpha of .88; and, finally, Orientation's (cards 64-70) Cronbach's coefficient alpha is .64.

Although the statements in the Orientation category should be used guardedly, some cautionary insights are suggested.

Demographics

During the 1996-1997 school year, six high schools were randomly selected from each of the six Chicago Public School District regions. The principal at each school was contacted for participation in the study. Although three high schools were chosen from each region in case a principal refused to participate, the first choice was accepted in all cases. Of the schools selected, 50% (N=3) have $\frac{1}{2}$ or more of their student body considered at risk. It is important to note that "at risk" is defined for this research as students who are more than one year behind their peers in reading and math. This may lead to frustration and backsliding and often places the child further behind other children at the school. Ultimately, this child is "at risk" of failing or dropping out of school. Principals at the schools select percentages listed from their school's report card. 83% (N=5) have the majority of their students considered in poverty, and 100% (N=6) have student bodies that are mainly minority (see Table 1).

Table 1

School Demographics

Variables	Frequency (N=6)	Percentage
% of students considered at risk		
Over 50%	3	50%
Under 50%	3	50%
% of students considered in poverty		
Over 50%	5	83%
Under 50%	1	17%
% minority and non-minority students		
Over 50%	6	100%
Under 50%	0	0%

A conference is held at each school with the principal and, usually, with another administrator charged with student discipline in attendance. At this time, after agreeing to participate and naming the two teachers to be interviewed, each principal is also asked, “Why did you choose this teacher as the one who best or worst exemplifies a person that de-escalates situations that promote aggression and violence in the classroom?”

Responses to this question are consistent among all administrators. Principals state that Gentle Teachers (de-escalators) exhibit attitudes in and out of the classroom that are respectful and show a genuine concern for their students and their educational progress. “Respect,” “concern,” and “sensitivity” are words used again and again in these descriptions. Administrators also said that these teachers do not focus on educational and behavioral trivialities but, through shared commitment and a sense of school connectedness, provide each student many opportunities for success. On the other hand,

teachers who administrators viewed as unable to provide students with settings that were free of violence and aggression (escalators), also had strikingly similar characteristics. That is, these teachers are described as self-centered and inflexible. Their students' educational and emotional needs are rarely, if ever, addressed even to the point of appearing timid when having to relate in some personal way to students in their classes. When challenged, these teachers' usual responses are either authoritative or fearful.

Another date is scheduled with each principal to complete the Q sorts and dates were made with each teacher for participating in the Urban Teacher Selection Interview. Each principal is then given a copy of the matrix (see Figure 1) and most principals completed the sort in the presence of the researcher. This allowed for 100% (N=12) responses on the Q sort and 100% (N=12) responses for the teacher interviews.

As seen in Table 2, the administrators' ages do not reflect the aging teacher population for this compact study. The result could be statistically skewed because this study is so small or it could reflect the recent movement of principals into retirement or out of schools as part of Chicago's reform movement.

Table 2

Comparison of Administrators and Teachers Participating in the Study.

Variables	Administrators (N=6)		Teachers (N=12)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Males	3	50%	6	50%
Females	3	50%	6	50%
Age				
Over 50	3	50%	7	58%
Under 50	3	50%	5	42%
Education				
Undergraduate	0	0%	0	0%
Graduate	6	100%	12	100%
Marital Status				
Single	2	33%	4	33%
Married	4	67%	8	67%
Ethnicity				
Non-Minority	3	50%	6	50%
Minority	3	50%	6	50%
Teaching experience				
Over 20 years	5	83%	11	92%
Under 20 years	1	17%	1	8%

Next, demographic characteristics are used to examine the 70 statements for differences. Of the 70 statements, significant differences between the means exist in only one of the 70 statements. Some of the means of the statements' rank orders have negative values because administrators ranked all statements from a +5 (most important) to a -5 (least important). The rating attached to each of the 70 statements is used in all calculations (see Table 3).

Table 3

Statement that Demonstrated a Significant Difference for the Four Variables Considered
t-test Results

Variable - Ethnicity	N	Mean	SD	t	2 tail Prob.
Card 68. This teacher believes that no teaching method will work unless it is based on love.					
Group 1 - Non Minority	6	-1.1667	.408	-3.10	.011
Group 2 - Minority	6	-.3333	.516		

($p \leq .01$)

A significant difference ($p \leq .01$) is found in the response to the statement on Card 68, “This teacher believes that no teaching method will work unless it is based on love.” Non-minority administrators responded that this statement better describes teachers who escalate violence and aggression in the classroom than did minority administrators. Both minority (Mean = $-.3333$, SD = $.516$) and non minority administrators (Mean = -1.1667 , SD = $.408$) see this characteristic as lacking in de-escalators and escalators. Perhaps administrators feel that the correct answer is that “All teachers should love their students” and, therefore, skew the answer with minority administrators feeling a greater pressure to give the right answer.

Additionally, t-tests are used in order to look at each of the 70 statements in relation to the variable that measures de-escalators and escalators. Significant differences ($p \leq 0.01$) are found in 38 of the 70 statements. To emphasize Haberman’s embedded structure in the further analysis of the 70 statements, this researcher labels the relationship

which indicates an agreement or variance with the embedded value as “synchronicity.” In looking at all 70 statements used, 44 of the statements did contain the synchronicity necessary (see Appendix B). Of these statements, only 39 are significant at the < 0.01 level. Thirty-nine statements lack either the synchronicity or level of significance expected and are, therefore, not considered. That is, the means of these statements do not hold to the embedded Haberman value or administrators feel that either de-escalators lack the trait held by escalators or the obverse in contradiction to the embedded value. Significant differences ($p \leq 0.01$) are found in the 31 remaining statements representing each Haberman category (see Chapter 1). In Appendix B, all t-test results are charted for variable C1, teachers identified by card color as either de-escalators or escalators, and the level of significance found. This analysis of all 70 items is done to confirm the assumption that some of these statements are most discriminating when eliciting the synchronicity needed for a question to be useful.

In other words, some statements positively identify teachers with the ability to de-escalate violent or confrontational situations while also negatively identifying escalators. Other statements positively describe characteristics of teachers who escalate situations that are fearful or violent while, at the same time, administrators find these traits lacking in de-escalators.

Table 4 presents the results of the t-tests. In the t-tests, this researcher predicts that traits associated with Haberman’s “Star” teachers embedded in the statements are also the traits identified by administrators as held by de-escalators and lacking in escalators (see Appendix A).

Table 4

t-test Results of Analysis by Escalation Status and Synchronicity

Statement	De-escalator Mean	Escalator Mean	t	Sign.	Embedded Haberman Value	Synchronicity
1	3.3333	-3.8333	7.67	.001	+	Yes
2	-1.5000	2.3333	-3.78	.001	-	Yes
4	-.16667	2.0000	-3.61	.005	-	Yes
6	-1.6667	1.6667	-2.99	.014	-	Yes
9	-1.6667	3.3333	-4.29	.002	-	Yes
11	-1.0000	2.0000	-6.71	.001	-	Yes
12	2.1667	-2.5000	4.80	.001	+	Yes
13	1.6667	-1.3333	5.03	.001	+	Yes
15	1.5000	-1.6667	4.23	.002	+	Yes
16	-2.0000	1.8333	-4.84	.001	-	Yes
17	1.3333	-1.3333	3.58	.005	+	Yes
21	-3.6667	.6667	-4.03	.002	-	Yes
22	-2.5000	1.5000	-4.38	.004	-	Yes
31	2.5000	-1.1667	4.45	.001	+	Yes
33	1.6667	-1.500	4.50	.001	+	Yes
36	-1.6667	1.6667	-5.13	.001	-	Yes
39	-3.3333	3.3333	-10.26	.001	-	Yes
40	1.6667	-1.6667	5.09	.001	+	Yes
41	-4.5000	2.1667	-6.42	.001	-	Yes
43	.3333	-2.6667	3.80	.004	+	Yes
44	1.0000	-2.1667	3.48	.001	-	Yes
46	3.1667	-3.3333	5.92	.001	+	Yes
47	-4.1667	1.1667	-3.45	.006	-	Yes
51	-1.5000	1.833	-5.20	.001	-	Yes
52	-1.0000	3.833	-6.10	.001	-	Yes
56	-1.6667	1.6667	-4.23	.002	-	Yes
57	-1.0000	2.0000	-3.87	.003	-	Yes
58	-1.8333	1.5000	-4.26	.002	-	Yes
63	2.6667	-1.6667	5.49	.001	+	Yes
65	4.0000	.0000	5.16	.004	+	Yes
69	1.8333	-1.3333	3.86	.003	+	Yes

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Haberman's values embedded in each question is also confirmed or denied. Table 4 further points out those statements that have a wide divergence in means and contain synchronicity.

Synchronicity is the relationship between a trait identified by Haberman as a mid-range function that, for our research, is either lacking in a de-escalator and present in an escalator or present in an escalator and lacking in a de-escalator. If a statement has synchronicity, a "yes" is placed in that column and if a statement lacks this synchronicity a "no" is placed in that column. Statements 27, 37, 48, 50, 55, and 62 have a wide divergence in means but lack the above synchronicity (see Appendix C).

Statements 27 and 37, under the Haberman heading, Fallibility, were given an opposite value by administrators than the value embedded. Statement 27 should have shown a consistently negative value for de-escalators and a positive value for escalators. The opposite is true. Statement 37, on the other hand, does have the requisite positive value for de-escalators but it also shows a positive value for escalators. Statements 48, 50, and 55 all are found under the Haberman heading, Reality Based. All three statements are intended to have a positive value for de-escalators and a negative value for escalators but instead all three statements exhibit the reverse. Statement 62, in the category Generalizing, also has the opposite values intended for de-escalators and escalators (see Table 5).

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Table 5
Summaries of statements lacking the appropriate synchronicity

	N	Mean	SD
Statement 27			
This teacher would admit to misspelling a word in class, forgetting a student's name, or forgetting to take attendance in class.			
De-escalators	6	1.5000	1.0488
Escalators	6	-.8333	1.3292
Statement 37			
This teacher believes a lesson is successful when students actively participate			
De-escalators	6	3.1667	1.1690
Escalators	6	.5000	1.6432
Statement 48			
This teacher believes good teachers burn out because of the demands made on them by the school bureaucracy.			
De-escalators	6	-2.1667	1.1690
Escalators	6	3.000	1.4142
Statement 50			
This teacher believes teachers burn out because they get worn down by duties other than teaching, by students who become increasingly more difficult, or by the endless rules and regulations in schools.			
De-escalators	6	-1.6667	.8165
Escalators	6	3.0000	1.2649
Statement 55			
This teacher believes even good teachers burn out because large school systems isolate teachers and exploit children.			
De-escalators	6	-1.0000	.8944
Escalators	6	1.6667	1.2111
Statement 62			
This teacher believes that "All children can learn" because he/she is willing to explain things over and over.			
De-escalators	6	1.5000	1.5166
Escalators	6	-1.5000	.5477

The statements, however, most important for this study are those that do have synchronicity and the widest divergence of means: statements 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 11 in the Victimization category; statements 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 21, 22 in the Protecting Learners

and Learning category; statements 31, 33, 36, 39 in the Fallibility category; statements 40, 41, 43, 44, 46, 47 in the Persistence category; statements 51 and 52 in the Reality Based category; statements 56, 57, 58 in the Generalizing category; and statements 63, 65, 69 in the Orientation category (refer to Table 4).

These t-tests are followed by an analysis of patterns that might emerge in how administrators ordered their 70 statements when describing either a de-escalator or an escalator. There is, as expected, a high degree of correlation among all six administrators in how they rank-ordered their priorities. When rank-ordering those teachers who have the ability to de-escalate violence or aggression in their classes, Administrator 1 correlates with administrators 2, 3, 4, and 5 at the 0.01 level of significance. The correlations found after administrators rank-order those teachers who escalate violence or aggression in their classes are still significant, but weaker. In all but two cases did intercorrelations between the rank-ordered scores of administrators not reach the 0.01 level of significance (see Table 6).

Table 6
Correlations of administrator rank-ordering decelerators and accelerators in the Q sort

De-escalator					
Administrator	1	2	3	4	5
Administrator 1					
Administrator 2	.5997**				
Administrator 3	.6386**	.4113**			
Administrator 4	.5919**	.4892**	.6720**		
Administrator 5	.7089**	.5517**	.6849**	.5544**	
Administrator 6	.5140**	.4543**	.6532**	.4785**	.5762**
Escalator					
Administrator	1	2	3	4	5
Administrator 1					
Administrator 2	.4946**				
Administrator 3	.4247**	.5536**			
Administrator 4	.4909**	.3943**	.5047**		
Administrator 5	.5269**	.3280**	.2392*	.3668**	
Administrator 6	.3925**	.4919**	.5323**	.4385**	.3011*

* - Significance level 0.05 ** - Significance level 0.01

Administrator 5 is not be able to distinguish escalators as well as his colleagues. Administrator 5 also correlates with administrators 3 and 6 at the 0.05 level of significance. The data is significant and does support the assumption that all administrators are better able to determine what characteristics are exhibited by teachers who are able to de-escalate situations that might lead to violence and less able to clearly identify characteristics held in common by those teachers who don't have this ability.

Additionally, the varimax rotation procedure recommended by Carr (1988) is used in extracting factors that are consistent with the embedded values found in each statement. The data was flipped so that teachers became the variables and the 70 statements became the cases. The correlation between teacher types is consistent. That is, the scores given to each teacher by each administrator correlates and the researcher found that administrators were able to consciously or unconsciously ascertain the value embedded in each statement and attach it to the appropriate teacher characteristic of escalation and de-escalation. A very high level of significance ($p \leq 0.01$) was found in almost all cases. Two factors emerged in the rotation consistent with the administrator's perception of a de-escalator or an escalator and the embedded values in the 70 cards. The correlations between administrator assigned categories and the tool assigned categories hold consistently as seen in their loadings (see Table 7).

Table 7

Rotated Factor Matrix for Variables: De-escalators and Escalators

N = Administrator D/E = Administrator Assigned Category	Factor 1	Factor 2
Teacher 5D	.83228	-.08849
Teacher 1D	.79513	-.14084
Teacher 3D	.79073	-.30750
Teacher 6D	.64366	-.26241
Teacher 4D	.64172	-.37044
Teacher 2D	.62693	-.23805
Teacher 3E	-.58209	.50525
Teacher 1E	-.29301	.64942
Teacher 4E	-.23915	.63120
Teacher 5E	.00323	.62897
Teacher 6E	-.26945	.56208
Teacher 2E	-.49194	.53598

That is, all de-escalators are scored positively by administrators where the embedded value is positive and negatively where the embedded value is negative. The data on escalators also shows similar patterns. Administrators mark them positively on negative embedded values and negatively on positive embedded values. Administrators are able to consistently match statement responses to appropriate de-escalator or escalator designation.

Administrator 5, on the other hand, is unable to match Teacher 5E to some statements that best describe an escalator while other administrators easily differentiate

between statements characterizing traits held or lacking in escalators. As before, Administrator 5 appears to have difficulty characterizing Teacher 5E as either a de-escalator or escalator. In reviewing all scores received by the teacher identified as an escalator by the administrator 5, this researcher found that the particular teacher was characterized as a “Star” in many of the other interview classifications while receiving 0's in two areas (see Table 12). This teacher, although having traits of a de-escalator, is still perceived as an escalator by Administrator 5 causing the consistent anomalies in the data. Although this finding presents some problem in conforming to the original hypothesis, it in no way diminishes the consistent ability all administrators, including Administrator 5, have in assigning the correct statement to escalators.

Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

A two-group discriminant function analysis was done to further analyze ways that subjects' scores on the Q-sort could predict group affiliation based on the Q-sort. A stepwise analysis was chosen because of the lack of information on the effects of each card for predicting group differences. Thus, all the Q-sort cards ($n = 70$) were considered potentially useful variables, and were included in the data set.

First, the Wilks' Lambda set was used to test the null hypotheses that the predictor variables (Q-sort cards) do not differentiate between the criterion groups. Appendix C reports Wilks' Lambdas prior to the application of a two-group, stepwise discriminant analysis. Only the Wilks' Lambdas which were significant at the $p < 0.01$ level prior to the application are shown in Appendix C. This indicates that these statements did discriminate between the criterion groups of de-escalators and escalators.

Secondly, Table 8 reports Wilks' Lambdas after the application of a two-group, stepwise discriminant analysis. In fact, these seven remaining statements of the original 70 are ones that discriminate most powerfully between de-escalators and escalators.

Table 8
Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

After Discriminant Analysis

Card Category Card Number	Wilks' Lambda	p
39 - This teacher believes the best use of students' grades is for punishment and reward.	.08676	.001
32 - Suppose this teacher accused a student falsely in front of the entire class for taking something and later found that the student was innocent, he or she would take the student aside and apologize.	.02125	.001
62 - This teacher believes that "all children can learn" because he/she explains things over and over.	.00606	.001
51 - This teacher believes teachers burn out because students lack motivation and don't want to be there.	.00165	.001
37 - This teacher believes a lesson is successful when students actively participate.	.00060	.001
43 - If everything in this teacher's class were going well, he/she might ask himself/herself daily, "I wonder what I might do better?"	8.68E-05	.001
65 - This teacher believes that the most important feeling good teachers demonstrate to their students is respect and concern.	2.96E-05	.001

When the stepwise discriminant analysis was complete, seven of the statements were found to form the maximally correlated linear combination of group member variables and predictor variables. A significant discriminant function was obtained (Chi-square 67.79, $p \leq 0.0001$) and is reported in Table 9

Table 9

Canonical Discriminant Function

Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-Square	p
33815.10447	.99	.001	67.79	.0001

The eigenvalue is a simple ratio of the between-groups to the within-groups sum of squares. Large eigenvalues are associated with “good” discriminant functions (Norusis, 1990b). The obtained eigenvalue, 33815.10447, represents a discriminate function that is moderate in strength.

A canonical correlation is a measure of the degree of association between the discriminant scores and the groups. It is equivalent to the “eta” score from a one-way analysis of variance. Thus, like “Eta²” which represents the proportion of total variance attributable to differences among the groups, the square of this canonical correlation score of .99 represents the proportion (99.0%) of the total variance explained by the discriminant function.

The “hit rate” between the predicted group affiliation (discriminant function) and the actual group affiliation (administrators’ classification as a de-escalator or escalator) is shown in Table 10.

Table 10
Classification Matrix-Subjects Classified by Administrator’s Classification and by Discriminant Function

		Administrators Classifications		
		De-escalator	Escalator	Row Totals
Discriminant Function	De-escalator	6 100%	0 0%	6
	Escalator	0 0%	6 100%	6
Column Totals		6	6	

Total agreement is the sum of the De-escalator/De-escalator and Escalator/Escalator cells. Total agreement was 100% of 12 cases, or 100% corresponding classifications.
Chi-Square = 67.79, $df = 7$, $p < 0.0001$

The total case agreement figure was 12 of 12 for a “hit rate” of 100%. The discriminant equation matched administrators’ classifications in 100% of cases.

The Urban Teacher Interview Protocol

Finally, the results of the Urban Teacher Selection Interview are examined to draw a comparison with teachers identified as de-escalators and escalators. The Urban Teacher Interview criteria demand that, if using this interview protocol, persons must score in all areas in order to pass the interview. Table 11 shows that, although three de-escalators did not pass the interview, no escalators passed the interview. Of the twelve teachers interviewed, only three passed the interview while nine did not pass the interview.

Table 11

Urban Teacher Interview Results

	De-Escalators		Escalators	
	(N = 6)		(N = 6)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Star	three	100%	0	0%
Passing	0	0%	0	0%
Not-Passing	3	50.0%	6	100%

Table 12 presents the individual interview scores of all teachers in the study. In addition, teachers are also identified by the administrator assigned category: D = de-escalators, E = Escalators. The top rows identify an interviewee's score in the seven Haberman categories. Each category contains two parts, A and B. Total interview scores are presented at the bottom of each individual column. The bottom check marks indicate whether the particular person did pass the interview according to the protocol. It is important to note that, although all de-escalators scored well on the interview, the interview protocol requires that any person receiving a "0" in either the A or B section on the interview does not pass. Three, however, were de-escalators and consistently the highest aggregate scores on the interview were realized by those teachers whom administrators consider persons who de-escalate violence and aggression in their classes. Although administrators 1, 2, 3, and 4 show a wide divergence of scores between de-escalators and escalators, administrators 5 and 6 do not. Table 12 shows that although 3 de-escalators did not pass the interview, no escalators passed the interview.

In some cases, administrators characterized a teacher as a de-escalator because of a perceived ability to bring order to a class or to some other school gathering. One such high school teacher (11D), unsuccessful on the interview, is considered a de-escalator by administrator six. This high school teacher had a great rapport with students who seemed to appreciate his good humor and energy. However, in the research visits to this teacher's class or some other area in the school, the interviewer found that this teacher had no qualms about physically disciplining students or using rather severe verbal admonishments. Students acted and were treated paternalistically with physical and verbal abuse as the appropriate means of discipline. Although his classroom was orderly, the climate fostered fear and anxiety. In effect, the relationship was enabling rather than empowering. Even though this administrator perceived this teacher as a de-escalator, the Urban Teacher Interview looks for teachers that empower rather than limit students. Acceptance of physical abuse as a legitimate discipline tool would prevent someone succeeding in the interview and, as shown, doing only marginally better than some teachers who are considered escalators.

Another instance that requires some explanation is teacher 10E. Administrator 5 defines this teacher as an escalator. In interviewing this teacher, the researcher found a bright, articulate, veteran teacher whose school had undergone some tremendous demographic changes during her time there. Her ability to appropriately interact and communicate with these different students was very questionable. The high scores received in every other category, except one, points to a teacher grounded in effective practice needing, perhaps, some intense staff development programs that would bring her

thinking in line with the needs of her students. These interview results do provide a confirmation of the relationship between characteristics of effective urban teachers as enumerated by Haberman and their abilities to de-escalate situations that might prove violent or confrontational.

Table 12
Individual Interview Results

Administrator		1		2		3		4		5		6	
		1D	2E	3D	4E	5D	6E	7D	8E	9D	10E	11D	12E
I. PERSISTENCE	A	3.0	0	3.0	0	0	1.0	3.0	0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.0
	B	.5	0	2.3	0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.75	3.0	0	2.0	3.0
II. PROTECTING LEARNERS & LEARNING	A	2.0	0	3.0	0	2.25	0	3.0	0	3.0	3.0	1.5	3.0
	B	0	0	3.0	0	0	0	3.0	0	3.0	0	0	0
III. GENERALIZING	A	3.0	1.5	3.0	0	2.0	2.5	3.0	.5	3.0	2.0	2.5	2.0
	B	3.0	2.0	3.0	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.5	2.25	3.0	2.0	3.0	3.0
IV. APPROACH TO AT-RISK STUDENTS/VICTIMIZATION	A	3.0	2.0	1.0	0	1.5	0	3.0	0	2.0	3.0	2.0	0
	B	3.0	1.5	2.0	0	1.0	2.5	3.0	0	3.0	3.0	.5	.5
V. PROFESSIONAL-PERSONAL ORIENTATION	A	3.0	2.0	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	.5	3.0
	B	3.0	1.0	3.0	2.5	3.0	2.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	.5	.5
VI. REALITY BASED	A	.5	2.0	3.0	0	2.75	1.5	3.0	3.0	2.0	3.0	2.0	1.0
	B	3.0	3.0	3.0	0	2.0	0	3.0	1.5	.5	3.0	1.0	3.0
VII. FALLIBILITY	A	3.0	1.0	3.0	0	2.5	1.25	3.0	0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
	B	3.0	1.5	3.0	0	3.0	0	3.0	.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Total Score		33.0	17.5	38.3	6.0	27.0	18.75	41.5	16.5	37.5	34.0	24.0	24.0
STAR				✓				✓		✓			
PASSING													
NOT-PASSING		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓

T-tests were also run comparing scores received on the interviews by administrator assigned categories for de-escalators and escalators and by interview outcomes of Stars and those who did not pass the interview. First, t-tests were run using the scores received by de-escalators/escalators on the Urban Teacher Interview (see Table 13).

Table 13
Interview Scores that Demonstrate a Significant Difference of the Seven Variables (Characteristics of Star Teachers) by Administrator Assigned Categories for De-escalators and Escalators

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	2 tail Prob.
Victimization					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	17.8333	7.705	9.67	.0001
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-21.6667	6.377		
Protecting Learners & Learning					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	25.333	7.528	6.78	.0001
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-6.0000	8.462		
Fallibility					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	16.500	6.411	6.19	.0001
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-12.500	9.524		
Persistence					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	15.1667	4.070	9.20	.0001
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-16.1667	7.278		
Reality Based					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	9.500	4.416	12.26	.0001
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-14.500	1.871		
Generalizing					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	10.833	4.535	7.21	.0001
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-9.000	4.980		
Orientation					
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	8.500	1.478	3.88	.004
Group 2 - Escalator	6	-1.1667	2.007		

($p \leq 0.01$)

The results in all seven interview areas as shown in Table 13 confirm this researcher's views that there are significant differences between de-escalators and escalators as expressed in the interview scores but also, as important, show that escalators fall at the bottom of the interview scale while de-escalators who are also "Stars" cluster at the top of the interview criteria no matter which Haberman characteristic was being measured. Even though all categories exhibit expected differences between de-escalators and escalators, three categories (Reality Based, Generalizing, Orientation) did not demonstrate as wide a difference as did the other four categories (Victimization, Protecting Learners and Learning, Fallibility, Persistence).

T-tests are also run using the scores Stars/Not-Passing received on the UrbanTeacher Interview (see Table 14). There is a consistently high positive score for all Stars while those defined as unacceptable receive low and even negative scores. All Stars score in the positive ranges while only one person who did not pass the interview also scores in the positive range. All others, classified as not passing after the interview, score in the negative range. It is important to note that 3 of the teachers considered by their administrators as de-escalators bring up escalator mean scores in all individual categories while not scoring at all in the "Persistence" and "Protecting Learners and Learning" categories. In all categories, the difference in means between De-escalators/Stars and Escalators/Not-Passing is still substantial.

Table 14

Scores that Demonstrated a Significant Difference of the Seven Variables (Characteristics of Star Teachers) among Teachers Interviewed Using the Urban Teacher Selection Interview

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	p
Victimization					
Group 1 - Stars	3	19.000	5.292	3.72	.004*
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	-8.8889	20.539		
Protecting Learners & Learning					
Group 1 - Stars	3	21.333	8.327	1.95	.084
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	5.778	19.051		
Fallibility					
Group 1 - Stars	3	17.667	8.083	2.94	.020
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	-3.222	16.084		
Persistence					
Group 1 - Stars	3	13.667	.577	3.21	.012*
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	-5.2222	17.641		
Reality Based					
Group 1 - Stars	3	8.6667	6.110	2.71	.027
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	-6.2222	12.597		
Generalizing					
Group 1 - Stars	3	9.0000	5.196	2.19	.058
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	-1.7778	11.681		
Orientation					
Group 1 - Stars	3	9.3333	4.933	2.17	.092
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	1.7778	6.016		

(* p \leq 0.01)

Both Tables 13 and 14, however, do show wide margins between scores of groups either viewed through the interview lens or the local lens of the site administrator. Each teacher, viewed locally (De-escalator/Escalator) or through the Urban Teacher Interview instrument (Star/Not-Passing), exhibit significant differences in mean scores in every Haberman category. These differences point out a real connection between

characteristics of Star teachers and persons designated Gentle Teachers by their administrators.

Finally, in reviewing total scores of all De-escalators/Stars and Escalators/Not-Passing on the entire Urban Teacher Interview, a consistent significant difference ($p \leq 0.01$) among the four variables is confirmed (see Table 15). As administrators sorted 140 cards for the teachers they designated as either a de-escalator or escalator, they might, because of boredom or fatigue, overlook correctly matching each statement with a de-escalator or escalator. However, as seen in Table 16, the tool is relentless. Even though individual administrators were not 100% consistent in more than 800 responses to individual statements, a significant difference for “Escalators” and “De-escalators” and “Stars” and “Not-Passing” is evident. Table 16 shows, the tool is persistent in separating “De-escalators” from “Escalators,” “Stars” from “Not-Passing.” In effect, as predicted, the Urban Teacher Selection Interview recognizes an effective urban teaching trait that this researcher expresses as Gentle Teaching (the ability to de-escalate situations that can promote violence or aggression in schools).

Table 15
Scores that Demonstrate a Significant Difference on the Four Variables Considered
t-test Results

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	2 tail Prob.
Group 1 - De-escalator	6	19.3167	8.916	3.10	.012
Group 2 - Escalator	6	13.5667	6.848		
Group 1 - Stars	3	39.1000	2.117	5.42	.0001
Group 2 - Not-Passing	9	22.2222	8.597		

($p \leq 0.01$)

Even so, the results of this investigation to be discussed in Chapter V require some qualifications. This small sample, although consistent with tenants of Q sort methodology, begs for a larger sample that would also include elementary schools. When looking at administrator responses, although only two significant differences were found, a larger sampling would even out any anomalies among individual administrator responses. These caveats notwithstanding, Chapter V will explore the findings of the t-tests analyses, the correlational matrices, and the results of the interview.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This discussion of the results of the research will focus on four main areas: (1) the 70 statements as correctly reflecting Haberman's categories describing effective urban teachers with some commonalities found between de-escalators and escalators; (2) the Urban Selection Interview; (3) limitations of the study with suggestions for future research; and (4) policy implications.

Reliability of the Sorting Tool

Before describing some commonalities found between de-escalators and escalators, an important first question is: When administrators select teachers who are defined as de-escalators in contradiction to escalators, are there variations in their choices that could be ascribed to demographic differences in the statistical data? Administrators, no matter what their gender, age, ethnicity, or teaching experience, were able to correctly categorize the statement as describing either a de-escalator or an escalator for all 70 statements. The researcher found in only one instance that administrators responded significantly ($p < .01$ level) because of ethnicity to a statement found on card 68. Non-minority administrators see this statement, "This teacher believes that no teaching method will work unless it is based on love" as better able to define escalators than minority teachers. Embedded in this statement is Haberman's view that "effective urban teachers

realize they cannot love every pupil but are still responsible for teaching even the less loveable and especially the unlovable” (Haberman, 1991). The t-test results for both non-minority and minority administrators confirms Haberman’s view that ineffective teachers, escalators, unlike effective teachers would not be able to function in a classroom where there was not a loving relationship.

To what extent is card 68 important in determining either a de-escalator or an escalator. The embedded Haberman value (see Appendix A) is one that assumes that de-escalators would lack this particular trait while escalators would hold to the trait. Both minority and non-minority administrators feel that this question defined an aspect of escalators and did not define, in any way, a de-escalator. The difference in administrator response is one of weight, not belief. That is, non-minority administrators do not give this question as much weight for defining an escalator as do minority administrators.

All administrators, however, no matter what their backgrounds or school populations, respond to the research statements in a similar manner. That is, they agree on characteristics that define de-escalators and escalators that are shown in the t-tests run when comparing how administrators ordered the 70 statements that are used to define those traits held in common by both de-escalators and escalators (see Table 6 above). Again, except for Administrator 5, there is a consistent high level of significance ($p \leq 0.01$) in their choices. Even Administrator 5 held to a $p < 0.05$ level of significance. In all cases, administrators recognize the embedded value of the 70 statements and order those similarly.

However, it did appear that administrators are better able to recognize traits held in common by de-escalators and lacking in escalators than traits found in escalators and lacking in de-escalators. De-escalators (Gentle Teachers) are probably more easily recognizable than escalators because of their positive, forthright stance while de-escalators are always described as lacking some characteristic: respect, sensitivity, responsibility, etc. It can be reasonably asserted, that the lack of a particular personality trait is harder to recognize than its presence.

In a school situation, a teacher who is pro-active and at the forefront of resolving situations that might lead to conflict would be more noticeable than the teacher who is isolated and estranged from the school community. For example, one teacher in the research defined by the administrator as the de-escalator has much local and city wide attention. Locally, he is well known for providing a myriad of school and community options for troubled students. At the same time, he had received numerous city wide awards for excellence with special needs children. This Gentle Teacher is often called upon by the administrator to take the lead in dealing with problems in the class or in the school.

On the other hand, an escalator who has been employed by this school system for over 25 years is little known. He keeps to himself and avoids any contact with faculty or students away from class time. He dutifully reported to work every morning and, dutifully, left the building as soon as the last bell had rung. Although many knew him by name, this researcher had some trouble finding someone at the school who could direct me to his classroom.

Finally, Administrator 5, as already noted, chose the escalator not because she evidenced particular qualities but, rather, lacked the ability to communicate well with students who no longer mirrored her own racial or socio-economic background. This deficiency defined the escalator for this administrator although Teacher 10E scored very high in other categories in the interview.

The teacher identified in Table 12 as 10E and in Table 7 as 5E was considered by Administrator 5 as an escalator and received a positive factor loading of .00323. However, this value is so close to a negative value, that its presence on the positive side is of little significance. In this particular case, Administrator 5 sees her as non-cooperative and unable to work with the changing student population. Although the administrator's assessment may be correct for the moment, she might have chosen a better candidate for the title of escalator. It was obvious that this teacher has a strong commitment to students and is well versed in effective teaching strategies but was out of her milieu in relating or communicating with the schools new demographics. Her inability to score in an area that requires relational and communication skill confirms the assessment. This particular administrator's choice of this escalator brought about many of the anomalies in the data. Again, a larger sample would help to even out the effect of such singular instances.

The above situation notwithstanding, these findings give this researcher confidence in the ability of administrators across a large urban school district to correctly identify traits common to all de-escalators and escalators. The analysis kept the means of each of the 70 statements constant while the teachers became the variables. The teachers, as expected, clustered by factor loadings into de-escalators and escalators thus

corroborating our expectations that administrators do recognize traits held in common by de-escalators and escalators. Table 7 shows that administrators are able to recognize the value embedded in each statement and are also able to ascribe it to the correct type, de-escalator or escalator. Administrators are consistently able to differentiate between de-escalators and escalators no matter to what particular demographic group they belong. That is, a specific ethnic, educational, experiential, or other demographic particularity did not affect, in any way, the ability of all administrators in the study to recognize traits belonging to either de-escalators or escalators.

In looking at the 70 statements themselves, are they consistent with the embedded value intended and do they get at the Haberman category ascribed to the particular statement? The reliability analysis (see Chapter IV) run on all 70 statements and the particular category show significant inner reliability. In effect, statements grouped using Haberman's seven categories do have something in common. Whether that commonality is exactly as intended by Dr. Haberman or this researcher is difficult to ascertain. Placing in one statement the complexity of a teacher behavior (mid-range function) as described by Haberman (January, 1991) is, of course problematic. Even though, this researcher is confident that the 70 statements, in their entirety, do reflect accurately Haberman's characteristics of Star teachers, individual statements may not get at that particular characteristic. In particular, the category Orientation, although still significant, has a weaker Cronbach reliability alpha than other categories because, perhaps, of poorly worded statements that were not specific enough or contained a trait not easily discernible to administrators. Administrators, however, were able to recognize that each Haberman

category, as represented by the 70 statements, did discriminate between de-escalators and escalators. A larger sample using an analysis of variance might more easily distinguish and confirm other characteristics of Gentle Teachers.

Commonalities of De-escalators and Escalators

Using a discriminant analysis can some “types” be discovered through the Q-sort methodology that does describe de-escalators or escalators? In this preliminary investigation, the researcher found that 38 of the original 70 statements best differentiated between de-escalators and escalators. These statements have the appropriate synchronicity (see Appendix B) and a level of significance that is better than 0.01.

The question to be asked was whether these 38 statements were consistent with the embedded value intended and did they get at a broader, more inclusive view of Gentle Teaching. It is again important to remember that the ensuing discussion is clearly hypothetical and looks for more convincing substantiation of this preliminary investigation. Of the 38 statements included, statements 1, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 31, 33, 40, 43, 44, 63, 65, and 69 hold to the embedded value and describe de-escalators as respectful and unselfish. These teachers are giving people who show their unselfishness by a deep respect for the individuality of each student both in and out of school. Respect is shown by teachers striving to always find new ways to motivate and interest students. These descriptors were, however, found lacking in escalators. Statements 2, 4, 6, 9, 11, 16, 21, 22, 36, 39, 41, 47, 50, 51, 52, 55, 56, 57, and 58 describe escalators as disrespectful and selfish in contradiction to de-escalators. Escalators had little respect for students and their profession. They see students not as individuals but as types or products of an

environment or culture. In this way, the teacher is blameless for his/her inability to motivate and interest students. These teachers objectify students through a system of rewards and punishments. Two important common characteristics of effective urban teachers and Gentle Teachers, respect and unselfishness, are detected in the analysis and corroborated in the anecdotal evidence collected during the interviews.

When sorting statements that dealt with the Reality Based and Orientation sections, administrators have some problems identifying which attitudes are held by de-escalators or escalators. The confusion may have arisen in expectations that administrators carry about effective teachers. According to Haberman, effective teachers understand bureaucracies that often place the needs of administrators before the needs of children. Dr. Haberman also maintains that these teachers understand well that students won't necessarily love them nor will some students be loveable. Even so, these teachers have tremendous respect for kids and protect them against educational bureaucratic systems.

Perhaps administrators naturally feel that teachers they select as exemplary should have love for their children and are loved in return. Because this mutual love is also sustaining, it prevents these "excellent" teachers from burning out. In individual discussions with administrators and teachers, a common theme was often expressed in this way: Teachers have to love their kids. That's the job. If you don't, you won't last long here. By implication, both attitudes (loving children and burning out without that mutual love) belie the reality of the urban school teacher. This study and Haberman, however, advocate the belief that effective teachers don't burn out because they love

children, but because they see themselves as advocates for children. Love is not an essential part of the teacher/student relationship. They protect children from the larger system often through a support network of like-minded colleagues who understand that love often is in short supply in these urban settings.

The discriminant function equation is used to determine which statements sorted by administrators are most predictive in determining a de-escalator or an escalator. The analysis found that statements 39, 32, 62, 51, 37, 43, and 65 are most discriminating in determining de-escalators and escalators (see Table 16). It has already been noted that before the discriminant analysis was run, two characteristics emerged that are common to all 31 statements and have synchronicity and a high level of significance. These traits are expressed as unselfishness/selfishness and respect/disrespect. Recognizing the time limitations of administrators employing teachers in urban settings, can these seven statements confidently inform administrators in their employment practices?

Table 16
Step-wise Discriminant Analysis Statements

	Embedded Value	Wilks' Lambda	P
Statement 39 This teacher believes the best use of students' grades is for punishment and reward.	-	.08676	.001
Statement 32 Suppose this teacher accused a student falsely in front of the entire class for taking something and later found that the student was innocent, he or she would take the student aside and apologize.	-	.02125	.001
Statement 62 This teacher believes that "all children can learn" because he/she explains things over and over.	-	.00606	.001
Statement 51 This teacher believes teachers burn out because students lack motivation and don't want to be there.	-	.00165	.001
Statement 37 This teacher believes a lesson is successful when students actively participate.	+	.00060	.001
Statement 43 If everything in this teacher's class were going well, he/she might ask him/herself daily, "I wonder what I might do better?"	+	8.68E-05	.001
Statement 65 This teacher believes that the most important feeling good teachers demonstrate to their students is respect and concern.	+	2.96E-05	.001

Three of the statements (37, 43, 65) would be answered affirmatively for de-escalators and negatively for escalators while four statements (39, 32, 62, 51) would be characteristics that escalators held but were lacking in de-escalators. Statements 32 and 51 show a disrespect for the fair treatment of students. These teachers embarrass and even humiliate their students in the classroom but remain silent about their own culpability to the entire class. Escalators refuse to admit their own failings. Statement 51

echoes this sentiment by blaming students for their lack of motivation. In effect, teachers who receive a positive score on this card are still blaming children for their own mistakes. Although (Statement 62) they repeat the same concepts over and over, these children just don't seem to get it. These teachers do not value individual effort and have a profound disrespect for the ability, motivation, and self-esteem of young urban children. Their students become the scapegoats for their own unwillingness or inability at motivating them because they believe that these students inherently lack the appropriate emotional and/or intellectual skills necessary for success. Invariably, as statement 39 points out, grading becomes the tool to further these teachers' beliefs that the fault lies not with them but their students.

Statements 43 and 65, on the other hand, define successful urban teachers as believing that respect and concern for their students come before any other teaching strategy. They are never satisfied with themselves or their classes. If students are not learning in their classes, these teachers blame themselves not their students. They have an abiding respect for the individual differences and learning styles of their students and are always looking for newer and better ways to teach. Active learning (Statement 37) is at the center of every teachable moment. These teachers trust their students' choices and act always as their advocates.

Does this analysis support Haberman's distinctions enumerated in Chapter II and embedded in the 70 statements found in the Q sort? The discussion does lend credence to Dr. Haberman's view that "Teachers who Start out intending to dominate poor children or youth are doomed to failure. Teachers who seek to empower students may become

effective if they believe in and can implement the functions of Star teachers” (Haberman, 1995, p. 89). In effect, embedded in every characteristic of Gentle Teachers and “Star” teachers is the notion of empowerment seen in the previous analysis. Teachers who feel personally empowered in their own lives and in their professional lives bring that focus to their classroom. Students are motivated in these classrooms because their effort is valued and they have the opportunity to learn, to grow, and to change.

De-escalators, in every case, have a high sense of self, moral duty, and ethical obligation. Because of their great respect for each student’s worth and dignity, these teachers fill every minute of classroom time with issues relevant to their students. They feel obligated in providing their students with classroom experiences that are academically challenging and meet individual student needs. They not only feel obligated in providing students with rich learning experiences but know that, together, they can reach personal and group goals. Recognizing the many problems faced by students and teachers alike, de-escalators join with other like-minded individuals to pursue and persist in celebrating their own and their students’ accomplishments.

Escalators, on the other hand, have little sense of self or understand the moral and ethical underpinnings of public education. Large bureaucratic systems, they believe, have little respect for their work. Although they feel powerless in the system and in the classroom, they contend more control is needed which they paradoxically say they provide through a strict adherence to both classroom and district rules. These teachers rarely, if ever, follow school or district policy because they believe the school or district will not support them. Often expressions of class, sex, or racial bias are couched in

language that, they think, demonstrate sound educational practice. A lack of internal or external controls is frequently expressed through ways that demean students. Sarcasm, physical punishment, and elitist attitudes they believe motivate students. These teachers feel both impotent and blameless because of forces beyond their control and, therefore, have little respect for their profession or their students.

The Urban Teacher Selection Interview

Does the Urban Teacher Interview protocol provide school decision makers an appropriate tool for identifying teachers with the skills to de-escalate situations that are prone to violence and aggression? Before continuing, it is important to note here the scoring used on the Urban Teacher Interview for this research study does not reflect Dr. Haberman's view of the method to be used in the interview. In developing the Urban Teacher Interview protocol, Dr. Haberman grounds predictions of teacher success in an urban setting on certain teacher personality traits and the situational demands in those settings (Haberman, 1991b). These traits that Dr. Haberman describes as mid-range functions are

clusters, chunks, or groups of behaviors that particular practitioners must demonstrate in order to be effective. These are relatively small in number and while they manifest an individual's personality, they are sufficiently behavioral so that observers can identify what effective teachers do (Haberman, 1991b).

The Urban Teacher Interview is based on detecting the absence or presence of that mid-range function. The interview itself attempts to elicit whether the individual has or lacks the particular trait. In providing a quantifiable score for each person interviewed, this researcher attempts to present corroborating evidence that the interview did agree

with administrators in their categorization of de-escalators and escalators with the caution that a failing score of zero and a successful score ranging from .25 to 3.0 are different only to the extent the trait described was discernible or not discernible to the interviewer. Predicated on the outcomes of the interview, these teachers were then placed into three categories by interview scores: Stars, Passing, Not-Passing. Any teacher, because of the limitations of the interview protocol, who receives a zero in any of 14 categories was to be considered Not-Passing. Other teachers scoring in all 14 categories are designated Stars (32.0 or higher) or Passing.

The expectation was that all teachers identified as de-escalators by administrators would also be successful in the interview. That is, all de-escalators would be designated as either Stars or Passing. In three instances, de-escalators did not score in a category. Even though administrators 1, 3 and 6 considered teacher 1D, 5D, and 11D de-escalators, two failed to score in only one category while the other failed to score in two categories. The reasons for these particular scores are complex and bear some discussion (see Table 9).

One teacher, chosen by the principal as exemplifying a de-escalator, is a very moral and highly religious person who was born in another country. In that country, administrators have great social prominence and respect. As was stated in the interview, it is considered a deep sign of disrespect to willingly not only argue against but openly disavow a principal's wishes. In all other categories, this teacher scores very high and should, as was envisioned, pass the interview. However, in the category, "Protecting Learners & Learning," the interview protocol requires that the teacher maintain a position

in opposition to a principal's wish. This person would not and could not disagree with the principal.

A second example chosen by the principal as the exemplary de-escalator in another school was a veteran teacher who scored high in every category except one. This person was frequently recognized by the school community for contributions to the school including bringing students food, clothing, and providing shelter when needed. The teacher is very confident and holds students in high esteem and believes strongly in mutual respect with a focus on student achievement. Because of his standing in the school community, he cannot fathom that there would ever be a time when a principal would be in disagreement with him. It hadn't happened yet in 30 years of teaching. This understandable perception by this particular teacher prevented him from scoring on one section of the interview protocol.

Finally, the other teacher, considered a de-escalator, who was unsuccessful in passing the Urban Teacher Interview, also has great rapport both with students and administrators. This rapport is evident both in and out of the classroom as students interact constantly and affectionately with him. He also found it incomprehensible that a principal might disagree with him over some issue of student instruction. If the principal was obdurate and could not be convinced otherwise, he maintains that he would have to leave the school. In the many years that he had worked in this school district, this had never happened nor could he really imagine that it ever would. In all three cases, veteran teachers who have rapport with students, faculty, and administrators cannot imagine that the situations presented in the interview would ever occur.

Nonetheless, scores received by teachers identified as “Stars” whether through the interview tool assigned classification (Star/Passing/Not-Passing) or the administrator classification (De-escalator/Escalator), were the highest. De-escalators also have a higher positive mean score ($p < 0.01$) in every Haberman category while escalators all have negative mean scores. When comparing scores received by de-escalators to scores received by escalators, in every instance in every category administrators scored de-escalators similarly to the positive values embodied in those categories (see Table 9). That is, effective urban teachers as envisioned in Haberman’s research are also persons that administrators see as having the ability to defuse situations that are potentially violent.

However, the result most important for this study is that in 100% of all cases the Urban Teacher Interview did identify escalators from de-escalators. No single person identified by the administrator as an escalator was successful in passing the interview and, therefore, deemed “Unacceptable” (see Table 12). The significance of this finding for persons in positions training and employing teachers for urban settings cannot be stressed enough. Use of the interview recognizes potentially talented urban school teachers meeting Haberman’s seven criteria and assures us that these persons will not be career teachers in our buildings who add to the atmosphere of stress, anxiety, and violence prevalent in many urban schools today.

Limitations of the Research and Suggestions for Further Research

Although the sample was drawn randomly from across the city, a larger sampling would even out the anomalies found in this small study. Needless to say, Table 12 does

demonstrate the wide gap in means among all teachers sampled whether De-escalators/Escalators or Stars/Passing/Not-Passing. The level of significance ($p \leq 0.01$) in both categorizations is extraordinarily high. This researcher is convinced that de-escalators do have traits in common with persons interviewed who have successfully passed the Urban Teacher Interview. In fact, Gentle Teaching, we believe, is an underlying quality held by effective urban teachers and, in spite of the limits of this study, the Urban Teacher Interview protocol is an effective tool for use by administrators in selecting teachers with these abilities.

While this exploratory research study, because of the narrowness of its scope, might not decisively affirm or deny the original research focus, some final conclusions can be drawn. Gentle Teaching appears to be a characteristic subsumed in all other characteristics identified by Haberman. By describing these characteristics as teachers holding attitudes of respect and unselfishness in contradiction to disrespect and selfishness, we did confirm two important characteristics that are common to all Gentle Teachers. Reviewing both anecdotal and quantifiable data, this research is convincing that effective urban teachers, of necessity, must be Gentle Teachers. The seven statements in the discriminant analysis is also consistent with this view. A larger and more diverse administrator sample would, I believe, lead to more distinguishable and singular de-escalator and escalator “types” that could more easily be confirmed through factor analysis.

Even though one small difference (Statement 68) in administrator ratings because of demographic variables has already been noted, a larger sample would conclusively

affirm the hypothesis that characteristics of Gentle Teachers are recognizable no matter what demographic group makes the determination. Although this researcher did randomly sample administrators in every region across the city, a larger sampling would also give additional insight into this data by confirming these preliminary findings. Replicating and expanding this study might additionally focus on, not only perceptions that administrators have, but perceptions that these teachers have about themselves.

Policy Implications

Continuing population growth in major American cities and a growing poverty underclass need visionary leadership and a firm commitment to good education for all of our children. Violence, intimidation, aggression, and fear not only impede but, we believe, make learning impossible. Countering this escalating culture of violence in our urban schools necessitates teachers practiced in Gentle Teaching strategies. If ordinarily for urban children good education is more in the promise than the practice, what can be done both at the district and the local level?

At present, universities and colleges that provide teachers for large urban school districts do little if anything in preventing persons becoming licensed teachers who lack necessary philosophies and/or predispositions for becoming effective public school teachers. At this level, a screening could easily be done that would include a Gentle Teaching component for all applicants to university teaching programs. Professional development both at the district and the local school, on an ongoing basis, would insure that this necessary underpinning of any effective teaching program was embedded in all pre-service and induction initiatives. For example, the three de-escalators that were not

successful in the interview and the one escalator who was very successful in many areas of the interview might use the interview in their individual professional development plans for renewing state teaching licenses. Administrators might also use in-service and school professional development opportunities for discussions emphasizing the necessity of using Gentle Teaching strategies as public school teachers.

The Urban Teacher Selection Interview training could be made available to any administrator or teacher in the district for selecting and training all incoming teachers. This training could act as a catalyst for discussions among staff about school environments that foster learning among all students. Individual administrators in urban schools might use the seven statements found that best discriminate between de-escalators and escalators as part of any hiring or interview process.

Maximizing an urban child's chance for success in school requires that teachers recommended for appointment to any of our urban schools must share with students a Gentle Teaching vision that supports, protects and challenges their learning. This shared vision of empowered teachers and students is the mortar that will build the effective urban schools in the 21st Century.

APPENDIX A

70 TEACHER DESCRIPTORS AND EMBEDDED EFFECTIVE URBAN TEACHER

CHARACTERISTICS

Teacher Descriptors for the Q Sort and Embedded Effective Urban Teacher Characteristic

Pluses or minuses in the category column indicates that Star teachers would answer affirmatively to the “+” questions and negatively to the “-” question

#	Statement	Category & Embedded Value
1	This teacher demonstrates respect for students by listening to them, by enforcing rules fairly, or by meeting students outside of school hours.	Victimization +
2	This teacher believes that student failure is mostly caused by the terrible life conditions of students in his/her classes, various physical and emotional conditions which handicap the students, or poverty.	Victimization -
3	This teacher believes that student failure is mostly caused by the poor teaching methods used or irrelevant curriculum in schools serving students in poverty.	Victimization +
4	This teacher believes that the causes of student failure that affect the work of the teacher most are parents who don't cooperate or work with teachers.	Victimization -

5	This teacher believes that the causes of student discipline problems that affect the work of teachers most are violence in the community.	Victimization -
6	This teacher believes that the causes of student discipline problems that affect the work of teachers most are racism in the society.	Victimization -
7	This teacher believes that the causes of student discipline problems that affect the work of teachers most are teachers who escalate problems.	Victimization +
8	This teacher believes that the causes of student discipline problems that affect the work of teachers most are principals who don't back teachers up.	Victimization -
9	This teacher believes that the causes of student discipline problems that affect the work of teachers most are school rules that don't really punish.	Victimization -

10	This teacher believes that the causes of student discipline problems that affect the work of teachers most are teachers who can't relate to students.	Victimization +
11	This teacher believes that the numbers of students failing can be reduced through more teacher aides, more social workers to work with entire families, or more school psychologists to test youngsters.	Victimization -
12	This teacher believes that the numbers of students failing can be reduced through more interesting classes or more classes with hands-on activities.	Victimization +
13	This teacher believes that good teachers of students at risk plan interesting assignments for them during the school day.	Victimization +
14	For this teacher, the most useful part of teacher planning is deciding what the students need to learn.	Protecting Learners and Learning +

15	For this teacher, the most useful part of teacher planning is gathering materials and reviewing the materials to be covered.	Protecting Learners and Learning -
16	This teacher thinks that the activity that takes up most of a good teacher's planning time is correcting papers.	Protecting Learners and Learning -
17	This teacher thinks that the activity that takes up most of a good teacher's planning time is identifying interesting activities.	Protecting Learners and Learning +
18	If this teacher could have one wish for his/her students next year, it would be that they learn what they're supposed to learn.	Protecting Learners and Learning -
19	If this teacher could have one wish for his/her students next year, it would be that they develop a real interest in the material.	Protecting Learners and Learning +

20	<p>In this scenario: if students in this teacher's class were publishing a newspaper and learning a great deal while, at the same time, really enjoying learning. Suppose the principal visited this teacher and asked him or her to stop the activity and stick to the basal text because these students would be taking a standardized test shortly. This teacher would explain the project to the principal.</p>	<p>Protecting Learners and Learning</p> <p style="text-align: center;">+</p>
21	<p>In this scenario: if students in this teacher's class were publishing a newspaper and learning a great deal while, at the same time, really enjoying learning. Suppose the principal visited this teacher and asked him or her to stop the activity and stick to the basal text because these students would be taking a standardized test shortly. The teacher would take the matter up with the principal's superior.</p>	<p>Protecting Learners and Learning</p> <p style="text-align: center;">-</p>

22	<p>Suppose the students in this teacher's class were making a video program to document the progress they were making in studying a particular subject. They are learning a great deal and enjoying their subject. The principal has asked the teacher to stop making this video and stick to the basal text. This teacher would ask some of the students' parents to convince the principal to let the class continue their video project.</p>	<p>Protecting Learners and Learning</p> <p style="text-align: center;">-</p>
23	<p>Suppose the students in this teacher's class were making a video program to document the progress they were making in studying a particular subject. They are learning a great deal and enjoying their subject. The principal has asked the teacher to stop making this video and stick to the basal text. This teacher would show the principal examples of students' progress.</p>	<p>Protecting Learners and Learning</p> <p style="text-align: center;">+</p>

24	<p>Suppose that the students in this teacher's class were writing a play they planned to perform which dealt with the subject matter they were supposed to cover in this class. These students were learning a great deal and enjoying the project. The principal, however, asked the teacher to stop the project and stick to the text because he/she was concerned about the standardized test these students would be taking soon. This teacher would quietly find out about transferring to another school.</p>	Protecting Learners and Learning -
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25	<p>Suppose that the students in this teacher's class were writing a play they planned to perform which dealt with the subject matter they were supposed to cover in this class. These students were learning a great deal and enjoying the project. The principal, however, asked the teacher to stop the project and stick to the text because he/she was concerned about the standardized test these students would be taking soon. This teacher would show the principal how much the students are learning.</p>	<p>Protecting Learners and Learning</p> <p style="text-align: center;">+</p>
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26	<p>Suppose that the students in this teacher's class were writing a play they planned to perform which dealt with the subject matter they were supposed to cover in this class. These students were learning a great deal and enjoying the project. The principal, however, asked the teacher to stop the project and stick to the text because he/she was concerned about the standardized test these students would be taking soon. This teacher would recognize it is the principal's school and phase out the project.</p>	<p>Protecting Learners and Learning</p> <p>-</p>
27	<p>This teacher would admit to misspelling a word in class, forgetting a student's name, or forgetting to take attendance in class.</p>	<p>Fallibility</p> <p>-</p>
28	<p>This teacher would admit to teaching a lesson that didn't really work, accusing the wrong student for starting a fight, or insulting a parent during a parent's conference.</p>	<p>Fallibility</p> <p>+</p>

29	This teacher would admit to transcribing a grade incorrectly or bringing the wrong materials to class.	Fallibility -
30	If this teacher made a mistake on the blackboard and a student pointed out the mistake, he/she would thank the student and continue with the lesson.	Fallibility -
31	If this teacher made a mistake on the blackboard and a student pointed out the mistake, he/she would point out the mistake and the correction to the entire class.	Fallibility +
32	Suppose this teacher accused a student falsely in front of the entire class for taking something and later found that the student was innocent, he or she would take the student aside and apologize.	Fallibility -

33	Suppose this teacher accused a student falsely in front of the entire class for taking something and later found that the student was innocent, he/she would apologize to the student in front of the entire class.	Fallibility +
34	This teacher believes that the best use of students' grades is for informing students.	Fallibility +
35	This teacher believes that main streaming students with handicapping conditions into regular classroom requires teachers to prepare several assignments.	Fallibility +
36	This teacher believes that main streaming students with handicapping conditions into regular classroom requires teachers to devote less time to normal students.	Fallibility -
37	This teacher believes a lesson is successful when students actively participate.	Fallibility +
38	This teacher believes that the best way for preparing students to take standardized test is to get them interested in the material.	Fallibility +

39	This teacher believes that the best use of students' grades is for rewarding and punishing students.	Fallibility -
40	If a student doesn't do his/her homework, this teacher would talk to him/her, call a parent, and look for additional ways to help the student.	Persistence +
41	If a student doesn't participate in class, this teacher would ignore him/her.	Persistence -
42	If a student doesn't participate in the class, this teacher might talk to him or her, call on him/her in class, change his/her seat, and read his/her permanent record.	Persistence +
43	If everything in this teacher's class were going well, he/she might ask him/herself daily, "I wonder what I might do better?"	Persistence +
44	If everything in this teacher's class were going well, he/she might ask him/herself weekly or monthly, "I wonder what I might do to do better?"	Persistence -

45	This teacher asks him/herself, "I wonder what I might do better?" whenever there is a problem.	Persistence -
46	This teacher asks him/herself "I wonder what I might do better?" all the time.	Persistence +
47	This teacher never asks him/herself "I wonder what I might do better?"	Persistence -
48	This teacher believes good teachers burn out because of the demands made on them by the school bureaucracy.	Reality Based +
49	This teacher believes teachers burn out because they have chosen the wrong profession.	Reality Based -
50	This teacher believes teachers burn out because they get worn down by duties other than teaching, by students who become increasingly more difficult, or by the endless rules and regulations in schools.	Reality Based +
51	This teacher believes teachers burn out because they have personal problems, have too much paperwork, get into ruts..	Reality Based -

52	This teacher believes teachers burn out because students lack motivation and don't want to be there.	Reality Based -
53	This teacher believes that burnout can be prevented by taking courses and/or workshops, or going on vacations.	Reality Based -
54	This teacher believes that burnout can be prevented by forming a network with other teachers.	Reality Based +
55	This teacher believes even good teachers burn out because large educational systems isolate teachers.	Reality Based +
56	This teacher would think that he/she is very concerned about covering the material because he/she often has all students reading the same page and answering the same questions.	Generalizing -
57	This teacher would think that he/she is very concerned about recognizing individual differences because he/she often has all students reading the same page and answering the same questions	Generalizing -

58	This teacher would think that he/she is very concerned about having children work together because he/she often has all students reading the same page and answering the same questions.	Generalizing -
59	This teacher believes that assignments should be based on ability by allowing each student to choose his/her assignments.	Generalizing +
60	This teacher believes that assignments should be based on interest by allowing each student to choose his/her assignments.	Generalizing +
61	This teacher believes that assignments should be based on achievement by allowing each student to choose his/her assignments	Generalizing -
62	This teacher believes that “All children can learn” because he/she is willing to explain things over and over.	Generalizing -

63	This teacher believes that “All children can learn” because he/she gives extra help to those who need it or provides different ways for students to learn the same thing.	Generalizing +
64	This teacher believes that the most important feeling good teachers demonstrate to their students is love.	Orientation -
65	This teacher believes that the most important feeling good teachers demonstrate to their students is respect and concern.	Orientation +
66	This teacher believes that the most important feeling students need to demonstrate toward their teachers is love.	Orientation -
67	This teacher believes that the most important feeling students need to demonstrate toward their teachers is respect.	Orientation +
68	This teacher believes that no teaching method will work unless it is based on love.	Orientation -

69	This teacher believes that no teaching method will work unless it is based on respect.	Orientation +
70	This teacher believes students will not learn from a teacher unless the teacher is someone they love.	Orientation -

APPENDIX B

T-test Results of Analysis by Escalation Status and Synchronicity

T-test Results of Analysis by Escalation Status and Synchronicity

*Pluses or minuses in the “Embedded Effective Urban Teacher Characteristic” column indicates that Haberman’s Star teachers would answer affirmatively to the “+” statements and negatively to the “-” statements.

Statement	De-escalator Mean	Escalator Mean	t	Sign.	Embedded Effective Urban Teacher Characteristic	Synchronicity
1	3.3333	-3.8333	7.67	.001	+	Yes
2	-1.5000	2.3333	-3.78	.005	-	Yes
3	.5000	-1.3333	1.31	.220	+	Yes
4	-.16667	2.0000	-3.61	.005	-	Yes
5	-.3333	.8333	3.25	.120	-	Yes
6	-1.6667	1.6667	-2.99	.014	-	Yes
7	-1.3333	-1.1667	-.13	.896	+	No
8	-2.0000	1.5000	-2.91	.016	-	Yes
9	-1.6667	3.3333	-4.29	.002	-	Yes
10	.5000	-1.8333	1.52	.164	+	Yes
11	-1.0000	2.0000	-6.71	.001	-	Yes
12	2.1667	-2.5000	4.80	.001	+	Yes
13	1.6667	-1.3333	5.03	.001	+	Yes
14	1.0000	-1.0000	1.55	.153	+	Yes
15	1.5000	-1.6667	4.23	.002	+	Yes
16	-2.0000	1.8333	-4.84	.001	-	Yes
17	1.3333	-1.3333	3.58	.008	+	Yes
18	1.3333	.5000	.77	.457	-	No
19	1.5000	1.6667	-.22	.828	+	No
20	2.0000	-.5000	2.61	.032	+	Yes
21	-3.6667	.6667	-4.03	.002	-	Yes

Statement	De-escalator Mean	Escalator Mean	t	Sign.	Embedded Effective Urban Teacher Characteristic	Synchronicity
22	-2.5000	1.5000	-4.38	.004	-	Yes
23	2.1667	-.3333	2.22	.054	+	Yes
24	-2.3333	-1.1667	-1.42	.187	-	No
25	1.3333	-.5000	2.80	.185	+	Yes
26	-2.5000	.0000	-2.30	.044	-	No
27	1.5000	-.8333	3.38	.007	-	No
28	1.5000	-1.5000	2.78	.020	+	Yes
29	.8333	-.3333	1.03	.325	-	No
30	.6667	.6667	.00	1.00	-	No
31	2.5000	-1.1667	4.45	.001	+	Yes
32	-.1667	.5000	-.90	.388	-	Yes
33	1.6667	-1.500	4.50	.001	+	Yes
34	-.1667	1.1667	-.98	.351	+	No
35	-.1667	-.1667	.00	1.00	+	No
36	-1.6667	1.6667	-5.13	.001	-	Yes
37	3.1667	.5000	3.24	.009	+	No
38	.5000	-.3333	1.11	.292	+	Yes
39	-3.3333	3.3333	-10.26	.001	-	Yes
40	1.6667	-1.6667	5.09	.001	+	Yes
41	-4.5000	2.1667	-6.42	.001	-	Yes
42	-.1667	-1.0000	.63	.544	+	No
43	.3333	-2.6667	3.80	.004	+	Yes
44	1.0000	-2.1667	3.48	.006	-	Yes
45	.5000	-1.8333	2.83	.031	-	No
46	3.1667	-3.3333	5.92	.001	+	Yes

Statement	De-escalator Mean	Escalator Mean	t	Sign.	Embedded Effective Urban Teacher Characteristic	Synchronicity
47	-4.1667	1.1667	-3.45	.006	-	Yes
48	-2.1667	3.0000	-6.90	.001	+	No
49	-.8333	-1.0000	.14	.892	-	No
50	-1.6667	3.000	-7.59	.001	+	No
51	-1.5000	1.833	-5.20	.001	-	Yes
52	-1.0000	3.833	-6.10	.001	-	Yes
53	.8333	-.6667	1.83	.100	-	No
54	1.3333	-.5000	1.94	.105	+	Yes
55	-1.000	1.6667	-4.34	.002	+	No
56	-1.6667	1.6667	-4.23	.002	-	Yes
57	-1.0000	2.0000	-3.87	.003	-	Yes
58	-1.8333	1.5000	-4.26	.002	-	Yes
59	-1.3333	.1667	-2.58	.032	+	No
60	.1667	-.8333	1.13	.291	+	Yes
61	-.6667	-.3333	-.48	.647	-	No
62	1.5000	-1.5000	4.56	.001	-	No
63	2.6667	-1.6667	5.49	.001	+	Yes
64	.5000	-1.0000	1.51	.177	-	No
65	4.0000	.0000	5.16	.004	+	Yes
66	-.8333	-1.1667	.53	.613	-	No
67	1.8333	1.0000	.61	.564	+	No
68	-.6667	-.8333	.45	.665	-	No
69	1.8333	-1.3333	3.86	.003	+	Yes
70	-1.1667	.0000	-.88	.407	-	No

APPENDIX C

Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

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Stepwise Discriminant Analysis

Before Discriminant Analysis

Card Category	Wilks' Lambda	F	p
Card Number			
Victimization			
1	.14517	58.89	.0001
2	.41157	14.30	.0036
4	.43478	13.00	.0048
6	.52830	8.93	.0136
8	.54206	8.448	.0157
9	.35159	18.44	.0016
11	.18182	45.00	.0001
12	.30249	23.06	.0007
13	.28319	25.31	.0005
Protecting Learners and Learning			
15	.35879	17.87	.0018
16	.29934	23.41	.0007
17	.43860	12.80	.0050
21	.38095	16.25	.0024
22	.34247	19.20	.0014
27	.46739	11.40	.0071
Fallibility			
31	.33516	19.84	.0012
33	.33024	20.28	.0011

Card Category	Wilks' Lambda	F	p
Card Number			
36	.27536	26.32	.0004
37	.48800	10.49	.0089
Persistence			
39	.08676	105.3	.0001
40	.27823	25.94	.0005
41	.19517	41.24	.0001
43	.40876	14.46	.0035
44	.45220	12.11	.0059
46	.22199	35.05	.0001
47	.45648	11.91	.0062
Reality Based			
48	.17369	47.57	.0001
50	.14783	57.65	.0001
51	.27007	27.03	.0004
52	.21181	37.21	.0001
55	.34694	18.82	.0015
Generalizing			
56	.35897	17.86	.0018
57	.40000	15.00	.0031
58	.35484	18.18	.0017
62	.32500	20.77	.0010
63	.24889	30.18	.0003
Orientation			
65	.27273	26.67	.0004

Card Category	Wilks' Lambda	F	p
Card Number			
69	.40133	14.92	.0031

APPENDIX D

Administrator Interview Form

FORM A

Administrator _____ Region _____

School Title _____

Interviewer _____

Sex: M F Marital Status: S M Age: _____ Yrs. Teaching: _____

Ethnicity: 1 2 3 4 5

Education: Undergraduate, Masters, Doctorate, Post-Doctorate

% of students labeled at-risk at this school _____

% of students identified as in poverty _____

% of white students(1) _____

% of black students(2) _____

% of American Indian students(3) _____

% of Asian students(4) _____

% of Hispanic students(5) _____

OTHER: Why did you choose this teacher as the one who best/worst exemplifies a person that de-escalates situations that promote aggression and violence in school.

Best _____

Worst _____

APPENDIX E

Teacher Interview Form

FORM B

Interviewee _____ Region _____

Interviewer _____

Sex: M F Marital Status: S M Age: _____ Yrs. Teaching: _____

Ethnicity: 1 2 3 4 5 Card Color: G Y

Position at school _____

Education: Undergraduate, Masters, Doctorate, Post-Doctorate

Comments:

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