DOCUMENT RESUME

CG 027 345 ED 399 495

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Promoting Positive Peer Interaction through TITLE

Cooperative Learning, Community Building, Higher-Order Thinking and Conflict Management.

May 96 PUB DATE

103p.: Master's Action Research Project, Saint Xavier NOTE

University.

Reports - Research/Technical (143) --PUB TYPE

Tests/Evaluation Instruments (160)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.

*Academic Achievement; Communication Skills; **DESCRIPTORS**

*Conflict Resolution; *Cooperative Learning;

Disadvantaged Youth; Elementary Education; Elementary

School Students; *Interpersonal Relationship; Intervention; *Peer Influence; Student Attitudes;

*Thinking Skills

Illinois **IDENTIFIERS**

ABSTRACT

Research shows that probable causes for disruptive classroom behavior are broken social bonds, violent environment, stress and conflict, and inadequate curriculum coupled with ineffective teaching methods. This report discusses a program to decrease negative peer interaction in order to improve academic achievement and interpersonal relationships. The targeted population consisted of students at two elementary schools in grades three through six in a high-poverty and crime area located in Northern Illinois where problems of negative peer interaction and low academic achievement were documented. A review of the research indicated that a social skills curriculum, without the inclusion of higher-order thinking skills, may fail to have an impact on academic improvement. Four major categories of interventions were selected: (1) the use of cooperative learning; (2) an emphasis on higher-order thinking skills; (3) a program of community building; and (4) the use of a conflict management program. Post intervention data indicated an improvement in academic achievement and positive peer interaction. Twenty-five appendices account for 33% percent of the document and contain all materials used in intervention. Contains 42 references. (JBJ)

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PROMOTING POSITIVE PEER INTERACTION THROUGH COOPERATIVE LEARNING, COMMUNITY BUILDING, HIGHER-ORDER THINKING AND

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master's of Arts in Teaching and Leadership

Saint Xavier University & IRI/Skylight
Field-based Master's Program

Action Research Project Site: Rockford, Illinois Submitted: May 1996 BEST COPY AVAILABLE

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Abstract

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Date: May 1996

Title: Promoting Positive Peer Interaction Through Cooperative Learning, Community Building, Higher-order Thinking, and Conflict Management

This report discusses a program to decrease negative peer interaction in order to improve academic achievement and interpersonal relationships. The targeted population consisted of students in grades three through six in a high-poverty and crime area located in Northern Illinois. The problems of negative peer interaction and low academic achievement were documented through data revealing the number of student conflicts, teacher journals, student questionnaires, observation checklists and interviews.

Analysis of probable cause data revealed that children living in a violent, abusive and negligent environment lacked the appropriate skills to form healthy, interpersonal relationships. This lack of skills may have affected academic performance. A review of the research indicated that a social skills curriculum, without the inclusion of higher-order thinking skills, may fail to have an impact on academic improvement.

A review of solution strategies suggested by the research, combined with an analysis of the problem setting, resulted in the selection of four major categories of interventions: the use of cooperative learning, an emphasis on higher-order thinking skills, a program of community building and the use of a conflict management program.

Post intervention data indicated an improvement in academic achievement and positive peer interaction.



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Chapter I

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND CONTEXT

General Statement of Problem

Students of the targeted elementary schools exhibited difficulty interacting positively with peers and this has interfered with academic growth. Evidence for the existence of the problem includes observations, surveys, and assessments that indicate student academic performance.

Immediate Problem Context School A

School A was predominately a neighborhood school with a total enrollment of 269 students, of which 80 percent were African-Americans. It housed kindergarten through sixth grade. School A provided special education services to 15 percent of its population. A large number of students enrolled at school A, 90 percent, came from families that received public aid, lived in foster homes, or were eligible to receive free or reduced-price lunches. School A had an attendance rate of 93 percent, however, the chronic truancy rate of 4.5 percent doubled over a 45 day period when the school district temporarily eliminated an attendance program. Student mobility had steadily increased over



the last three years with the current rate being 66 percent (School A Improvement Plan, 1995).

While Caucasians made up the majority (76 percent) of the certified teaching staff, the remaining 24 percent were comprised of African-Americans and Hispanics. The support staff (non-certified) was comprised of 58 percent African-Americans and 42 percent Caucasians. Forty-one percent of the certified staff held a master's degree while 24 percent were enrolled in a graduate level program. There was concern over the high mobility among staff. Forty percent were new to the building, and 6 of the 15 classroom teachers were first or second year teachers. The ratio of classroom teachers to students was 1:18. This ratio drops to 1:9 when the certified support teachers are included. The certified support teachers included a music, art, and physical education teacher, four reading teacher-tutors, one special education resource teacher, two curriculum implementors and a student support specialist. Also, because of the high poverty level at School A, it was classified as a Chapter I school and was assigned two Chapter I teachers (School A Improvement Plan, 1995).

School A was built in 1906. Two additions were added to the original structure in 1924 and 1969. The local park district, in conjunction with the school district, built a playground in a small section of the school's front yard very close to the street. There was incomplete fencing around the school yard. Broken glass often littered the school yard and parking area where children sometimes played. A building security system was installed to help ensure the



safety of the students and staff in the building (School A Improvement Plan, 1995).

Many programs had been initiated to address the emotional, academic and physical needs of the children in School A. The health department provided an on-site dental sealant program that allowed the majority of students to have their teeth examined, cleaned, and sealed. Many community groups and businesses provided volunteers to act as one-on-one tutors or mentors to School A's students. Some of the volunteers tutored on Saturdays or after school.

Different educational programs were being implemented to increase students' academic performance. Reading Recovery was an early intervention program designed for at-risk first grade students. Success for All, a Johns Hopkins' researched based reading program, was being implemented with kindergarten through sixth grade students. MathWings was to be implemented in the near future. The latter two programs were based on cooperative learning. School A also had a 20-station computer lab, which was used by all of its students. In addition, there was a six station computer math lab which serviced second through sixth grade students on a rotating basis. School A was in the process of integrating technology into the classroom. Under phase one of its School Improvement Plan, four classrooms were to receive five computer stations for their classrooms. Additional classrooms would receive computer stations in the future.



The staff at School A had been involved in many staff development workshops and inservices. The inservices focused on cooperative learning and were trained in Discipline with Dignity. Staff were also encouraged to take additional coursework to meet their individual classroom needs. Video assessments were experimented with in order to address behavioral concerns. On-going staff development inservices were being planned with staff input.

School A received tort moneys as mandated by a court order to improve student achievement and promote integration. School A also received furniture and equipment moneys to address the inequities between the schools. Those moneys supplemented the school's regular operating budget.

School B

The total pupil enrollment for School B was 222. The minority (African-American and Hispanic) population was 62 percent and the majority (Caucasian) population was 38 percent. Ninety percent of the students were classified as low income. Sixty-six percent of the low income population were minority while 34 percent were majority students. Special education services were received by 23.4 percent of the students. Student mobility was tracked by keeping records on those students who had moved one or more times from the school during the year. The mobility rate for School B was 24.3 percent. School truancy was recorded for any student absent more than 10 percent of the school year, of which, five percent of the enrollment was found to be truant (School B Improvement Plan, 1995).



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The facility was a one story building with three classrooms on the basement level. It was nestled in five acres of wooded land. The playground was built in conjunction with the local park district. Due to the age of the building, electrical, plumbing, and heating difficulties were on-going problems. The lighting in the halls was not adequate and contributed to a dismal appearance. Also, the exterior and interior needed to be painted.

School B housed one all-day kindergarten, one first grade, and third through sixth grades. There were 12 regular classroom teachers. The support specialists included part time physical education, art and music teachers. There were two self-contained special education teachers and one resource teacher. Also, there were three Chapter 1 teachers, a student support specialist, two curriculum implementors, and two reading teacher-tutors. Of the total staff, 4 were of the minority race while 23 were of the majority race. Mobility of staff had been a yearly concern. Five out of 12 classroom teachers transferred after the last school year and 7 out of 12 teachers transferred the previous year. Twelve of the 27 teachers were either first or second year teachers. Only four teachers had masters degrees, however, eight were enrolled in graduate level programs.

Because of a law suit mandate to improve the achievement and integration of the minority population in the district and a history of fourth quartile scores in reading and math on national tests at School B, the building improvement plan targeted improved achievement in math and reading by 10 percent, increased average yearly attendance to 95 percent, and decreased



behavioral referrals. School B received \$107,000 over the \$17,000 regular district site fund to improve achievement with minority students. Although the school district was in debt by over \$28,000,000, the judge ruled those schools discriminated against be given the extra funding. Video equipment, overheads, maps, encyclopedias and dictionaries were relatively new and up to date. There was a 30-station computer lab with a laser disk and a full-time aide. The researched based reading program, Success For All, which included additional professional staff, was implemented to improve the reading achievement levels. In science and math, the school was in the process of implementing Accelerated Instruction in Math and Science (AIMS), Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI), and MathWings. All four programs were based primarily on a cooperative learning model. To address the discipline problem, the staff had been trained in Discipline with Dignity, First Step, cooperative learning, and conflict resolution. An attendance initiative and a male responsibility group were special programs that encouraged attendance and positive self-esteem with at-risk students (School B Improvement Plan, 1995).

Because of the high poverty level and low achievement scores, the

Chapter 1 program was classified as school-wide, which meant the Chapter 1

teachers could service any child in the building without restrictions. The building

chose to use them as reading teacher-tutors. The two special programs housed

in the building were Get It Together (GIT), a class for students of normal ability



but lacking motivation, and Students Taking All-day Resource (STAR), a class for self-contained special education students.

In order to achieve integration, the district gave students in minority neighborhoods the option of being bused to traditionally white neighborhood schools or to one of the district's five magnet schools. As a result, many of the highest achieving neighborhood children of School B chose to attend other buildings.

The Surrounding Community School A

Since 1989, the urban community that School A was located in was greatly impacted by a complex lawsuit that was filed against the local school district. Although the local school district denied the allegations of that claim, the district was found guilty of discrimination. The local school district was placed under the jurisdiction of a Court Appointed Master to carry out the directives of the Second Interim Order. This lawsuit had challenged the integrity of the local school board and the community. Emotional feelings ran high as expenses continued to mount. The lawsuit created dual roles for leadership within the school district that at times had serious implications. School A was greatly impacted by the Interim Order. Extra moneys and staff were allocated over the regular district operating expenditure of \$5,558 per pupil. The tort moneys allocated to improve academic achievement and address inequities in School A, had created much controversy in the community.



The urban community that School A was located in had a population of 140,000. School A was located in the city's lowest income area. This area's demographic, social and economic composition reflected depression and neglect. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce (1990), who reported on population and housing, the neighborhood was comprised of 78 percent African-Americans. The remaining 22 percent were Hispanic and Caucasian. The neighborhood was further characterized by low income rental property that was often unkept and deteriorated. The average selling price of a home was \$24,746. Many of the families were receiving public assistance. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce (1990), who reported on population and housing, the gross median household income was approximately \$15,200, well below the urban community's average. Forty-two percent of the persons over the age of 25 in School A's neighborhood did not graduate from high school. According to the city's police reports for School A's enrollment neighborhood, 2,836 violent crimes were reported in the last 12 months. An additional 1,131 calls were made to report domestic trouble. The police records indicated the children had been exposed to murder, sexual assaults, robbery, battery (simple and aggravated), burglary, and theft (Lt. T. Ferguson, personal communication, April 18, 1995). When interviews were conducted with the students at School A, according to Educational Associates (1994), children at all grade levels revealed they had heard gunshots and saw drugs being bought and sold. The



documented violence, witnessed by the children of School A on a regular basis, brought great concern.

School B

The immediate neighborhood of School B could have been characterized by boarded up houses, pot-hole filled and trash-lined streets, and many stray animals. Several students' parents did not own a working car or telephone, so making parental contacts or home visits were difficult. Just outside the residential neighborhood were bars, family-owned stores, and a few fast food restaurants. The west side of the school was bordered by a public golf course. Beyond the golf course, was a neighborhood, also in School B's population, that had primarily Caucasian, blue collar residents. The neighborhood was characteristically different from School B's immediate neighborhood in the areas of race, income and crime levels. This neighborhood was added to School B's regular population to increase integration.

School B was located in a southwest neighborhood of the city. The immediate neighborhood was very unique and different from the average city neighborhood. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce (1990), who reported on housing characteristics, the zip code area surrounding School B included 7,456 housing units with an average of 5.4 rooms per unit. Of the 7,456 units, only 6,766 were occupied. Of the 6,766 units occupied, 64.8 percent were owned and 35.2 percent were rented. The average price per house in the immediate neighborhood was \$23,000. Within the zip code area,



3.2 percent sold for over \$100,000, 26.7 percent of the houses sold for \$50,000 and 70.1 percent sold for less than \$50,000 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1990). Two low income housing projects were located in the immediate neighborhood. The real estate, including two housing projects, were rented at the following dollar amounts: 0.8 percent rented from \$500-\$749, 41.2 percent rented from \$250 to \$499, and 57.9 percent rented for less that \$250. The median rent payment for the zip code area was \$229.

According to the U.S. Department of Commerce (1990), who reported on the general population, the racial makeup of the community track was very unbalanced. There were a total of 3,104 residents of the following races: 729 Caucasian, 2,321 African-American, 12 Native Americans and 40 of an "other" race. According to Bevelyn Westin of the Rockford Housing Authority (personal communication, April 24, 1995), the larger of the two housing projects had 190 African-Americans, 12 Caucasians, 2 Hispanics, and 1 Japanese.

Through a Claritas Inc. computer (1995) program used at the local newspaper, a study was done on residents within a one mile radius of School B. It was found that the educational level for the adult residents were as follows: 374 (16.25 percent) completed 0-8 years of elementary school, 830 (36.02 percent) completed 1-3 years of high school, and 700 (30.40 percent) had graduated from high school. The median number of school years completed was 12

Several different types of occupations were held by the residents. As reported by the local newspaper's Claritas, Inc. computer program (1995), 46.94 percent of the residents within a one mile radius of School B were in the manufacturing and construction business; 14.23 percent were in a trade, wholesale, or retail business; and 30.86 percent were involved with personal, professional, or business type occupations. Of those employed, 46.34 percent were in blue collar occupations and 34.87 percent were in white collar occupations. The households were also described by the number of workers per family. It was found that 25 percent of the households had 0 workers per family, 40.32 percent had 1 worker per family, and 34.68 percent had 2 or more workers per family. It was projected by the U.S. Department of Commerce, which reported on economic characteristics of Illinois in 1990, that the average household income in 1994 would have been \$27,000. It should be noted that the neighborhood west of the golf course skewed the above average income. Statistics from the larger of the two housing projects reported 89 percent of the residents' total income was in the range of \$0 to \$8000 (B. Westin, personal communication, April 24,1995).

Regional and National Context of the Problem

Nationally the problem of the negative peer interaction in school settings was enormous. However, research was limited by data collection. Because of an unwillingness by the state and local education authorities to collect and



report school violence statistics, assessment of discipline problems had been difficult (White et al., 1994).

Surveys given to teachers indicated that they felt that school violence, misbehavior, and drugs interfered with academic achievement. In response to President Bush and the Nation's Governors in 1990, goal six stated that "by the year 2000, every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive for learning" (White et al., 1994, p. 6). The original intent of goal six was centered around the prevention of drug use. When 729 school districts were surveyed, 82 percent reported that violence over the past five years had increased. This information changed goal six to focus on safe school environments rather than concentrating only on drug prevention. Goal six was a driving force relating violence and discipline problems to teaching and learning. "A number of reports have emphasized an orderly and safe school environment as a prerequisite for meaningful school reform as well as an element of an effective school" (White et al., 1994, p. 7).

A survey comparing Chapter 1 schools to non-Chapter 1 schools found a significant difference in reports of serious or moderate discipline problems. Fifty percent of the teachers surveyed in Chapter 1 schools responded that negative behavior was a major concern. The survey further distinguished Chapter 1 schools into high poverty schools (schools where over 50 percent of the students qualified for free or reduced price lunch) and low poverty schools (those schools where no more than 20 percent of students qualified for free or



reduced price lunch). Discipline proved to be a distinguishing factor. Discipline again took precedence as a concern by teachers in high poverty schools (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1992).

In the early 1970's, Congress held hearings and conducted studies on school safety issues. As a result of one of the studies, Safe School Study (SSS), schools were given special grants to fund safe school programs. Then in 1984, the President issued a directive to form the National School Safety Center. The center's mandate was to "focus national attention on safety issues and cooperative solutions to school crime, violence, drugs and discipline problems; provide technical assistance, legal and legislative aid; and act as a clearinghouse for information on school safety" (White et al., 1994, p. 11).

Violent crimes by youth between the ages of 10 and 17 had escalated according to a report done by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in 1991.

Peers were often bullying and intimidating their classmates. Children born in poverty often saw cruelty as a way of life (Curcio & First, 1993).

In 1992, Congress supported the training of individuals who worked with young children affected by violence through the Higher Education Amendments. Congress continued to show support by proposing several bills aimed at reducing violence in schools and promoting safe environments. The Safe Schools Act of 1993 was another grant program created to offer support to local education agencies in order to achieve goal six of the National Education Goals (White et al., 1994).



Some recent federal initiatives have been taken to address discipline issues in the classroom and school. They were the Gun-Free School Zone Act, Safe Havens, and Project Smart. The first initiative made it a federal crime to possess or fire loaded weapons in close proximity to a school. Safe Havens was an after-school program designed to provide a safe setting for recreational, cultural, and educational activities. The last initiative, Project Smart, was established to help schools gather and analyze data relating to school crime, drug use and discipline problems (White et al., 1994).

Many educators and non-educators believed that misbehavior in the classroom and violence in school was disruptive to teaching and consequently affected academic achievement. Furthermore, many believed that the responsibility of providing a safe environment rested primarily with state and local officials and communities. However, because of limited data on the scope of the problem and inadequate funding, attempts at finding solutions to improve misbehavior in the classroom and creating violence-free schools had been hampered (White et al., 1994).



Chapter 2

PROBLEM EVIDENCE AND PROBABLE CAUSE

Problem Evidence

In order to document the extent of negative peer interaction, all targeted students were given a survey and randomly selected students were interviewed. In addition, a student observation checklist was completed by the teacher researchers over a four day period.

The targeted groups involved 17 third grade and 19 fourth grade students from school A. School B's targeted group involved 11 third and fourth grade students. School B's group met during a 90 minute reading block.

Teachers randomly selected 50 percent of the targeted students to participate in a problem solving interview (Appendix A). The students were asked five questions after hearing a short story in which they had to draw their own conclusions. Over 50 percent of the students responded that most of the children their age would have handled the situation described in a negative way. The majority of student responses, 83 percent, showed a tendency for students to infer blame even when very limited information was presented. Most students interviewed felt stealing was a means of acquiring material possessions while several students gave responses that justified the act of stealing. Approximately



one-third of the students, when asked how they would personally handle the problem described in the situation, indicated a negative solution. When students were asked to identify with the feelings of the perpetrating character, approximately half of the students stated the character would have no remorse for his/her actions. Furthermore, it was interesting to note that some of the students indicated that the character could have two feelings simultaneously. The character was both remorseful and unremorseful at the same time. For example, a person could be happy that an object had been obtained while unhappy about being involved in the act of stealing.

The fifth question of the interview session asked students to identify with the feelings of the victimized character. While 50 percent of the responses showed feelings of sadness, the remaining responses indicated that they would act out their feelings in a negative way.

Overall, the students displayed a lack of problem-solving skills. The responses showed very little empathy and limited choices of solutions.

Responses did not show the students utilized peaceable conflict management skills.



Students were given a survey on how they respond to conflict.

Table 1

How Students Respond to Conflict:

Percent of 3rd Grade, 4th Grade and Reading Class Students

Responding in Each Category

9/12/95

Statement, I try to	Always	Sometimes	Never	N
get help from another kid.	20	39	41	44
talk about it.	30	47	26	43
understand the other point of view.	35	35	30	43
get help from a grown-up.	37	40	23	43
apologize myself.	33	48	19	42
find out what the problem is.	33	45	21	42
listen to the other kid.	30	33	40	43
tell the kid to leave me alone.	30	51	19	43
hit the other person.	6	70	23	44
make the other kid apologize.	26	37	37	43
say swear words.	15	41	44	39
get friends to gang up on the other kid.	15	22	63	41
run away.	11	41	48	44
ignore it.	34	30	36	44
make a joke of it.	10	36	55	42

A student survey indicated the following results (Appendix B). Nearly three-fourths resorted to using physical violence as a means to solve a conflict.

Almost half reported that they do not make a point of listening to the other person. The majority showed an awareness of positive alternatives for handling conflicts but had difficulty implementing them in their personal lives. Perhaps



students do not experience the modeling of positive solutions frequently enough when a conflict arises. Whether positively or negatively, the students chose to deal with the conflict rather than to avoid it.

In addition, a teacher observation checklist indicated the following results.

Number of Incidents Reported on Teacher Observation Checklist Sept. 13, 1995 through Sept. 15, 1995 and Sept. 18, 1995

Classes	Put-Downs	Uncooperative	Touching, Pushing & Kicking	Endangering	Threatening
3rd Grade	45	24	32	0	4
4th Grade	38	22	15	2	3
Reading Class	11	14	19	2	3
Totals	94	60	66	4	10

According to the teacher observation checklist (Appendix C) there appears to be a lack of positive communication skills. When behaviors are ranked, the majority of incidences deal with negative communication, such as put-downs. A lack of positive communication skills may have led to uncooperativeness between team members. The high frequency of incidents in the areas of put-downs, uncooperative behavior, and touching, pushing, and kicking may be considered minor in comparison to endangering and threatening, yet the data show a significant problem in student-to-student interactions.



Students in the targeted classrooms appeared to lack positive communication skills which resulted in negative student-to-student interactions and limited their ability to find peaceable solutions. It may be that students living in violent communities have not experienced adequate modeling and reinforcement of positive communication skills. It could be that students have learned inappropriate means for meeting their basic needs of love, survival, power, fun, and freedom (Glasser, 1990).

Probable Causes

The literature suggests several underlying causes for negative peer interaction and low academic achievement. The causes identified from the problem setting were broken down into the following categories: broken social bonds, a violent environment, stress and conflict, and an inadequate curriculum coupled with ineffective teaching methods.

Bonding relationships that develop early in a child's life that offer parental affection and guidance produce securely attached children. Furthermore, children that develop healthy human attachments are the most resistant to violent behaviors (Brendtro & Long, 1995).

In a study done by Karen in 1994, orphans that were denied social bonding with a significant other were unable to internalize values and developed impaired consciences. Those children were also reported as having antisocial behavior (Brendtro & Long, 1995).



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Another study done in 1972 by Bell and Ainsworth, reported that children who lacked bonding or had their bonding process interrupted developed aggressive behavior (Committee for Children, 1992). According to the American Psychological Association (APA), the deterioration of family relationships contributes to children developing antisocial behaviors and/or violent relationships (Sautter, 1995). Walker stated that when adults live chaotic lives they do not spend an adequate amount of time teaching their children conflict management skills or expressing their behavioral expectations clearly and consistently (Brendtro & Long, 1995). Children who lack adult supervision often fail to develop skills that enable them to solve problems in a socially acceptable manner (Committee for Children, 1992).

Historically, social bonds were often provided in extended families.

Today, many families have been disrupted by divorce, addictions, abuse and poverty (Brendtro & Long, 1995). For social bonding to take place, children need to feel loved, special and important. If families fail to meet these needs, children project their pain onto others through conscious or unconscious violence (Mendler, 1992).

Violence has a profound impact on children both socially and academically. The violence children experience can be direct or indirect. For instance, children can be victims of violence through verbal, physical or emotional abuse, or they can live in a culture of violence where they witness problems solved through behaviors that violate others.



According to Craig (1992), it is difficult to determine the extent of the relationship between family violence and the student's ability to perform successfully in school. It was found that abuse within the family influenced children's cognitive processes necessary in problem solving. Cause and effect relationships, predictions and inferences, making choices and differentiations, establishing preference and perspective need to be developed if children are going to have an internal locus of control, a feeling of competence and responsibility, and an awareness of the self. Because children in violent homes often have physical restriction placed on them, they are not allowed or encouraged to interact with the world around them in active exploration to develop these processes. These deficits affect social competence and school achievement. Martin in 1979, summed it up when he said that "child behaviors that [led] to academic frustration and school failure [accompanied] histories of family violence" (Craig, 1992, p. 67).

The APA reported that the post-traumatic stress children may have experienced from witnessing violence in their neighborhoods "[included] intrusive imagery, emotional construction or avoidance, fears of recurrence, sleep difficulties, disinterest in significant activities, and attention difficulties" (Sautter, 1995 p.K3). Children that witness violence learn at a very early age how power and control are acquired (Curcio & First, 1993). These children also learn unacceptable ways to attain their goal. Moreover, they learn, to the contrary, that violence is an appropriate way to interact with their peers and to



APA believed that the social violence that we see today is learned behavior; therefore, this violent behavior can be unlearned (Sautter, 1995).

Classroom discipline problems are often associated with ineffective teaching strategies and a lack of a meaningful curriculum. Teachers who rely on obedience models of discipline, stressing use of rewards and punishments to manipulate behavior, find their students are unlikely to internalize values and have difficulty accepting responsibility for oneself (Mendler, 1992). Students who are not given the opportunity to be involved in decisions affecting their education and are not encouraged to self-evaluate exhibit more discipline problems (Burke, 1992). In 1990 Glasser stated that when disruptions occur in the classroom, it is usually because the child's basic needs of love, survival, power, fun and freedom are not being satisfied.

Teachers' low expectations for at-risk students show a failure to set standards that move them past the basic skills curriculum into higher-order thinking processes (Knapp & Shields, 1990; Means & Knapp, 1991). After studying the effects of cooperative learning, Joyce reported that "research on cooperative learning [was] overwhelmingly positive and the cooperative approaches [were] appropriate for all curriculum areas. The more complex the outcomes (higher-order processing of information, problem solving, social skills and attitudes), the greater [were] the effects" (Bellanca & Fogarty, 1991 p. 4). In addition, the academic and social climate in the classroom, when using



cooperative learning strategies, as compared with competitive or individualistic instruction, empowered children to help one another and learn more (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1990; Mendler, 1992).

In summary, probable causes for the problem of disruptive classroom behavior are: broken social bonds, violent environment, stress and conflict, and inadequate curriculum coupled with ineffective teaching methods.



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Chapter 3

THE SOLUTION STRATEGY

Review of the Literature

A review of the literature revealed many findings that should be considered when designing an intervention that promotes positive peer interaction in at-risk schools to affect academic achievement.

Glasser (1990) stated the five basic needs that all people have: love, survival, power, fun and freedom. His control theory is based on the premise that people control their own behavior in an attempt to satisfying their basic needs. Glasser uses the preventative approach in developing a school atmosphere and philosophy that focuses on quality, eliminating coercion, and encouraging students to self-evaluate their work. Glasser warns against using a stimulus/response approach. When this coercive approach is applied to the educational setting, students become less motivated in time and show an increase in behavioral problems (Glasser, 1990).

Curwin and Mendler (1988) not only believe that schools reflect what is happening in the society at large but that schools play an instrumental role in shaping the values and attitudes of their students. Therefore, they advocate a responsibility model of discipline. The responsibility model's primary goal is to



teach responsible choice making. Learning takes place when students evaluate the outcomes of their decisions. By emphasizing higher-order thinking and providing students with opportunities for shared decision making, students are able to develop an internal locus of control as they perceive the part they played in a cause and effect relationship.

In contrast to the responsibility model of discipline is the obedience model. The obedience model's main goal is to have order. The teacher uses punitive methods to gain control. While this method gives the teacher all the power, it takes responsibility away from the students. Students are not encouraged to think critically. This leads to aggressive behaviors and destroys natural motivation (Curwin & Mendler, 1988).

Due to the many problems faced by school-aged children, schools have no choice but to become caring communities for those students coming from families lacking nurturing, close and stable relationships (Schaps & Solomon, 1990). Many schools express concern about the growing problems of lowered academic achievement and negative peer relationships. In 1983 and 1990, Slavin found that cooperative learning, an instructional approach, was successful in urban, suburban and rural schools with populations composed of different ethnic groups (Slavin, 1991). Further, the students observed in the laboratory setting that learned to cooperate also learned to like each other and showed improvements academically. Slavin in 1985, Sharan in 1984, and Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz in 1980, state that another benefit to cooperative



learning was that by gradually introducing cooperative games and activities teachers and students learned the communication skills needed in small group work (Sharan & Sharan, 1987).

Craig (1992) stated that some cooperative learning models have a strong commitment to teaching the social skills and provide students with the opportunity to role play and take on others' perspectives. This enables those who are not seeing specific behaviors modeled at home a chance to internalize them. In addition, Willis (1992) stated that cooperative learning improves social skills and student friendships among those with different backgrounds.

The actual teaching of social skills, as required in certain models of cooperative learning, leads to more "learning retention and critical thinking" (Johnson & Johnson, 1989-1990, p. 53). Johnson and Johnson (1989-1990) further said that teaching social skills helps to maintain psychological health. Finally, social skills have to be taught and monitored in order to make cooperative learning successful (Schultz, 1989-1990).

Many cooperative learning models recommend the use of social skills, but originally Slavin's marketed curriculum packages did not call for direct instruction of the social skills. However, the Johnson's promoted not only academic group processing but also social skill processing (Bellanca & Fogarty, 1991).

Some cooperative learning models require the use of rewards, which are given to groups that reach their goal. Usually these rewards are extrinsic. Other cooperative learning models do not use any extrinsic rewards. According to



Slavin (1991), cooperative teams work toward the reward (a certificate) but are not in competition with the other teams. Earning a team reward by meeting a team goal along with individual accountability is essential to the production of basic skill achievement. In 1980, Slavin stated that rewards motivate students to be successful. In addition to extrinsic rewards providing motivation, individual accountability motivates students to explain their answers and take each group members' learning seriously. Webb said, in 1985, that giving and getting elaborate explanations from other group members is needed for achievement (Slavin, 1991).

Many cooperative learning models strongly stress the importance of individual accountability and goal planning by teams as factors to motivate students. Yet, some researchers disagreed with the use of extrinsic rewards as motivators. Kohn (1991) stated that the use of rewards to get students to work together decreases motivation and leads to lower performance levels. Instead of using materialistic rewards, teachers need to help students develop "promotive interdependence" a statement coined by social psychologist Morton Deutsch in 1941. Goals of group members are positively linked and mutually facilitated. Some feel interdependence can only be achieved through the use of rewards, but social psychological research studies show that rewards are "surprisingly limited in their effectiveness but also [tended] to undermine interest in the task" (Kohn, 1991, p. 83). Sternberg in 1990 stated that extrinsic motivators undermine creativity and intrinsic motivation (Kohn, 1991). According



to Deci and Ryan "people who [think] of themselves as working for a reward [feel] controlled by it, and this lack of self-determination [interferes] with creativity" (Kohn, 1991, p. 84).

Kohn (1991) provided the necessary elements of cooperative learning: a meaningful curriculum, autonomy to help make decisions (creating responsibility), and a relationship built on social skills. These elements are used to replace extrinsic rewards since no material reward could work as well as intrinsic interest in a task.

While Krasnow, Seigle, & Kelly (1992) found that students need to be taught particular social skills as suggested in many of the cooperative learning models, it is not sufficient in developing healthy peer relationships. If the entire social atmosphere of a classroom is not supportive and nurturing, students will not be encouraged to take the necessary risks for learning. In the Reach Out to School: Social Competency Program (Krasnow, et al., 1992) students learn and practice the skills needed for problem solving and developing interpersonal relationships. These skills lead to the development of positive peer relationships. Consequently, the supportive caring classroom emerges that gives students the self-confidence to grow socially and academically.

Cooperative learning is not natural for students because most have been trained in competitive classroom environments. Many of the cooperative learning models emphasizes social skill instruction, while ignoring the developmental stages of group interaction. Shaw led students purposely



through four stages of group development to achieve community, an environment supportive to successful cooperative learning. Inclusion, the first stage, develops a sense of belonging and self-awareness. The second stage, influence, gives students opportunities to work on the issues of leadership and power which evolve in group dynamics. The third stage, openness, emphasizes relationship skills. It is in this third stage that students deal with real life issues that directly relate to Glasser's five basic needs, as documented previously.

Openness is a prerequisite in developing the fourth stage, community. Although these developmental stages are sequential, students have the need to spiral back and forth. Development of community has to be on-going within the classroom. As students develop, the sense of community grows stronger and empowers students to make stronger academic gains (Shaw, 1992).

Gibbs (1994) similarly reported that developing a caring community takes more than cooperative lessons. She establishes three stages necessary in developing a supportive atmosphere that encourages human growth and learning. While the structure included the following three stages of group development: inclusion, influence and community; it also included the internalizing of four community agreements that promote listening, respect and appreciation for differences. Gibbs also considered learning to be a social event. Nevertheless, before students could work on a task they needed to know each other as well as feel valued for their uniqueness. Gibbs' structure provided the opportunities for this type of positive interaction. An important difference



between this model and cooperative learning models is the transfer of leadership from the teacher to the groups during the influence stage. During this transference, students gain self-worth and become internally motivated.

Teaching students to resolve conflicts constructively helps to develop a cooperative atmosphere. If the school's atmosphere is competitive or individualistic, teaching conflict resolution skills was found to be ineffective (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

Programs should not attempt to eliminate all conflicts, as some conflicts bring about positive results (Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Kreidler, 1984). Conflict plays a vital role in the learning process. It leads to creative problem solving and creates the changes needed to stimulate growth (Kreidler, 1984). An attempt to suppress conflict in school may be a contributing factor to increased school violence (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Instead, schools need to create an atmosphere that gives students the opportunity to manage conflict positively (Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Curwin, 1995).

The programs aimed at reducing conflict are most effective when students interact cooperatively in a learning community. These programs do not focus on changing the individual's behavior. When focus is put on creating an infrastructure of caring and supportive long-term relationships, students do not feel alienated from peers and therefore engage less frequently in violent acts against each other (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).



Mendler (1992) suggested that to effectively aid students in solving conflicts they must be encouraged to become decision-makers. This means students involved in the conflict have to identify the problem, identify possible causes for the problem, and discuss positive alternatives to solve the problem. He further stated that by teaching communication strategies, such as I-statements, students are better equipped to solve conflicts peacefully. Arbus (1994) and Kreidler (1984) agreed that in order to teach students how to be respectful and courteous of each other, they need to be involved in discussions that aid in developing their communication skills. It is also necessary for students to be seated so they are facing each other (Arbus, 1994; Kreidler, 1984). Arbus (1994) stated this was crucial in creating a climate of safety and trust within the classroom. She further suggested using the "learning circle" as a way to validate students' thoughts and feelings and as a basis for implementing a conflict resolution strategy.

Committee for Children's (1992) Second Step program reported that by developing the skills of empathy, impulse control and anger management; students could learn socially acceptable ways of handling conflicts. By teaching empathy, students create a bond that reduces conflicts and encourages peaceful negotiations. By including impulse control and anger management, students are able to decide what to do about a problem as well as knowing ways to solve it.

Many students' school progress is hindered by their intellectual impairments. Several critical or higher-order thinking skills are needed by the



students to manage, control and understand their behaviors. Also, critical thinking is essential to academic achievement. According to Craig (1992), teaching sequential memory and ordinal positioning is needed by the student to understand the many dilemmas, conflicts and events of the typical school day. Further, those who are brought up in families where rules and schedules are inconsistent and unpredictable have difficulty sequentially ordering their lives. Craig also said because the typical school curriculum requires sequential ordering, many students are unable to apply the needed skill to their school tasks.

According to Fogarty and Bellanca (1993), it is necessary to teach critical thinking skills so that students can problem solve and make decisions. Related to solving a problem, is seeing the relationship between causes and effects.

According to Craig (1992), the ability to problem solve and make predictions and inferences are cognitive processes necessary for school success. Without the ability to do that, one could not set goals, an important component in the everyday school situations. Ultimately, students benefit from being able to evaluate their metacognition and learning. According to Fogarty & Bellanca (1993), higher-order thinking skills allow for that evaluation. Those teachers who want their students to become proficient in higher-order thinking are most successful when they use cooperative learning to teach the skills, as opposed to competitive or individualistic learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).



Knapp, Shields, and Turnbull (1995) stated that students from high poverty backgrounds who are exposed to a curriculum stressing meaning are likely to show a greater ability to understand more advanced skills at the end of the school year. A meaningful curriculum that they studied included the following instructional elements: helping students see the parts fit together to make a whole, providing tools to build meaning in personal and academic situations and making the connections clear between subject areas and school and home life. Their study found no relations to higher-order thinking with the following areas: extra time spent in instructions, learning more discrete basic skills, or the teacher's ability to provide instruction. Finally, they felt that their study showed that high-poverty students did not have to master all of the relevant basic skills before being challenged with higher-level thinking, and meaning-oriented curriculums worked as well for lower performance students as those who perform high.

Beyer said thinking skills must be formally taught with a formal lesson plan. The following six components make up the plan: focus activity; lesson objective communicated by sight and sound so students understand what the teacher's expectations are; input to introduce the thinking skill in the form of a definition, operation, and/or an experiment requiring student thought through a problem; structured activity to apply information about the skill; metacognitive discussion to process the activity; and closure to evaluate how well the skill was



mastered. After mastery of the skill, the student transfers their knowledge by using the skill in a subject area (Fogarty & Bellanca, 1993).

Project Outcomes and Solution Components

The following objectives are proposed to reduce the problem as documented.

As a result of using cooperative learning groups and focusing on development of higher-level thinking and social skills during the period of September, 1995 through January, 1996, the targeted classes will increase academics and peer communication skills as measured by teacher journals, student interviews, teacher checklists, and student surveys.

In order to accomplish the terminal objective, the following processes are necessary:

- 1. Base groups will be formed in order to foster community, trust, and social skills among group members.
- Students will be given problem-solving tasks which require
 higher-order thinking skills to resolve both academic and interpersonal conflict
 concerns.

In order to achieve a decrease in number of disruptive incidents and increase students' ability to manage conflict positively, the following will be done:

As a result of implementing a violence prevention curriculum during the period of September 1995 through January of 1996, the targeted students will decrease the number of disruptive incidents and increase the ability to manage conflict positively as measured by teacher journals, student interviews, teacher checklists, and student surveys.



In order to accomplish the terminal objective, the following processes are necessary:

- 1. Create a caring atmosphere.
- 2. Use materials that promote positive conflict management.
- Implement lessons and teaching strategies that promote positive conflict management.

Action Plan for the Intervention

- 1. Cooperative Learning (Appendices D through N)
 - A. Groups
 - 1. Mixed gender, ability, culturally diverse
 - 2. Temperament
 - 3. Size: 2-4 students
 - 4. Base and task groups
 - 5. Formal instruction done daily by classroom teachers
 - B. Social Skills
 - 1. Basic Interactions
 - a. Make eye contact
 - b. Use each other's name
 - c. Share materials
 - 2. Content
 - a. Communication skills
 - 1. Listen to the speaker:
 - a. J.O.Y (Gibbs, 1991)
 - b. Gallery Walks (Gibbs, 1991)
 - c. Spiderweb (Gibbs, 1991)
 - d. Teaching listening (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 2. Everyone participates
 - a. People search (Gibbs, 1991)
 - b. Fuzzyland map (Shaw, 1992)
 - c. Alphabetical round robin (Shaw, 1992)
 - 3. Use of affirmations
 - a: Alliterative names (Shaw, 1992)
 - b. Affirmation put down brainstorm (Shaw,1992)
 - 4. Disagree with the person not the idea



- 5. Check for understanding: Teacher talk (Shaw, 1992)
- b. Team Building
 - 1. Encourage and energize each other: Creative storytelling (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 2. Offer your help: Peer study groups
 - 3. Interdependence: Pantomime (Gibbs, 1991)
- c. Conflict Management
 - 1. Reach consensus or agree to disagree: Gallery Brainstorming (Shaw, 1992)
 - 2. Respect others: Singing the blues (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 3. Think for yourself
 - a. Surveys
 - b. Individual brainstorm later combined with pairs and triads
 - 4. Explore points of view
 - a. Human graph in corners (Shaw, 1992)
 - b. Shoe and tell (Gibbs, 1991)
 - c. Tribe graffiti (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 5. Negotiate/compromise
 - a. Group project
 - b. Group collage
- 3. Scheduling
 - a. Formal skill introduction once a week
 - b. Reinforced daily
- 4. Teaching strategy
 - a. T-chart
 - b. Role playing
 - c. Modeling
 - d. Planned activities for transfer
 - 1. Agree/disagree chart
 - 2. Web
 - 3. Problem solving situation cards (Borba & Borba, 1982)
 - 4. Cause and effect flow chart
 - 5. PMI
 - 6. Individual checklist (Shaw, 1992)
 - 7. Matrix (Shaw, 1992)
- 5. Assessment
 - a. Processing after each formal lesson
 - b. Teacher quarterly checklist (Appendix C)
 - c. On-going teacher journal
- C. Teaching strategies
 - 1. Brainstorming: Developing a classroom name (Shaw,1992)
 - 2. Fist to five



- 3. Round table
- 4. Think pair share
- 5. Inside-outside circle
- 6. Corners
- 7. Line-ups
- 8. Team projects
- 9. Choral response
- D. Management strategies
 - 1. Hand signals
 - 2. Goal setting
 - 3. Acknowledgment of put downs (ouch!)
- E. Assessment
 - 1. Mrs. Potters Questions (Fogarty & Bellanca, 1993)
 - 2. Goal processing
 - 3. Teacher journal
- II. Higher Order Thinking Skills (Appendices O through R)
 - A. Implementation
 - 1. Whole group
 - 2. Base group
 - 3. Task group
 - 4. Instructional objective presented three times a week
 - B. Skill development areas
 - 1. Analysis
 - 2. Synthesis
 - 3. Evaluation
 - C. Methods
 - 1. Thinking log: record of student's reactions
 - 2. Lead in: stem statements (Fogerty and Bellanca, 1986)
 - 3. Wraparound: students listen and share thoughts on topics
 - 4. Visual formats (graphic organizers) (Bellanca, 1992, 1990)
 - a. Analysis
 - 1. KWL (analyze)
 - 2. Information chart
 - 3. Fat and skinny question
 - 4. T-chart
 - 5. Gathering grid (analyze, compare/contrast)
 - 6. Question matrix
 - 7. Scale (analyze)
 - 8. Frame (sequence)
 - 9. Problem solving chart
 - 10. Decision makers flow chart
 - 11. Venn diagrams (compare/contrast)
 - 12. Spectrum (sequence)
 - 13. Web (separate, clarify)
 - 14. Mind map (relate)



- 15. Pie chart (relate)
- 16. Fish bone (cause/effect)
- 17. Agree/disagree (analyze)
- 18. Sequence chart (analyze)
- b. Synthesis
 - 1. Prediction tree (predict, infer)
 - 2. Fat and skinny questions
 - 3. Problem solving chart
 - 4. Decision makers flow chart
 - 5. Grid (construct)
- c. Evaluation
 - 1. KWL (evaluate)
 - 2. PMI
 - 3. Information chart
 - 4. Scale
 - 5. Problem solving chart
 - 6. Decision makers flow chart
 - 7. Ranking ladder (evaluate)
 - 8. Target (judge, decide)
 - 9. Agree/disagree (evaluate)
- 5. Critical thinking questions (Bellanca & Fogarty, 1993)
- 6. Creative problem solving
 - a. Critical thinking activities (Hayes & Sebastian, 1989)
 - b. Logic activities (Daniel, 1992)
- D. Assessment
 - 1. Teacher journal
 - 2. Learning and thinking logs
- III. Community Building (Appendices S through X)
 - A. Caring atmosphere (Borba & Borba, 1982)
 - 1. Community standards (rules) stated positively, agreed upon by both the student and the teacher
 - a. Content
 - 1. Avoid publicly criticizing others and self
 - 2. Think before you speak
 - 3. Show a caring attitude
 - b. Teaching strategy
 - 1. T-charts
 - 2. Modeling/role-playing
 - 3. Testing for understanding
 - 4. Review and reteach
 - 5. Checking for transfer
 - 2. Classroom elements
 - a. Affirmation statements
 - 1. Positive statements displayed
 - 2. Student-teacher message board



- 3. Affirmation suggestions posted
- b. Student created bulletin board
 - 1. 3-4 students chosen to increase positive interaction
 - 2. Centered around a student relaxation area
 - 3. Supplies and time limits given
 - 4. Changed monthly
- c. Items designated for the development of peacefulness
 - 1. Audio relaxation tapes
 - 2. Quiet and comfortable area for self-reflection
 - 3. Discipline with Dignity management philosophy

B. Trust Building

- 1. Class energizers
 - a. Koosh toss (three ball pass)
 - b. Hoola-hoop pass
 - c. Rain (Gibbs, 1991)
 - d. I love you, honey (Gibbs, 1991)
 - e. "I love all the class but I especially love..."
 - f. Hagoo (Gibbs, 1991)
 - g. Alligator line-up
 - h. Knots (Gibbs, 1991)
 - I. Hand clap
- 2. Team activities
 - a. Business cards
 - b. Picture frames
 - c. Shields/crests
 - d. Large group murals
 - e. Skits and plays
 - f. Mindwebbing (Stanish, 1988)
 - g. Cooperative building structures
 - h. Compliment survey (Stanish, 1988)
 - i. Respect (Stanish, 1988)
 - j. Value ranking (Stanish, 1988)
 - k. Flowering activity (Stanish. 1988)
 - I. Giving quilt (Stanish, 1988)
 - m. Warm fuzzies (Gibbs, 1991)
 - n. Five tribles (Gibbs, 1991)
- 3. Implementation
 - a. Twice weekly
 - b. Whole group
 - c. Base group
 - d. Task group
- 4. Assessment
 - a. Teacher journal
 - b. Process after each activity



- 1. Mrs. Potters questions (Fogarty & Bellanca, 1993)
- 2. PMI
- 3. Individual and group evaluations
- 4. I message statement starters (Shaw, 1992)
- 5. Student logs
- C. Conflict management
 - 1. Skill development areas
 - a. Empathy
 - 1. Learning circle
 - 2. Second Step curriculum
 - b. Impulse control
 - 1. Learning circle
 - 2. Second Step curriculum
 - c. Anger management
 - 1. Learning circle
 - 2. Second Step curriculum
 - d. Communication
 - 1. Types of conflict (Shaw, 1992)
 - 2. Eight models of conflict resolution (Shaw, 1992)
 - 3. Cooperative conflict (Shaw, 1992)
 - 4. Assertive communication (Shaw, 1992)
 - 5. I statements (Shaw, 1992)
 - 6. Confrontation I statements (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 7. Animal triads (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 8. Teaching I messages (Gibbs, 1991)
 - 9. Learning Circle
 - 2. Schoolwide adopted programs
 - a. Second Step curriculum (Committee for Children, 1992)
 - b. Discipline with Dignity (Curwin & Mendler, 1988)
- D. Community service project
- E. Assessment
 - 1. Teacher journal
 - 2. Learning and thinking logs

(Committee for Children, 1992)

- 3. Discipline with dignity (Curwin & Mendler, 1988)
- 4. Quarterly problem solving interview (Appendix A)
- 5. Student questionnaire, "How I Respond to Conflict" (Kreidler, 1984) (Appendix B)



Methods of Assessment

In order to assess the effects of the intervention, four measurement tools will be used. Students will be given a questionnaire quarterly to assess how they respond to conflicts (Appendix B). A small group of randomly selected students will be interviewed quarterly to assess their problem solving skills (Appendix A). Teachers will assess negative peer interaction using an observation checklist (Appendix C). Observations on social skill usage will be done over a one week period each quarter. Finally, teachers will keep an on-going journal to assess student academic achievement.



Chapter 4 PROJECT RESULTS

<u>Historical Description of Intervention</u>

The objective of this project was to increase academic achievement by improving peer communication skills, and the ability to manage peer conflict positively while decreasing the number of disruptive incidents. Cooperative learning teams, community building activities, higher-order thinking skills and conflict management strategies were selected to effect the desired changes.

Cooperative learning groups were established the second week of school and were maintained throughout the intervention. Formal social skill instruction was presented once a week with daily reinforcement. The social skills emphasized included communication, team building and conflict management skills. A sample of these lessons and a schedule can be found in Appendices D through J and Y. A variety of teaching and management strategies were used during the cooperative learning structure. See Appendices K through N for sample strategies.

Implementation of higher-order thinking skills occurred in whole, base and task groups during the second week of school. Various methods were used to accomplish instructional objectives. A half hour of instructional time, three



times per week, was devoted to the skill development areas of analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Lesson plans devoted to these skill development areas can be found in Appendices O through R.

A sense of community was developed in the classroom by creating a caring atmosphere, developing trust and teaching conflict management skills. To develop a caring atmosphere community standards were agreed upon by the teacher and students. Classroom elements included the use of affirmation statements, student-created bulletin boards and strategies that encouraged a peaceful environment including the <u>Discipline with Dignity</u> management philosophy. The foundation for classroom trust was built by using class energizers and cooperative team activities. Trust building activities can be found in Appendices S and T. Due to time constraints, these trust building activities were reduced to implementation of once per week. In addition, a community service project was implemented at school B.

Conflict management skills were used to teach empathy, impulse control, anger management and effective communication skills. A sample of conflict management lessons can be found in Appendices U through X. Instruction in these skill areas began the second week of school and continued for 30 minutes weekly through the end of January. Both schools A and B adopted <u>Discipline</u> with <u>Dignity</u> and the Second Step Curriculum.



Presentation and Analysis of Results

In order to assess the effects of conflict management instruction, students were given a pre and post questionnaire to assess how they responded to conflicts. These data were aggregated at the beginning of the first quarter and late in the second quarter and are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

How Students Respond to Conflict
3rd Grade, 4th Grade and Reading Class Students
Responding in Each Category
Sept. '95 and Jan. '96

Statement, I try to	Alw	Someti	imes	Nev	er	No. Responses		
	%		%		%			
<u></u>	Sept	Jan.	Sept.	Jan.	Sept	Jan.	Sept.	Jan.
Get help from another kid	20	12	39	47	41	44	44	36
Talk it out	30	16	47	42	26	47	43	36
Understand the other point of view	35	20	35	51	30	29	43	35
Get help from a grown-up	37	17	40	53	23	31	43	36
Apologize myself	33	25	48	53	19	22	42	35
Find out what the problem is	33	27	45	56	21	17		36
Listen to the other kid	30	17	33	42	40	42	43	36
Tell the kid to leave me alone	30	28	51	50	19	17	43	35
Hit the other person	6	4	70	24	23	19	44	35
Make the other kid apologize	26	28	37	53	37	19	43	36
Say swear words	15	13	41	25	44	61	39	36
Get friends to gang-up on the other kid	15	8	22	47	63	44	41	36
Run away	11	6	41	27	48	66		36
Make a joke of it	10	3	36	42	55	55		36
Ignore it	34	14	30	58	36	24		36



Approximately one-fourth responded in January as compared to three-fourths in September that they would resort to using physical violence as a means to solving conflict. As in September, almost half reported that they do not make a point of listening to the other person. The majority showed an awareness of positive alternatives for handling conflict and were more likely to implement them in their personal lives. Again the responses showed that whether positively or negatively, the students chose to deal with the conflict rather than to avoid it.

In order to assess the students' conflict management/problem solving skills, a small group of randomly selected students were interviewed in late September and late January (Appendix A). In January, 86 percent of the responses, as compared to 50 percent in September, indicated that peers would choose a negative behavior in reaction to a problem situation. Approximately 85 percent of the student responses continued to infer blame rather than seek additional information as the cause of the behavior. More than two-thirds of the student responses (71 percent in January as compared to 66 percent in September) indicated they would choose a conflict management strategy as a means of problem solving. In both interviews, when students were asked to identify with the feelings of the perpetrating character, 50 percent of the responses revealed the character would show remorse. The last interview question asked students to internalize feelings of the victimized character. In



January, 57 percent of the student responses as compared to 50 percent in September, empathized by showing feelings of sadness.

Teachers assessed negative peer interaction using a week-long observation checklist during the months of September and January. These data are presented in Table 4.

Number of Incidents Reported on Teacher Observation Checklist Sept. '95 and Jan. '96

Classes:	3	rd	4	th	Read	ling	To	tals
Behavior Category	Sept.	Jan.	Sept.	Jan.	Sept.	Jan.	Sept.	Jan.
Put-downs	45	3	38	13	11	6	92	22
Uncooperative	24	9	22	17	14	5	- 60	31
Touch/Push/Kick	32	3	15	14	19	0	66	17
Endangering	0	0	2	0	2	0	4	Ð
Threatening	4	2	3	0	3	0	10	2

As the data in Table 4 indicate, the number of discipline incidents in all categories has decreased. The number of put-downs and touching, pushing, and kicking incidents decreased by 77 percent and 74 percent respectively. During the week-long observation in January, no incidents of endangerment were observed. The number of peer threats decreased by four-fifths.



Uncooperative behaviors showed the least amount of change (a 49% decrease) as compared to the other categories. This information is illustrated in Figure 1.

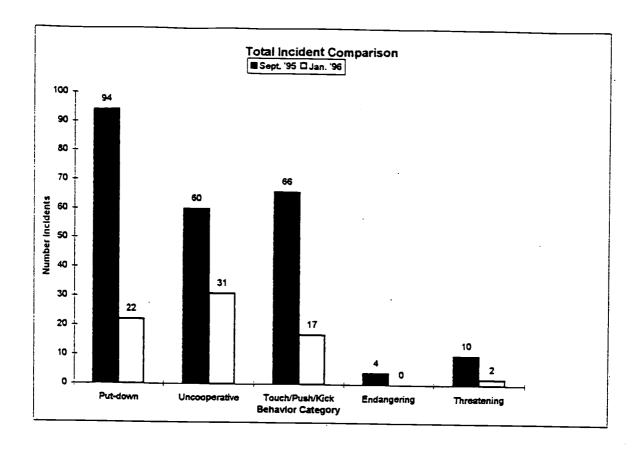


Figure 1

Number of Incidents Reported on Teacher Observation Checklist
Sept. '95 and Jan. '96

Prior to treatment, all teacher journals reflected that students were involved in several conflicts a week which varied in intensity. Students seemed to react without thought to a conflict whether it was initiated by verbal or physical aggression. A considerable amount of academic class time was often spent



dealing with disruptions. Unstructured activities, such as recess time, appeared to escalate frequency and intensity of conflicts. Students did not take time to listen to the other person's point of view or to discover the cause of the problem. Conflicts never seemed to be resolved and would re-ignite involving other students throughout the school day.

As treatment was initiated, we began to see more communication between students. Students began to choose strategies such as I-statements to discuss conflicts. We also observed more polite behavior and compassion between students as they interacted on a day-to-day basis. Less teaching/learning time was spent dealing with conflicts and disruptions. Teacher entries noted a shift from teacher directed resolution to a more student initiated resolution. Students assumed more responsibility for behavior management within the classroom teams and among individuals. This was positively effected by the use of circle time and Second Step. Although students' communication skills improved when dealing with verbal conflicts, these strategies did not appear to be utilized when dealing with conflicts involving physical aggression. When dealing with physical assaults of any nature, students still responded with hitting or another form of physical aggression.

Academically, at school A, students were unable to work independently, had difficulty cooperating with a partner to complete a task, and could not process the contents of the lesson. Students were observed quitting or waiting until assistance was available rather than attempting to work on it alone.



As intervention was delivered and cooperative teams were established, students were there to assist each other. This provided students the support and motivation to work on the given task and another person to help problem solve. Interaction during cooperative team work boosted their self-confidence and made them feel more secure with an uncomfortable task. When students initiated peer tutoring within the teams, comprehension levels seemed to have increased for many students. They began communicating with teammates at a higher level and with more detailed thinking than students of former classes.

Developing higher-order thinking skills seemed to have produced better developed writing samples in student journals and more thoughtful responses. More often, as compared to former classes, there was evidence of application and transfer of knowledge learned in one academic area to work in special classes, such as music and art. For example, knowledge, learned through the Second Step empathy lessons that dealt with how to inquire and respond to friends with hurt feelings, was transferred and used in making predictions with evidence in reading about a biography of Harriet Tubman and later in music while translating Underground Railroad songs.

There was a remarkable difference observed in the students' ability to solve logic or critical thinking problems. A variety of strategies were seen used, such as diagramming and patterning, in order to understand and solve daily critical thinking problems and higher-level math story problems. In addition, use of graphic organizers and higher-level questioning/processing led to a greater



understanding for many students. Frequent use of graphic organizers by the teachers seemed to have had an impact on the students. Several graphic organizers were utilized by the students on their own accord to visualize and organize concepts. Responses on the graphic organizers demonstrated a higher-level understanding.

Although still a deficient area, students' writing skills showed an increase in the ability to communicate thoughts on paper. This may be attributed to their training in communication skills and the writing performed in learning logs during math instruction.

It has been observed that there is more cultural awareness as compared to former classes. Students questioned whether issues that were of concern in their culture were also areas of concern in other cultures, such as gangs, violence, and interpersonal problems.

In school B, intervention took place during the reading block. The teacher's journal, student grades, and student portfolios were used to assess results in the following areas: employment of reading strategies, oral and written response to literature, fluency, and vocabulary development. In comparing student achievement from September to January, many gains were evident. The teacher journal noted increases in students' use of two reading strategies.

Students were naturally reflecting on reading assignments, both with each other as well as with the teacher. Often, they would make connections to personal experience or prior knowledge. Also, many students were rereading and



checking back as they clarified understanding to complete assignments. Written responses in January were stated in complete sentences with good support more often than in September, as compared in student portfolios. All parts of the questions were addressed in answers by most students in January, as compared to very few students giving complete responses in September. By January, oral responses included many interpretive statements requiring higher-order thinking skills. During partner reading it was evident that student fluency was increasing, especially noting that the level of difficulty of reading material was being increased. Vocabulary development was evident as students' writings and conversation included the addition of many words studied.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the presentation and analysis of the data from teacher checklists, student surveys, student interviews, and teacher journals, all elements of the intervention seemed to have had a positive impact within our classrooms. The skills gained during cooperative learning and community building appear to have transferred to interpersonal behavior. By creating a sense of community in the classroom and focusing on conflict resolution skills less teacher time was spent intervening in students' disputes. With the inclusion of higher-order thinking skills, not only did students increase their problem solving ability with peer communication, but these skills also appeared to directly impact academic achievement.



Although the intervention had a positive impact within our classrooms, it could be more effective with a higher level of transfer if the strategies were implemented school-wide. Due to constraints of the district-wide law suit, administration's priorities were to focus on raising standardized test scores. This involved large amounts of time devoted to test-taking preparation and left little time for formal instruction of social skills and communication. The district did prioritize the teaching of higher-order thinking skills which we believe had a positive effect on the outcome of our treatment. It is recommended that social skills be taught within a cooperative learning structure, as well as conflict resolution skills, throughout the school so that more transfer is seen outside the classroom such as in the cafeteria and playground.

A further recommendation would be to incorporate school-wide support through staff development. Peer/researcher meetings would be helpful to encourage one another throughout the project. Teachers can feel a sense of isolation without peer support or dialogue. We would suggest planning structured meetings with peer partners to debrief and assess implementation, partner journaling and peer coaching periodically during the intervention.



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APPENDICES



Problem Solving Interview

All through life people experience problems at school, at home, and at work. Since we are all unique individuals, we have different ways of solving the problems we experience.

I am going to tell you about something that happened between two students, Pat and Terry. After hearing the story, I will ask you some questions. There are no right or wrong answers.

Scenario 1

Pat is a classmate who sits next to Terry. This morning Terry placed an expensive watch that was very special inside the desk. Only Pat knew about the watch. After lunch, Terry discovered it was missing.

Scenario 2

Terry and Pat have known each other for the past year. Terry liked working with Pat in groups because Pat was a hard worker. At times, however, Pat was difficult to get along with. Terry talked to the teacher about this and felt the situation was getting better. Today, on the way to music, Pat pushed Terry.

Scenario 3

Terry and Pat have been friends since the beginning of the school year. They walk to school together, play together at recess, and stay over at each other's house. Three days ago a new student, Brad, arrived in the class and the teacher asked Terry to be his pal. Terry and Brad have been spending all their time together. Today at recess a classmate says that Pat is saying bad things about Terry.

Scenario 4

Today Terry was the only one to get 100% on the story test. Terry's teacher made a big deal about it in front of the whole class. Pat, who has a difficult time reading, failed the test. When it is time to change classes, Pat calls Terry a name in front of all the other classmates.



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Questions

- 1. What do you think most kids your age would do in this situation?
- 2. In your opinion, what caused Pat to behave the way he/she did?
- 3. If you were Terry, how would you handle this problem?
- 4. Name some feelings that Pat might have?
- 5. Name some feelings that Terry might have?



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How I Respond to Conflicts

Fill in the appropriate circle for things you always, sometimes, or never do.

	Always	Sometimes	Never
When there's a conflict, I try to:			
1. hit the other person	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
2. run away	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	
3. get help from another kid	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	
4. talk it out	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	
5. ignore it	\bigcirc		
6. understand the other point of view		\bigcirc	\bigcirc
7. make a joke of it	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc
8. get help from a grown-up			
9. make the other kid apologize			0
10. apologize myself	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
11. find out what the problem is	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
12. listen to the other kid	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	0
13. tell the kid to leave me alone	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	O
14. say swear words		\bigcirc	\bigcirc
15. get friends to gang up on the other kid	\bigcirc	\bigcirc	\bigcirc

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Threatening a																							
Endangering a Peer. Physically																							
Touching, Pushing & Kicking					-																		
Uncooperative																							
Put-downs:																			٠				
Who																							
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Teaching

Listening

2-adult

tribe

none

30 minutes

Grades:

Grouping:

Materials:

Time:

Objectives

- 1. To practice components of attentive listening:
 - Attending
 - Paraphrasing
 - Reflecting feelings
- 2. To share ideas and feelings about any given topic
- 3. To build inclusion

Instructions

- 1. Discuss and demonstrate attentive listening skills (refer to chapter 5). Write components on chalkboard.
- 2. Ask the students to form triads, and designate each triad member as an A, B, or C. Ask for a show of hands of all A's, all B's and all C's to avoid confusion.
- 3. Explain that each triad member will have an opportunity to play each role; in round 1, A will observe, B will be the speaker, and C will be the listener. Post this chart:

	Α	В	С
Round 1	Observer	Speaker	Listener
Round 2	Speaker	Listener	Observer
Round 3	Listener	Observer	Speaker

- 5. Give the speakers a topic of your choice (depending on age) to speak on for two to five minutes.
 - Example: "Should students be allowed to vote?"
- Ask the listeners to practice one or two components of attentive listening.
- 7. Ask the observers to pay attention to the interaction and after two to five minutes give feedback to the listeners. Ask them to include what they saw the listener doing both verbally and nonverbally, and their observations of how the speakers responded.
- Have the Tribes repeat the process until all three members have had an opportunity to be observers, speakers, and listeners.

Suggested Reflection Questions

Content/Thinking

- Why was it important to have an observer?
- · How can you be a good listener, speaker, or observer?

Social

- How can you tell if someone is being a good listener?
- Why is listening such an important social skill?

Personal

- How did it feel to be listened to in that way?
- How well did you attend, paraphrase, and reflect feelings?

Appreciation

Invite statements of appreciation:

- "I liked it when..."
- "I felt good when..."



TRIBES • Strategies and Energizers

Fuzzyland Map

Grades:

K-3

Time: Grouping: 40 minutes

Grouping: tribes, subgroups
Materials: 24 x 36-inch paper,

markers, crayons

Objectives

- 1. To build tribe inclusion
- 3. To understand the importance of kindness to others
- 4. To learn to work cooperatively on tasks

Instructions

- 1. Ask the community to meet in tribes.
- 2. Read, or preferably tell, the story "Fuzzyland."
- 3. Discuss and clarify the meaning of the story. Ask questions such as:
 - What is a warm fuzzy? A cold prickly?
 - Why, did people in the story, need warm fuzzies?
 - Why did people stop giving warm fuzzies freely after the witch cast her spell?
- 4. Give each tribe a large sheet of paper and colored markers or crayons.
- 5. Review the agreements. Ask each tribe to create a map of Fuzzyland, with each tribe member drawing some part of the map.
- 6. Visit each tribe to make sure the instructions are clear.
- 7. Ask each tribe to share its map with the community. Encourage each student to share what he or she has contributed.

Suggested Reflection Questions

Content/Thinking

- What did you learn from the story of Fuzzyland?
- Why did I have you create maps?

Social

- · Name two things your tribe did well while working together.
- How well did you share ideas, materials, etc.?
- Did everyone participate?

Personal

 Would you like to give something nice to someone in your family? To whom? What would it be?

Appreciation

Invite tribe members to give each other warm fuzzies, such as:

- "I liked it when you said..."
- "You're neat because..."
- "I'm like you when..."



TRIBES • Strategies and Energizers

Fuzzyland

Once upon a time, a long time ago and far from here, there was a place called Fuzzyland. People were very happy in Fuzzyland because in those happy times everyone at birth was given a small, soft, fuzzy bag. Any time a person reached into this bag he was able to pull out a warm fuzzy. Warm fuzzies were very much in demand because whenever somebody was given a warm fuzzy, it made him feel warm and good all over. People who didn't get warm fuzzies regularly were in danger of developing a sickness called "Fuzzy Deficiency Anemia." Their backs would shrivel up, and they would shrink up so much in size that they would hide from people.

In those days it was very easy to get warm fuzzies. Anytime you wanted a warm fuzzy, all you had to do was walk up to someone and say, "I'd like a warm fuzzy, please." The person would then reach into his bag and pull out a fuzzy the size of a little girl's hand. As soon as the fuzzy saw the light of day, it would smile and blossom into a large, shaggy warm fuzzy. The person would then lay it on your shoulder or head or lap and it would snuggle up and make you feel good all over. Fuzzies were always given freely, and getting enough of them was never a problem. Fuzzyland was a happy place because everyone felt so friendly and kind to each other.

One day, a bad witch came to Fuzzyland and tried to sell people her strange potions and salves. When no one wanted to buy them, she became very angry and cast an evil magic spell on the people of Fuzzyland. The spell made the people believe that warm fuzzies were getting scarce and that eventually the supply would run out. So people reached less and less into their fuzzy bags and became very stingy. Everyone began to notice the lack of warm fuzzies, and newspapers carried stories about the "great fuzzy shortage." People started to feel that they were shrinking, so they went to the witch to buy her potions and salves, even though they didn't seem to work at all.

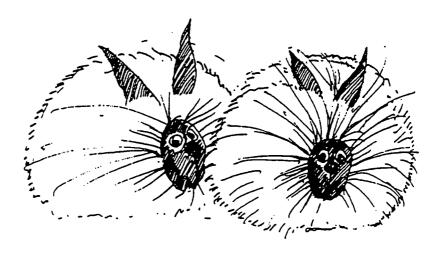
The bad witch didn't really want people to shrink and hide. Who then would buy things from her? So she devised a new scheme. She gave everyone bags that were very similar to fuzzy bags, except these were cold instead of warm. Inside the bags were cold pricklies. These cold pricklies did not make people feel warm and fuzzy but made them feel cold, prickly, and crabby. From then on, people who would not share warm fuzzies would give away cold pricklies.

A lot of people were unhappy, feeling very cold, prickly, and crabby. Remember, it really all began with the coming of the bad witch, who made people believe that there was beginning to be a shortage of warm fuzzies in their land.

Finally, on one sunny day, a good witch arrived in Fuzzyland. She had not heard about the bad witch and wasn't worried about running out of warm fuzzies at all. She gave them freely to everyone. The kind witch knew that cold pricklies were bad for people. She never ever would give anyone a



cold prickly. Many people disapproved of her because she was giving children the idea that they really should never worry about running out of warm fuzzies. And then a new wonderful magic began to happen! Each time the good witch gave a child one of her warm fuzzies, the bad witch's evil spell was broken, and that child could break the evil spell again by giving someone else a warm fuzzy. Many people, children and grown-ups alike, were so used to exchanging cold pricklies that at first they refused to accept warm fuzzies. But the children whom the good witch had befriended kept giving warm fuzzies freely until everyone in Fuzzyland was once again feeling good and warm and fuzzy all over—everyone, that is, except the bad witch. They say that she just sneaked out of Fuzzyland one dark night, hoping to peddle her potions and crabbiness elsewhere.



This story was adapted from A Fairy Tale by Claude Steiner, Sacramento, CA: JALMAR. Press, Inc. 1977. Mr. Steiner gave permission for the adaptation and its use.



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Objectives

- 1. To encourage sharing
- 2. To encourage respect for individual differences
- 3. To experience inclusion and influence

Instructions

- 1. On large cards, print four animal names: lion, deer, fox, dove.
- 2. Suspend the animal signs from the ceiling in four areas of the classroom.
- 3. Ask each student to stand under the sign for the animal that they are most like when in their tribe. Encourage people to talk among themselves while they are deciding where to stand.
- 4. When all the students have chosen animals and have taken their places under the signs, ask them to share why they placed themselves where they did.
- 5. Continue the activity by repeating steps 3 and 4 with other situations. Examples:
 - How you are with your friends?
 - How you are with your family?
 - How are you by yourself?
 - How are you in a social situation with people you don't know?
- 6. Ask the students to meet in tribes and talk about their choices—why they stood where they did.
- 7. Have all write in their Personal Journals what they learned.

Suggested Reflection Questions

Content/Thinking

- What are the qualities of a lion/fox/dove/deer?
- What did you learn about other students in the community/yourself?

Social

- Why would you find it difficult to take a stand?
- How is taking a stand an important skill for all of us?

Personal

- · How did you feel when you took your stand?
- How did you feel sharing your reasons with the community?
- What did you learn about yourself?

Appreciation

Invite statements of appreciation:

- "I was interested when..."
- "I felt good when you said..."

Alternate Signs

- Mountain, river, ocean, meadow
- Piano, trumpet, drum, flute
- Have students suggest signs

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Where Do I Stand?

Grades:

3-adult

Time:

15-40 minutes

Grouping: Materials: community, tribes animal signs,

string, tape



Shoe 'n Tell:

Grades:

K-6

Time:

50 minutes

Grouping:

community, tribes

Materials:

each student brings

a pair of shoes in

a paper sack

Objectives

- 1. To build inclusion
- 2. To practice active listening
- 3. To have fun

Instructions

- I. Ask each student to bring a pair of his or her shoes from home in a paper sack. (Allow a few days.)
- 2. Have full group or tribe sit in circle(s).
- 3. Explain that sharing from the sack could take on any of these forms:
 - how these shoes help me to do things that I like to do
 - sharing from the point of view of the shoe (what it's like being the shoe that belongs to the person sharing)
 - Sharing from the point of view of the shoe (how I'd like to be taken care of if I could have it my way)

Suggested Reflection Questions

Content/Thinking

- How did the shoes tell you about the students who shared?
- How did you go about choosing the shoes you shared?

Social

• How did tribe members show they were interested?

Personal

• How did you feel sharing your shoes?

Appreciation

- Going around the circle, ask each student to give a statement of appreciation to the student on left.
- "[name], I like it when..."



Chapter 6: The T-Chart

Blueprints For Thinking in the Cooperative Classroom

THE T	-CHART
Looks Like	Sounds Like
•	
• •	



Blueprints For Thinking in the Cooperative Classroom

PMI CHART (PLUS/MINUS/INTERESTING QUESTIONS) (+) <u>A</u>

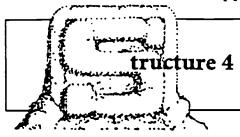


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Venn Diagram

Appendix J





Corners

See Lessons 1, 8, 28

Steps of Corners

- 1. Choose three, four, or five alternatives, post them in different parts of room.
- 2. Introduce Corners to students, give them think time, and have them record their choice.
- 3. Students go to corners and share in pairs or triads.
- 4. Spokespersons from each corner share with the class, after which students in other corners paraphrase.

Corners has a wide range of uses. It is particularly good for promoting an appreciation of individual differences. Students realize that they can be accepted while making choices which are different from their friends. Corners can be used as an ice breaker/inclusion activity, or to introduce

material at the beginning of a lesson. It can help students feel more comfortable with one another and gives students an opportunity for decision making.

Steps of Corners

1. Choose and Post Four Alternatives

To start Corners, you must choose three, four, or five dimensions which will allow students to make individual choices. The alternatives could be different animals, cars, famous people, or anything which can provide students an opportunity to express their individual preferences. See the suggestions at the end of this structure. Next, the four alternatives are written or drawn or both and are posted in the four corners of the room.

2. Students Look, Think, Write

Introduce the Corners activity to the students by telling them to look around the room at the different

signs posted. Ask students to choose the sign with which they most identify at the present moment. Give them 30-60 seconds to

decide. Then have students write their choice on a small slip of paper. For nonreaders the signs are color coded or numbered; they put the appropriate color or number on their paper.



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Structure 4 Chapter 6: 15



3. Students Move, Pair, and Share

Direct students to go to the corner with the sign they selected. Once by the sign, students form pairs or triads and discuss the reasons they chose as they did.

4. Students Discuss in Corners, Share with Class, then Paraphrase

Have pairs and triads meet with all others in their corner and share their reasons for choosing the corner. Once students have heard several reasons for choosing their corner a spokesperson from the corner shares the reasons with the class. Students in the other corners are then asked to pair up with someone in their corner to paraphrase what was just said. This process is repeated for each corner.

Comments on your use of Corners:

Corners Suggestions

1. Animals

Mountain Lion, Bear, Deer, Fox, Sheep, Horse, Goat, Bull, Elephant, Giraffe, Zebra, Gazelle

2. Sea Life

Whale, Shark, Dolphin, Swordfish, Trout, Salmon, Bass, Catfish, Squid, Octopus, Eel

3. Birds

Canary, Cockatoo, Parrot, Finch, Chicken, Duck, Turkey, Goose, Dove, Eagle, Robin, Crow

4. Trees

Oak, Willow, Mountain Pine, Sycamore, Apple, Orange, Plum, Apricot

5. Flowers

Orchid, Daisy, Rose, Lily, Tulip, Mum

6. Buildings

Skyscraper, Cottage, Palace, Restaurant, Cabin, Tent, Castle

7. Fast Food

McDonald's, Carl's Jr., Burger King, Wendy's, Taco Bell

8. Colors

Red, Blue, Green, Yellow, Forest Green, Lime, Turquoise, Light Green

9. Vehicles

Porsche, GTO, Mercedes, Maserati, Pick-up, Limousine, Sports Car, Sedan, Bicycle, Roller Skates, Skis, Skateboard

10. Boats

Row boat, Power boat, Sail boat, Canoe, Steam ship

11. Famous People

George Bush, Joe Montana, Rock Star, Movie Star, Sports Star, Statesman, Writer, Poet, Inventor, Scientist

12. Jobs

State Governor, State Senator, Congress Person, Mayor, Doctor, Lawyer, Teacher, Policeman

13. Seasons

Spring, Summer, Winter, Fall

14. Places

Big City, Country, Small Town, Suburb, School, Home, Friend's Home, Neighbor's, Moon, Jupiter, Neptune, The Sun, River, Mountain, Valley, Ocean

15. Siblings

None, One, Two, Three or More

16. Birth Order

Only Child, youngest, Middle, Oldest

17. Favorite Number

One, Seven, Ten, Five, Two, Three, Four

18. Metaphors

Flowing River, Babbling Brook, Calm Lake, Rough Seas, Mountain Top, Meadow, Dark Cave

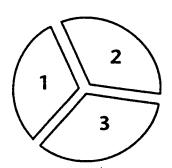
19. Literature

Four Endings To A Story, Characters In A Story, Vocabulary Words, Favorite Books, Stories, Authors

Note: Alternatives do not have to be just one word, consider these: Four definitions of a friend, four topic sentences, four alternative art pieces, four geometry proofs, and four science hypotheses.

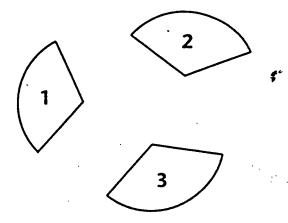


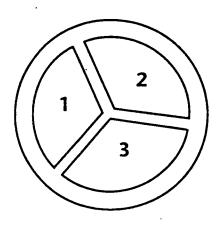
JIGSAW



Base Group (Members divide work.)

Individual Work (Members decide what's important and how to teach their fellow group members.)





Base Group (Members teach each other.)

TWO DECISIONS

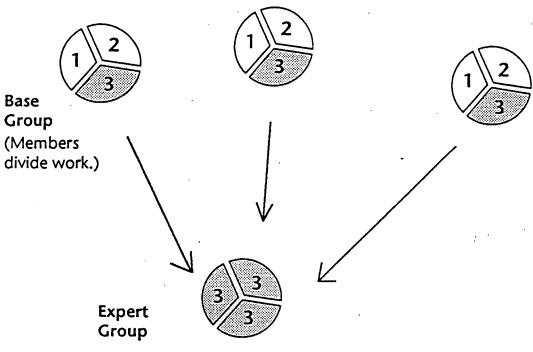
#1 What to teach . . .

#2 How to teach it . . .



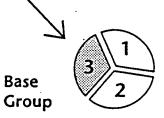


EXPERT JIGSAW



(Experts for a section agree on what's important and how they can teach their base group members.)

> (Experts return to their base groups to take turns teaching each other.)



Base

TWO DECISIONS

#1 What to teach . . .

#2 How to teach it . . .

Chapter 12, page 234



3

COOPERATIVE STRATEGIES

1. Turn to Your Neighbor and...(say/write/draw)

days of week a.

e. metric terms

nouns in room h

f. symbols for minerals

c. words that end with "e"

g. parts of an auto engine

pairs of homonyms

Students are randomly called upon to give/show group response.

2. Think-Pair-Share

The teacher asks a question, all students have time to think, the students talk in pairs, and finally some sharing takes place in the large group (Winner's Envelope for random, or volunteers tell what their partner said).

3. Pairs of Pairs

Each person writes a list of responses to a question:

a. what I'd like to study about ___ c. presents for Father's Day

problems on the playground

topics for report on Abe Lincoln d.

Two students are paired up and combine their individual lists. They take turns writing: one paper and one pencil. Then two pairs are paired up to combine two lists into one list: one paper and one

4. Advanced Pairs of Pairs

Students work in pairs to brainstorm as many ideas as they can on a topic for 3 minutes. One person writes: one paper and one pencil.

Possible topics:

classroom rules

consequences for unsatisfactory work * possible math problems that equal 21

events for field day rewards for work

topics for creative writing

Then two pairs are put together and they combine lists: one paper and one pencil.

5. Learning Buddies

Base groups of 3-4 students who meet frequently to:

a. * clarify, process information d. review for test

b. ask questions

e. practice

c. * translate information to practical situations

6. Show & Tell / Bring & Brag

Instead of the whole class listening to everyone's reports, current events, book reports, etc., each student shares in small groups (3-5). After a few minutes in which items are shared and discussed, students' names are randomly drawn ("Winner's Envelope"), and s/he tells about someone else's information.

7. Dynamic Discussions

For discussions after an event that creates much interest and energy like:

* assembly * natural occurrence (earthquake/first snowfall)

* movie

* guest in room

* field trip

* important news event

In group, write or draw one of the following (assigned by teacher) after group reaches consensus on:

* 3 most important/exciting parts * something that surprised group

* new ending

* what else could have happened

* group's favorite part

* what might happen next (predict)

8. Pairs and Practice Ideas

(a.) Pairs each work through the same set of problems or questions and then compare answers. Whe they differ, they discuss why and attempt to find one solution. Or they compare answers with another pai and discuss which answer is correct and why. One worksheet is turned in to show agreed-upon answers.

· Higher Level Thinking

Cooperation

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Cooperative Strategies -- Page 2

(b.) Each partner in the pair is responsible for every other problem, sentence, etc. When one is not working/writing, s/he watches and encourages. Then an answer sheet is used by the pair to check their work. The problems marked incorrect are then worked out together.

9. Jigsaw

Using vocabulary or spelling words, math facts or parts of an article, paragraph, story: the teacher cuts list or information into equal parts, one for each group member. (NO ONE has the whole thing.) Students learn their own information and then teach to/share with their groupmates. No one may pass on his/her information: it can only be taught by the person who has that part. Students are held individually accountable by taking an individual oral or written test.

Expert Jigsaw

This works like jigsaw except each group member meets with students from several other groups who have the same material. They discuss, check information, decide how to teach/share. Then each goes back to his/her own group and teaches information.

10. Team Practice & Drill

math facts
vocabulary/spelling words
definitions

ON FLASHCARDS definitions chemical elements

Choose one type of practice. Make two envelopes labeled "Ours" and Not Yet Ours." Put flashcards in appropriate envelope depending on whether or not group members know them. If each person has his/her own set of flashcards (students are not studying same words, facts, etc.), students put them in envelopes marked "Mine" and "Not Yet Mine."

11. Numbered Heads Together

Each person in the group is designated as a,b,c,d. Each group is designated as 1,2,etc. Groups discuss a question for 2 minutes and prepare everyone to be the reporter. The teacher randomly picks a group number and a member letter out of the "Winner's Envelope." That person answers for the group. Then that letter and number go back into the envelope.

Sample questions: Where does the comma go?

How do you get 60%?

- * Why could 81 be the answer?
- * What are 3 possible answers?

12. Getting to Know Us

Students interview one another in groups of 3 or 5 with prepared questions from the teacher like: (choose 1 or 2)

* a favorite fall (winter/spring/summer) activity when I was younger

- * a favorite place
- * a fantasy weekend
- * a career I would like

The teacher RANDOMLY picks one person from each group to introduce another member of the group until all have been introduced to the class. Each person must be prepared because they will NOT be able to choose who they are to introduce.

13. Groups and Homework (Homework can require either "right answers" or *open-ended responses) Students sit in Check-In groups which review homework daily. The group encourages individuals to complete homework assignments and bring in on time.

Group members compare answers on homework. The team comes to a consensus on what each answer should be (ALL agree). The group submits to the teacher ONE answer sheet with the consensus answers on it which all group members sign, indicating understanding and agreement. All individual homework sheets are stapled to the back of the group answer sheet.

* Higher Level Thinking (Adapted from, and with thanks to, work by Nan & Ted Graves, Spencer Kagan, Frank Lyman.)

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When

Higher-Order Thinking Questions

Sample Questions and Key Words To Use In Developing Questions

Knowledge (Eliciting factual answers, testing recall and recognition) L Label Which One Describe Where Who List Name Define What How Reproduce **Point Out** Why How much Memorize Recall Select

Comprehension (Translating, interpreting, and extrapolating) II.

Indicate State In Your Own Words Locate Tell Give an Example What Does This Mean **Translate** Select The Definition Condense This Paragraph Explain What Is Happening Outline State In One Word Summarize What Part Doesn't Fit Explain What Is Meant Select What Restrictions Would You Add Read The Graph Table What Exceptions Are There Match This Represents Identify What Are They Saying **Explain** Define

Application (Using in situations that are new, unfamiliar to students) III.

Show How Make A Lesson How Would You Use **Apply** Demonstrate How What Is The Use For Construct Tell What Would Happen If...How Explain **Choose The Statements** That Apply Identify There would Be Tell How Much change

IV. Analysis (Breaking down into parts, relating parts to the whole)

What inconsistencies, Fallacies Distinguish Diagram What Literacy Form Is Used What Persuasive Technique Similar What Relationship Between Like What Is The Function Of Chart What's Fact, Opinion Plan State The Point of View Of Dissect What Ideas Justify Conclusion Contrast

Cause For What Assumptions What Motive Is There Arrange What Conclusions Separate Make A Distinction Conclude Outline What Is The Premise

Implicit In The Statement Is The Idea Of Different

What's The Theme, Main Idea, Subordinate Idea

The Least Essential Statements Are Graph What Does Author Believe, Assume Classify

Compare

What Statement Is Relevant, Extraneous To Differentiate

Related To, Not Applicable Reason For

Categorize Investigate





Synthesis (Combining elements into a pattern not clearly there before) ٧.

Build

Write Create Tell

Estimate

Invent

Make A Film Solve Make Make Up Do Dance Advertise Choose Hypothesize What If Plan Design Compose Develop Combine Invent

How Would You Test Propose An Alternative Solve The Following Formulate A Theory How Else Would You What Different If State A Rule

Imagine Infer Predict **Forecast** Construct

Evaluation (Judging according to some set of criteria and stating why) VI.

Appraise Editorialize Which Is Best Judge Decide Verify

Criticize Rate Dispute

Defend Value Grade

Choose Why

Evaluate

Find The Errors

What Fallacies, Consistencies, Inconsistencies Appear Which Is More Important, Moral, Better, Logical, Valid, Appropriate, Inappropriate

A social studies lesson using higher order questions might look like this:

The Causes of The Black Plague

- Anticipatory Set: (3 minutes) Describe to the students what happened last year 1 when half the school had the flu.
- Input: (20 minutes)
 - Define the word "plague."
 - 2. Give examples of various plagues.
 - Lecture on the Black Plague
 - A. Causes
 - B. Effects
 - C. Major Statistics
- 111. Discussion: (15 minutes)
 - 1. In your own words, describe the causes and effects of the Black Plague (Comprehension)
 - 2. What would result today if the Black Plague struck this school? (Application)
 - 3. Graph the death tolls for three counties struck by the plague. (Analysis)
 - 4. If you were the county medical doctor, how would you help a plague victim? (Synthesis)
 - 5. Defend the people who wouldn't help the plague victims. (Evaluation)



Mrs. Potter's Questions

What were you expected to do?

In this assignment, what did you do well?

- If you had to do this task over, what would you do differently?
- What help do you need from me?





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Lead-Ins for Logging

Thinking log "lead-ins" can "lead" students into higher level thinking processes and provide the needed versatility to develop alternative patterns for thinking. The lead-in dictates to some degree the mode of thought. For example, lead-ins can encourage responses that are analytic, synthetic, or evaluative. They also can be used to promote problem solving and decision making, or to foster a particular style of learning. The chart suggests some possibilities to illustrate the focus flexibility of lead-ins.

Lead-Ins That Promote Thinking At Higher Levels		
nalysis	Application	
Compared to	- Backtracking for a minute	
The best part	A way to	
On the positive scale	I want to	
An interesting part is	A connecting idea is	
Take a small part like	A movie this reminds me of isbecause	
A logical sequence seems to be	If this were a book, I'd title it	
On the negative side	I think this applies to	
Similarly	Does this mean	
By contrast		
Synthesis	Problem Solving	
Suppose	I'm stuck on	
Combine	The best way to think about this	
Possibly	I conclude	
Imagine	I'm lost with	
Reversed	Lunderstand, but	
What if	I'm concerned about	
I predict	My problem is	
How about	A question I have is	
l wonder		
Evaluation	Decision Making	
How	I disagree with because	
Why	I prefer because	
It seems irrelevant that	If I had to choose	
One point of view is	I believe	
It seems important to note	My goal is	
The best	l hate One criticism is	
The worst If then	One childism is can't decide if	





	AND SKIN	NY QUESTIONS	
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Energizers For Pairs

Mirrors

Partners face one another. One student begins the activity by moving his or her arm slowly enough so that the partner can "mirror" the action. The objective for the leader is not to trick the follower, but to enable his or her partner to follow successfully. The partners then change roles and repeat the activity. Once the students get the idea; let them move their knees, feet, legs, heads, etc., as well. Follow with reflection questions on being a leader and a follower.

Stand Off

Stand facing each other, one arm's length from your partner. Place open hands up and out a little from your shoulders. The object is to make your partner lose footing by pushing or hitting his or her hands only.

Stand Up

Sit on the ground back to back with your partner with knees bent and elbows linked. Now stand up together. Try it in threes and fours.

Trust Walk

Have everyone find a partner. One person of the pair volunteers to be led with his or her eyes closed or blindfolded. The other member of the pair leads the person for five minutes, taking very good care of the blind partner. After five minutes switch roles.

Changes

For directions, see "Energizers For Large Groups" section.

Energizers For Small Groups

Knots

Stand in a circle shoulder to shoulder. Ask everyone to reach out and grab two other hands. (You cannot have both hands of one person, and you cannot have the hand of persons on each side of you.) If possible, try not to criss-cross. Now untangle so that all are standing in a round circle again.

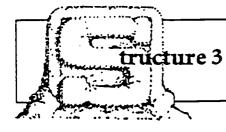
Trust Circle

Make a circle with your tribe or small group. Have one person stand in the middle with his or her eyes closed and feet planted firmly. Have the rest of the tribe members gently push on the shoulders of the person in the middle, making sure he or she does not fall but does keep moving. The group supports the person as he or she rotates.

Wink

Have the students stand in a circle with their eyes closed. One person walks around the circle and quietly taps the back of one person who will be the "winker." Everyone opens their eyes and begins to mill





Community Circle

<u>See Lessons</u> 2, 4, 10, 11, 30, 37

Steps of Community Circle

- 1. Students form large class circle.
- 2. Teacher discusses rules.
- 3. Teacher writes starter sentence on board.
- 4. Teacher models response and passes feather to next student.

This is an excellent structure to begin or end each day. A large feather (or other object) is held by the person speaking. When introducing this activity you might explain some Native American tribes had similar traditions of passing a feather or talking stick. All attention is given to the person with the feather.¹

Steps of Community Circle

1. Students Form a Class Circle

Have students sit in a large circle facing the middle. In elementary settings it works best to have students sit on the floor. In secondary settings this activity is often done in advisement period or home room with desks or chairs in a circle.

2. Teacher Explains Rules

Begin by explaining the rules for this structure. These would include:

- Take Turns, talking only when you have the feather
- Use Only Affirmations; No Put-Downs
- Right to Pass
- Active Listening

The teacher sets the tone for this structure by sharing first. This models for students what they are to do. It also allows students an opportunity to know you better. Taking turns in order allows every student an opportunity to share. Community Circle provides an excellent opportunity to monitor the ground rule of "no put-downs" and the use of affirmations. It's critical for students to know that put-downs are not accepted in your class and that affirmations are actively encouraged.

Students always have the right to pass if they do not wish to share personal feelings. This allows the student who doesn't feel safe sharing personal feelings an opportunity not to participate. It also increases the safety of the classroom as students see that they all have a choice. It's likely that some student will test you to see if you are serious about this. Generally, this lasts only a couple of times before they want to participate. The right to pass honors students' right to confidentiality, and gives them practice in makin choices.



I was reminded of passing the feather by Jeanne Gibbs, author of Tribes, the setting in which I first used Community Circle. Tribes: A Process for Social Development and Cooperative Learning. Center Source Publications, Santa Rosa, 1987.

3. Starter Sentence Posted for Students to See

Post a starter sentence on the board or overhead. You might want to have it prepared before you begin this lesson. The starter sentence should be something appropriate to the age and interest level of your students. Examples of various starter sentences or phrases are listed on the next page.

4. Teacher Models and Passes the Feather

Once the preliminaries are taken care of, the teacher starts off the circle by completing the starter sentence or phrase which will be completed by each person in the circle as they receive the feather. This is an opportunity to work on classbuilding and active listening skills. Students have an opportunity to share something about

something about themselves in a supportive environment.

Active listening is one ground rule which you will more than likely use for all activities in your classroom. Community Circle is an excellent opportunity to monitor its use. Careful monitoring

here will provide students with models for small group use.

You can model for students how to handle a person who is not using active listening. How you handle these situations will also give your students an indication if you are serious about the ground rules.

Variations

After students know the ground rules of Community Circle you may introduce the use of two, then three, and later even four simultaneous Community Circles. The disadvantages are that only one circle at a time gets the teacher's direction and input. The advantage is that with four circles you can have four times as much sharing at the same time and there can be greater intimacy. In a

full class community circle where each student speaks for one minute it takes thirty minutes for 30 students to share. The same process takes eight minutes with four simultaneous circles.

Pass-The-Sentence-Strip

Mary Torrens Parker of Turlock, California, found that having students pass the "starter sentence strip" worked best for her first grade class. I also found the sentence strip worked well with my fourth grade class.





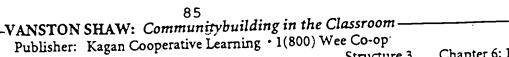
<u>Sample</u>

Starter Sentences for Community Circles

To day I feel	
Today I feel	to day I feel
	, today I feel
I like to	•
I like to	because
My favorite toy (movie, T.V.)	program, candy bar, book, football player, baseball player,
basketball player) is	
My last dream was about	·
Last weekend I	and
Last night I	·
My best vacation would be _	
My best meal was	•
My favorite holiday is	because •
Yesterday I	_ Today I Tomorrow I
My goal for today (this week,	, year, ten years) is to
	<u> </u>
My favorite book is	·
My favorite character in	(name of book, etc.)
	_because·
I'm good at	
-	

Sentence	Starter	Str	ip:
			-

Today I Feel





Teaching I-Messages

Grades:

3-adult

Time: Grouping:

50 minutes tribes

Materials:

large paper and

felt pens

Objectives

- 1. To give tribes practice in brainstorming and to introduce words to express feelings
- 2. To show the link between "feeling words" and "I-Messages"
- 3. To practice giving "I-Messages"

Instructions

Note: Teach this strategy before using "Snowball I-Messages."

- 1. Have the community sit in tribes and explain that they will be brainstorming (see "Brainstorming" strategy).
- 2. Have each tribe select a recorder.
- 3. Discuss various "feeling words" (happiness, anger, upset, love). Ask the tribes to brainstorm as many "feeling words" as they can in five minutes. Have the recorder write them down.
- 4. After five minutes, ask the tribes to take turns calling out the "feeling words" they wrote down. As teacher, record the words on the blackboard. Discuss how sharing feelings is important for clear communication.
- 5. Then ask, "Why is it also important to have a way to let people know how their behavior affects us?" Explain that "I-Messages" are a way to share feelings but not blame.
- 6. Use the formats in chapter five to write three to four examples of "I-Messages" and "YOU-Messages" on the board. Explain the difference between an "I-Message" and a "YOU-Message." Ask the class to contrast the impact the two different types of messages have.
- 7. Have each tribe member write four "I-Messages" using the feeling words they listed earlier. Each person should write to a friend, a relative, a classmate and a teacher. Allow ten minutes work time.
- 8. Then have the tribes review the "I-Messages" written by their tribe members. Have them help each other change any statements that are "YOU-Messages" to "I-Messages."
- 9. Ask the students to practice using an "I-Messages" during the next few days, and to report back to their tribe on what happened.

Suggested Reflection Questions:

Content/Thinking

- Why is it important to use "I-Messages?"
- How can "I-Messages" help you to lessen conflict with friends?
 Personal
 - How does it feel to receive a "YOU-Message?"/"I-Message?"

Appreciation

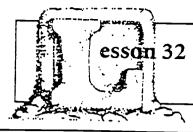
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Suggest people make statements of appreciation:

"It helped me when.....

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Types of Conflict

Lesson-At-A-Glance

Goal: Relationship Skills (Conflict Resolution)

Grades: 3-Adult
Time: 50-70 Minutes

Outcome—Students Will:

· Recognize the three types of conflicts.

Materials:

Cassette tape deck and music

Handout on Types of Conflicts

· Paper for students to use during quiz

Structures:

· Think-Pair-Share

· Choral Response

• Numbered Heads Together

Think-Pair-Square

Roundrobin

<u>Lesson Overview</u>1

Students will be introduced to different types of conflicts and will begin to see how knowing about these different types of conflict can make a difference for them. The class will participate in a game of competitive and cooperative musical chairs. Using Think-Pair-Share students will reflect of how cooperative musical chairs differs from the way it is usually played. The teacher will then present a definition of conflict and information on the types of conflicts, resources, needs, and values. Students will use Think-Pair-Share-Square to share their own The teacher will then lecture examples. about why it's important to know about the types of conflict. Numbered Heads Together

will then be used for students to review the types of conflict. Next, students will use Choral Response to practice matching the correct type of conflict with a situation.

Lesson Sequence

Cooperative Game:

Competitive and Cooperative Musical Chairs

Have students place their chairs into a tight circle facing out. Start the music and have students begin walking around the chairs. Let students know that when the music stops they will need to find a chair. The students who don't find a chair will have to stop playing and watch. As the music is playing remove a few chairs. Stop the music. Those students who didn't find a chair must stand away and watch. Do this for several rounds. Then ask the students to stop, replace all the chairs and tell them that now we'll try playing COOPERATIVE MUSICAL CHAIRS. This game will be different because rather than a student leaving the game when a chair is removed they must sit on someone's lap. Start the music, students walk around the chairs, remove a few chairs. This time when the music stops, students who do not have a chair must sit on another student's knee or lap. Pull out a greater number of chairs as the music is playing to make the game go faster. 2



^{1.} Information on Types of Conflict was adapted from *Creative Conflict Resolution* by William J. Kreidler. (Scott, Foresman, & Co. 1984.)

I would only try this with 7-12 graders who worked well together on other lessons. It might be too much for some students. You decide, you know your students.

Think-Pair-Share: Reflect on How Games Were Different

Ask students to think of which version of musical chairs might cause more conflict between students and why. Give students a minute of think time. Have students form pairs and share their responses.

Teacher Talk:

Types of Conflict

Use the information about the definition of and types of conflict (in Chapter 5:6 resources, needs, and values) to give a short Lecturette. Ask which of the types of conflict the musical chairs game might fit into. (It would be a conflict of resources because there are only so many chairs and, in the first version of the game, people were losers when they didn't find a chair.) Review examples of the different types of conflict.

Choral Response:

Review Types of Conflict

Ask students to respond as a class to the following questions. Review the Choral Response Structure information in the Structures Summary Chapter. Ask the students to respond together and only when you give the hand signal.

- 1. When two people have a conflict over politics it is a conflict over[think time]...It starts with a "V"..[hand signal] "VALUES"
- 2. When a group of people all want to listen to a cassette tape on the earphones, it is a conflict over...[think time]......It starts with a "R"............[hand signal] "RESOURCES"

- 3. When students are competing in class for a grade it is a conflict over..[think time].. It starts with an "N"..[hand signal] "NEEDS"
- 4. If the conflict is about who has the power to make decisions for a group, it is a conflict about..[think time]...[hand signal] "NEEDS"
- 5. If two brother have a conflict about who will get the attention of their mother, it is a conflict about.....[think time]...[hand signal] "RESOURCES'
- 6. Only so many girls can make the basketball team. This type of conflict is about...[think time]...[hand signal] "RESOURCES"

Numbered Heads Together:

Review the Types of Conflict

Have students in teams, or their last group of four, number off 1-4 (refer to Numbered Heads Together in Structures Chapter). Explain that you will ask the class a question and teams are to put their heads together to come up with the answer. Any student can be called on for an answer, so it's in the teams best interest to thoroughly discuss the answer.

Questions:

- Which type of conflict is it when you want a magazine someone else is reading and why?
- ❖ What is one example of a NEEDS conflict?
- Which type of conflict is it when two people argue about who has the best religion?
- → Why are NEEDS conflicts more difficult to resolve than conflicts about RE-SOURCES?



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- What are two examples of RESOURCES conflicts?
- Which type of conflict is it when someone gives someone else a put-down and why? (Needs, because put-downs effect self-esteem which is a need for all of us.)

Make up other questions you believe are appropriate.

Think-Pair-Square:

Students Think / Share Examples

Ask students to **Think** of the conflict shared at the beginning of the lesson, and which type of conflict it might be (resources, needs, or values). Ask students to **Pair** and share their thoughts. Then direct students to square (two pairs come together) and each pair share with the other pair.

Teacher Talk:

Why Knowing Types is Important Explain how knowing why conflict occurs

can help us avoid and/or resolve conflict. Refer to the information on cooperative conflict resolution on the next page for content for this lecturette. Draw out from students how knowing about the different types of conflict might make a difference for them.

Roundrobin:

Affirmation Starters

Ask students in their teams to affirm one another using a Roundrobin structure. Person number one will start by giving an affirmation to the person to their right. The person receiving the affirmation can say only "thank you". Take turns within teams. Make sure everyone has a turn. Post affirmation starters such as:

You are a goodI like it when you





Three Types of Conflict

RESOURCES

A conflict occurs about resources when two or more people want something which is in insufficient supply.

- ATTENTION OF THE TEACHER
- A GIRL FRIEND OR BOY FRIEND
- USING THE ART SUPPLIES
- MAKING A SPORTS TEAM

These conflicts are often the easiest to resolve and are the ones most frequently encountered on the school grounds.

NEEDS

Students have the same basic psychological needs as adults.

- POWER
- FRIENDSHIP AND BELONGING TO A GROUP
- SELF-ESTEEM
- ACHIEVEMENT

Conflicts of needs are more difficult to resolve than conflicts over resources because the reasons are not as clear.

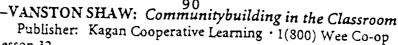
VALUES

The beliefs we hold most closely to us are our values.

- RELIGIOUS
- POLITICAL
- CULTURAL
- FAMILY
- GOALS

(Permission to reproduce for classroom use)







Second Step

Scope and Sequence	Unit	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade
At-a-Glance	Unit I: Empathy Training	Lessons: 1-3 Video: Part 1 Lessons: 4-7	Lesson: 8 Video: Part 1 Lessons: 9-12	Lesson: 13 Video: Part 1 Lessons: 14-17
	Unit II: Impulse Control	Lessons: 1-5 Video: Part 2 Lessons: 6-8	Lesson: 9 Video: Part 2 Lessons: 10-14	Lesson: 15 Video: Part 2 Lessons: 16-19
	Unit III: Anger Management	Lessons: 1-5 Video: Part 3 Lessons: 6-7	Lesson: 8 Video: Part 3 Lessons: 9-11	Lesson: 12 Video: Part 3 Lessons: 13-15

Implementation notes: If you are a second or third grade teacher and your students have not received Second Step in previous years or are in need of further review, you may want to teach selected lessons designated for the preceding grades. If your school is starting to implement Second Step on a school-wide basis this year, stagger the implementation starting times. Have the third grade teachers teach the first and second grade lessons and then pass them to second grade teachers. After teaching the first grade lessons, second grade teachers should pass them to the first grade teachers.



Appendix X Continued

Scope and Sequence	Unit	Fourth Grade	Fifth Grade	
At-a-Giance	Unit I: Empathy Training	Lessons: 1-2 Video: Part 1 Lessons: 3-9	Lesson: 10 Video: Part 1 Lessons: 11–16	
	Unit II: Impulse Control	Lessons: 1-5 Video: Part 2 Lessons: 6-10	Lesson: 11 Video: Part 2 Lessons: 12–16	

Unit III:

Anger Management

Implementation notes: If you are a fifth grade teacher and your students have not received *Second Step* in previous years or are in need of further review, you also may want to teach the following lessons designated for the fourth grade: Unit I, Lessons 2, 5, 6, 8, 9; Unit II, Lessons 2-5; Unit III, Lessons 1-5. If your school is starting to implement *Second Step* on a school-wide basis this year, stagger the implementation starting times. Have the fifth grade teachers teach the fourth grade lessons and then pass them to fourth grade teachers.

Lesson: 9

Video: Part 3

Lessons: 10-14

Lessons: 1-5

Video: Part 3 Lessons: 6-8

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Schedule of Social Skills

Social Skill	Week
Listen to the Speaker	Sept. 5
Everyone participates	Sept. 11
Use of Affirmations	Sept. 18
Disagree with the idea/ not the person	Sept. 25
Check for understanding	Oct. 2
Encourage each other	Oct. 9
Offer your help	Oct. 16
Interdependence	Oct. 23
Reach consensus or agree to disagree	Nov. 6
Respect others	Nov. 13
Explore points of view	Nov. 20
Think for yourself	Dec. 4
Negotiate/compromise	Dec. 11





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Community Building, Higher-Order Thinking	n Through Cooperalive Learning, g and Conflict Management
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