

Comparing the Professional Practices of Teachers Working in a Positive Behavior Support High School with Practices of Teachers in a Traditional High School

Carl S. Vaughan

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education
in
Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

Theodore B. Creighton, Chairperson

John F. Eller

Terry Kershaw

Wayne Tripp

November 20, 2008

Richmond, Virginia

Keywords: Teacher Effectiveness, Teacher Attitudes, Teacher Professional Practices, Positive Behavior Support

Comparing the Professional Practices of Teachers Working in a Positive Behavior Support High School with Practices of Teachers in a Traditional High School

Carl S. Vaughan

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to explore the professional practices of teachers in both a Positive Behavior Support (PBS) high school and a traditional high school using Charlotte Danielson's (1996) 22 components of teaching responsibility that are clustered into four domains: Domain 1: Planning and Preparation, Domain 2: Classroom Environment, Domain 3: Instruction, and Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities.

This comparison serves as a tool to determine if there is any difference in the professional practices of teachers in a high school with Positive Behavior Support and those in a traditional school. The results may be used to examine a variety of means to provide effective staff development and possible PBS implementation strategies.

The teacher professional practices data retrieved were attained from teachers and principals of PBS and non-PBS schools. The major views that came forward from the respondents' survey questionnaires demonstrated that teachers and principals from the two schools characterize their professional practices quite similarly. Results from this study confirm the findings of research studies discussed in the literature review. On the whole, there were many similarities in the characterizations and levels of importance of teacher professional practices in the PBS and non-PBS schools.

The descriptive data displayed that the PBS school out performed the non-PBS in the majority of the identified student outcomes. This study also noted that effective leadership and staff training are needed to facilitate the implementation of school improvement tools, such as PBS.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Completing the process to receive this degree has been trying and I am elated to have successfully finished. It is without a doubt the most fulfilling moment of my educational career. I would be remised in not recognizing those who encouraged me to continue when it seemed as though things seemed hopeless.

First, to my loving wife who would not let me quit. Without your constant prodding and endless support I would never have completed the first chapter of this research. Your love and watchful eye served as the most important key throughout this entire process. Hearing you constantly praying for me daily kept my faith strong to believe that I could finish this task. To my two boys, Joshua and Israel, thanks for taking up the slack when I was busy with my research. Always knowing that you could and did fend for yourselves when I was not able meant the world to me. To my mother, siblings and in-laws I greatly appreciate your encouragement. Without a doubt, your belief in me propelled me to stay on course.

Thank you to my committee members. A special thank you to Dr. Theodore Creighton whose professional advice and direction undoubtedly got me to the finish line. Dr. Kershaw, thank you for sharing your thought provoking comments. I am appreciative to the other members of my committee: Dr. John Eller and Dr. Wayne Tripp who stepped in and provided me with important information that prepared me for the final defense.

A special thanks to members of my cohort, Cheryl, Jackie and Lynn for their daily encouragement. Also, to Dean Karen DePauw, thanks for your assistance throughout this process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	3
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	4
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	4
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	6
DEFINITIONS	8
DELIMITATIONS	10
LIMITATIONS.....	10
ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY	11
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	12
LITERATURE REVIEW SEARCH PROCEDURES	12
BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM.....	13
STUDENTS AT RISK	14
POSITIVE BEHAVIOR SUPPORT	15
SCHOOL AND TEACHER INFLUENCES	18
EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHER PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES	20
Instructional Practices.....	20
Positive Behavior Support Approaches	22
RESEARCH FINDINGS	23
Domain 1: Planning & Preparation.....	25
Domain 2: The Classroom Environment	29
Academic Procedures.....	36
Routine Procedures	37
Special Procedures	38
Domain 3: Instruction	44
Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities	49
SUMMARY	55
CHAPTER 3 METHOD	56
PBS BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR THE MARYLAND EDUCATION SYSTEM	56
DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPATING HIGH SCHOOLS	57
PROCEDURES	59
MEASURES	60
Content Validity	60
Field Testing	60
Demographic Data	61
School-wide Data.....	61

Content Data	62
DATA ANALYSIS	62
CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS	64
PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS	64
SCHOOL DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION.....	67
DESCRIPTIVE DATA ON TEACHER PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES	73
DATA ANALYSIS	77
Characterization of Teacher Professional Practices.....	77
Significant Differences Between Teacher Professional Practices	82
Difference on Student Outcomes Between a PBS and Traditional High School	83
SUMMARY	86
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION, SUMMARY, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	88
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS	88
Planning and Preparation	88
Classroom Environment	89
Instruction	89
Professional Responsibility.....	90
FINDINGS FOR THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS	91
Ways Teacher Professional Practices Are Characterized	92
Significant Differences Between Professional Practices	93
Obvious Differences on Student Outcomes between High Schools.....	95
RECOMMENDATIONS.....	97
FUTURE RESEARCH.....	98
CONCLUSION.....	99
REFERENCES.....	102
APPENDIX A DATA COLLECTION FORM	110
APPENDIX B FOUR DOMAINS OF PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE WITH ELEMENTS OF EACH COMPONENT	122
APPENDIX C	138
APPENDIX D	141

LIST OF TABLES

1	The Means and Standard Deviation of Section 1	28
2	The Means and Standard Deviation of Section 2	28
3	The Means and Standard Deviation of Section 2	29
4	Types of Alpha and Beta Commands	31
5	Covariate-Adjusted Means by Group and Treatment Condition	48
6	Means and Standard Deviations of Independent Variables by School Type	52
7	Teacher Commitment by School	53
8	Effects on Magnet and Nonmagnet Teachers' Ratings of Their Commitment	54
9	Participating PBIS Schools Comparison to Non-participating Schools	57
10	Comparative Teacher Demographic Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	66
11	Comparative Demographic Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	68
12	Comparative Graduation Descriptive Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	69
13	Comparative Special Services Descriptive Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	70
14	Comparative Ethnic Group Descriptive Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	70
15	Comparative Discipline Descriptive Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	71
16	Comparative Student Academic Achievement Descriptive Information of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	72
17	Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS Schools Planning and Preparation Patterns	74
18	Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS Schools Classroom Environment Patterns	75
19	Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS Schools Instruction Patterns	76
20	Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS Schools Professional Responsibilities Patterns	77
21	Mean Scores Signifying Highest Level of Importance for PBS Schools	79
22	PBS Variables Conveying the Highest Mean Scores	80
23	Mean Scores Signifying Highest Level of Importance for Non-PBS Schools	81
24	Non-PBS Variables Conveying the Highest Mean Scores	82
25	Mann-Whitney Test of Significant Differences Between Professional Practices of PBS and Non-PBS Schools	84
26	Correlation Between Professional Practices and Student Outcomes	86

LIST OF FIGURES

- Figure 1 Conceptual framework exhibiting the use of Danielson’s four domains of professional practices in PBS and traditional schools.9
- Figure 2 Examples of contemporary challenges for schools, families, and communities.
Adapted from *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions* by Sugai, et al, 2000, p. 5..15
- Figure 3 *Figure 3: Levels of Positive Behavior Support*.....16
- Figure 4 Danielson’s four domains and 22 components. Adapted from *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching* by Charlotte Danielson, 1996, pp. 30-33.24

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Providing a safe and successful learning environment has become a national priority as disruptive, aggressive, and violent behavior in schools has risen to a level of national concern (Newcomer, Lewis, & Powers, 2002). Administrators and teachers regularly report that incidents of socially maladjusted behavior are constant problems in the classrooms and schools. These incidents disrupt the daily teaching and learning process to the point that educators are wondering how to successfully prepare their students for mandated state and federal standardized tests. Often school principals resort to the traditional exclusionary practices such as suspensions, expulsions, and/or reassignment to alternative schools or in-school detentions (California Department of Education, 2002). Research shows that these practices place schools at a greater academic disadvantage because these youths now represent a high absentee rate (Fox & Hoffman, 2002); students not in class represent a high degree of failure. Additionally, these methods serve to induce negative behaviors and provide little encouragement for desired behaviors or improved learning. Research indicates that a more promising solution is the use of proactive school-wide behavior management strategies to address the contextual factors within schools that lead to problem behavior (Newcomer, Lewis, & Powers, 2002).

Positive Behavior Support (PBS) is one model that has been used for over 30 years to combat negative student behaviors (Sugai & Horner, 2002). Research regarding PBS suggests that when this practice is applied with consistency and persistency, it brings about change in the school climate (Scott, 2002). Positive Behavior Support puts in place strategies that develop student knowledge of how to behave and how not to behave. Once students are able to identify appropriate behaviors through intervention strategies such as, developing behavioral support plans, involving the entire school community in behavioral techniques, keeping statistical behavioral improvement data, and including parents on the support teams; the research shows that 80% of the students in response to the interventions become more cooperative (Sugai & Horner, 2002). As a result, PBS relies on a continuum of behavior support in which the intensity of behavior support increases relative to increases in the behavioral needs and challenges of the student. The continuum shows how a preventive based perspective is applied to all students within a school. Figure 3 on page 19 shows the student population in a triangle: the bottom representing 80% of the students who need *primary preventions*, which focus on decreasing the

number of new cases by maintaining the use of effective practices for all students; the middle representing 15% of the students who need *secondary preventions* with the goal of reducing the number of existing problem behaviors by providing additional instructional and behavioral support for students at-risk of school failure and in need of specialized support; and the top representing the five percent who need *tertiary preventions* designed to focus on reducing the number of existing cases of complex, intractable, and long-standing problem behaviors displayed by high at-risk students with significant emotional, behavioral and social challenges (Grady, 2002).

Most traditional school practices contribute to the many negative behaviors exhibited by students (Sprague & Walker, 2004). These practices include, among others:

1. Ineffective instruction that results in academic failure;
2. Inconsistent and punitive classroom and behavior management practices;
3. Lack of opportunity to learn and practice prosocial interpersonal and self-management skills;
4. Unclear rules and expectations regarding appropriate behavior;
5. Failure to effectively correct rule violations;
6. Failure to reward adherence to the rules;
7. Failure to individualize instruction and support to adapt to individual differences (e.g., ethnic/cultural, gender, disability);
8. Failure to assist students from at-risk (e.g., poverty, racial/ethnic minority members) backgrounds to bond with the schooling process;
9. Disagreement and inconsistency of implementation among staff members; and
10. Lack of administrator involvement, leadership and support (Sprague & Walker, 2004, p. 13).

For these reasons, schools must recognize the need for effective intervention strategies and seek to put in place discipline processes that help students accept responsibility, place high value on academic engagement and achievement, learn alternative ways to behave, and focus on restoring and maintaining a positive environment and social relationship in the school (Sprague & Walker, 2004).

The teacher is the frontline personnel with the charge of addressing effectively the need to change the social culture and improve the academic achievement of the schools by

demonstrating mastery of teacher professional practices (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004). It goes without saying that this request adds to the already stressful demands of the job—a task that has become more complex as state standards in the educational arena have toughened. Therefore, teachers must be able to define their knowledge and be able to incorporate that same knowledge into their daily routine of professional practices (Danielson, 1996). Teachers must become competent in knowing and carrying out a framework for teaching in order to improve professional practices to enhance their ability to successfully implement Positive Behavior Support. Successful teacher professional practices serve as a gateway to program implementation that promotes improved student learning and prosocial behaviors.

Statement of the Problem

In recent years, particularly since the implementation of the 1997 amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA '97), application of the PBS approach has been expanded to include a variety of settings (school, home, and community), students with and without disabilities, and a broad range of social and academic problem behaviors (Horner & Sugai, 2002). This change caused PBS to move from individual case-management to a school-wide approach. To actively confront antisocial behavior and improve social and academic outcomes, PBS uses a variety of strategies; for example, the teaching of school-wide expectations, implementing long lasting supports, reinforcing positive social behaviors, and staff training. These methods replace many of the traditional reactions to negative behaviors such as (a) increased amounts of surveillance, (b) toughen up and application of zero-tolerance sanctions, and (c) the enforcement of exclusionary and alternative placements in anticipation of future problem behaviors by some children (U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001).

In order to implement successful PBS intervention strategies, effective integration into a proactive instructional approach is needed (Horner, 2002). Horner lists the following as important characteristics of proactive instructional practices:

1. Maximizing academic outcomes;
2. Selecting and teaching school-wide expectations, rules, and routines that would also be followed in each classroom; and
3. Practicing and encouraging the use of academic skills and behavioral expectations across multiple relevant settings and contexts.

Additionally, the *host environment* or school must support the effective implementation and sustained use of these practices (Zins & Ponti, 1990).

Evidence also shows that students who make a connection with teachers express high satisfaction with schooling (Johnson, Rice, Edgington & Williams, 2005). Without connection with an adult in the school, at-risk youth tend to develop a sense of alienation and lack the establishment of personal meaningful relationships. Of course the lack of this adult connection leads to more social maladjusted behaviors, which usually means dropping out or other negative responses to school (Johnson et al., 2005). Hence, the teacher must be seen as an integral part of the Positive Behavior Support implementation process. On this premise, it is important to consider teacher professional practices when implementing programs such as Positive Behavior Support and to analyze the effect these practices may have on the students and their academic institutions.

Research Questions

In order to successfully investigate the main elements of this study, the following guiding questions were explored. These questions served to target the teachers as the subject population and the professional practices as the variables. A relationship is suggested, and correlation of professional practices and schools is implied.

1. In what important ways do teachers working in PBS and traditional high schools characterize their professional practices in the academic setting of their workplace?
2. Is there a significant difference between teacher professional practices reported by Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools?
3. Is there an obvious difference on student outcomes in the academic setting between high schools that applied Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools?

Significance of the Study

Schools today are inundated with behavioral problems that are increasingly spiraling out of control (Scott, 2002). Youth demonstrate anti-social behaviors that are disruptive and violent to the point where more focus is dedicated to correcting the behaviors and less on academic achievement. Research on Positive Behavior Support, shows that when it is effectively implemented, school climate and student achievement improve tremendously (Horner & Sugai, 2002). This implementation process costs time, money and energy; therefore, every detail of PBS

implementation must be carefully planned (Jackson & Panyan, 2002). An effective implementation plan must include the implementers—the classroom teachers. A better understanding of the roles of the teachers and what impact each teacher has on the PBS implementation process can help to ensure effective implementation.

Recognizing that teachers play a key role in the success of any school-wide academic or behavioral program guides the administration in putting in place appropriate staff development. Familiarity with the importance of the teachers' roles prevents the loss of time and resources when constructing appropriate staff development. Time loss is evident when teachers feel that they have no part in the planning of the PBS implementation and in turn *sabotage* the program with poor attitudes and dispositions (Scott, 2002). As a result, teachers begin to feel as though the school or the division is implementing one more program, which will become yet another distraction and burden to their daily routine. Therefore, to capably address this potentially damaging phenomenon, this study will identify the characteristics pertinent to the teachers' professional practices through a correlation between a PBS school and a traditional school.

Utilizing a framework for teacher professional practices establishes strategic methods needed by instructors to develop a positive academic environment. Effective professional practices serve as a guide to teachers as they organize their plans for optimal student productivity (Brown, 2003). Charlotte Danielson (1996), in her book *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching*, divides the complex activity of teaching into 22 components clustered into four domains of teaching responsibility: Domain 1: Planning and Preparation, Domain 2: Classroom Environment, Domain 3: Instruction, and Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities. These domains, through empirical studies, prove valuable to the enhancement of teacher professional practices. They are considered to be a framework that can be used for a wide range of purposes, from meeting novices' needs to enhancing veterans' skills (Danielson, 1996).

A goal of this study is to develop an awareness of a research-based framework that works to create a positive environment in today's high schools. An additional goal is to increase awareness of the role that teacher quality plays in promoting student achievement and a healthy school atmosphere. In recent years, education researchers have found that:

1. Measures of teacher effectiveness are by far the strongest indicators of student achievement in reading and mathematics, both before and after controlling for student poverty and language backgrounds;

2. Students who are assigned to several ineffective teachers in a row have significantly lower achievement and gains in achievement than those who are assigned to several highly effective teachers in sequence; and
3. Successful teachers tend to be those who are able to use a range of teaching strategies and who use a range of interaction styles, rather than a single, rigid approach to teaching and learning (Szabo & Mokhtari, 2004, p. 60).

With this in mind, it must be noted that instructors who demonstrate effectiveness in the classroom tend to distinguish themselves from their less effective peers (Brown, 2003). These instructors operate under the auspices that the total package of teacher professional practices for the successful instructor includes knowledge of the field of expertise, skill in teaching, teacher self-efficacy, and disposition towards the learner (Szabo & Mokhtari, 2004).

Conceptual Framework

Engaging all students in learning is the primary mission of educators. Charlotte Danielson (1996) outlines a framework for teaching that makes this mission a unifying thread. Throughout Danielson's framework for effective teaching, specific elements are found to assist the novice and the experienced teacher in developing self-confidence in managing classroom instructions and procedures. Identifying those aspects of teacher responsibilities that are proven, through empirical studies and theoretical research, to promote improved student learning is paramount (Danielson, 1996). Additionally, it brings about an in-depth understanding of the similarities between daily professional practices and those practices that optimize successful PBS implementation.

As noted earlier, Charlotte Danielson (1996) introduces four domains of teaching responsibility. For the purpose of this study all four domains will be investigated because their combined components delve into professional practices that should be present in every classroom setting.

Danielson (1996) presented the 1987 Educational Testing Service's (ETS) widespread efforts to introduce the PRAXIS Series to state and local agencies for the purpose of providing a framework to make teacher licensing decisions. The PRAXIS Series: Professional Assessment for Beginning Teachers has three parts: (a) PRAXIS I: Computer-Based Academic Skills Assessment, (b) PRAXIS II: Subject Assessments, and (c) PRAXIS III: Classroom Performance Assessments. Danielson assisted with the preparation and validation of PRAXIS III. Through

Danielson's work with ETS and subsequent observations of selected trainers with PRAXIS III, the framework presented in *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching* was developed. Other works or studies that influenced Danielson's framework are from the standards committees of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, research conducted at the University of Wisconsin, and Michael Scriven's conceptions of teacher duties and recent research on the pedagogical implications of constructivist learning. Danielson's ultimate intention was to enrich the professional lives of the experienced as well as the novice teachers and to make available a road map through the territory, structured around a shared understanding of teaching (Danielson, 1996).

Danielson's framework for teaching does not specify whether it is more appropriate for PBS or traditional teachers; however, it is a structure built for the continuous improvement of instruction. It is a framework specifically constructed for all teachers to use in today's diverse classrooms, which now have mandated success measures that must be met by all students. Although Danielson's framework does not acknowledge PBS implementation, it clearly defines what teachers should know and be able to do within their profession. The conceptual framework in Figure 1 on page 12 displays how both PBS and traditional high schools can use Danielson's four domains with the goal of student success.

The four domains and their individual components in Danielson's framework are described as follows:

1. Planning and preparation (Domain 1) components define how a teacher organizes the content that the students are to learn—how the teacher designs instruction. The content must be transformed through instructional design into sequences of activities and exercises that makes it accessible to students. All elements of the instructional design—learning activities, materials, and strategies—should be appropriate to both the content and the students.
2. The classroom environment (Domain 2) components consist of the interactions that occur in a classroom. The interactions are themselves noninstructional, even though they are necessary for effective instruction. Such activities and tasks establish a comfortable and respectful classroom environment, which cultivates a culture for learning and creates a safe place for risk-taking.

3. Instruction (Domain 3) contains components that are at the fundamental heart of teaching—the actual engagement of students in content. Danielson stresses that the primary mission of schools is to enhance student learning. The components in Domain 3 represent distinct elements of instruction. Teachers who excel in Domain 3 create an atmosphere of excitement about the importance of learning and the significance of the content.
4. Professional responsibilities (Domain 4) components are associated with being a true professional educator: they encompass the roles assumed outside of and in addition to those in the classroom with students. Students rarely observe these activities; parents and the larger community observe them intermittently. However, Danielson describes these activities as critical to preserving and enhancing the profession.

Schools are becoming increasingly more difficult to manage as our at-risk population grows daily and violent acts become the norm (Sprague, 2004). The responsibilities of the schools have increased both in the areas of instruction and behavior. Therefore, for students to be successful, the components in Danielson's four domains are critical to both the PBS schools' and traditional schools' ability to provide an atmosphere conducive to the teaching and learning process.

Definitions

Anti-social Behaviors – Behaviors that reflect social rules violations or acts against others; such as, fighting, lying, discourteous behaviors, loud outbursts, etc.

At-risk – A term used to describe a group of students that shares a common attribute typically related to challenging academic, social or economic status.

Classroom Management – Methods used to organize classroom activities, instruction, physical structure, and other features to make effective use of time, to create a positive and productive learning environment, and to minimize behavior problems and other disruptions.

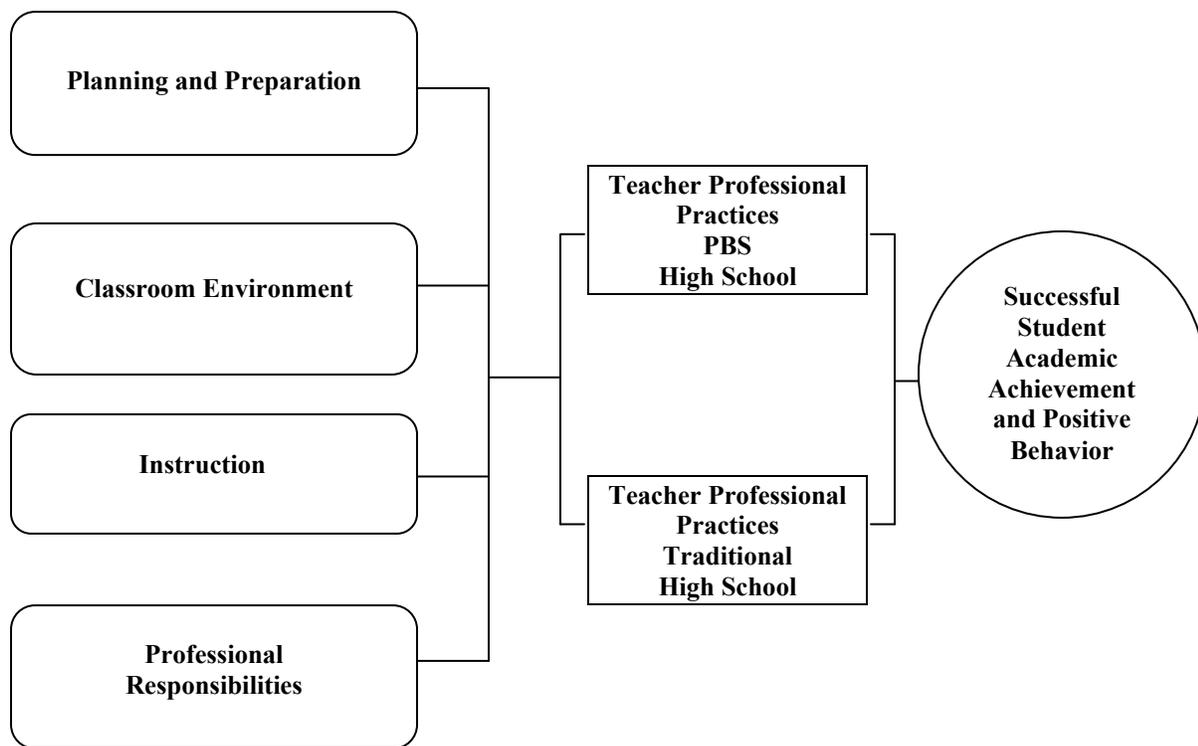


Figure 1. Conceptual framework exhibiting the use of Danielson’s four domains of professional practices in PBS and traditional schools.

Components of Professional Practices – A comprehensive framework reflecting the many different aspects of teaching.

Continuum of Behavioral Supports – The school wide positive behavior approach that is based on the levels of prevention and intervention that need to operate within schools, including (a) primary intervention directed at the general student body, (b) secondary prevention directed at students who are at-risk, and (c) tertiary prevention for those students who have chronic behavior problems.

Framework for Teaching – Well established definitions of expertise and procedures used to certify novice and advanced teachers, which serve to guarantee the public that the members of the teaching profession hold themselves and their colleagues to the highest standards.

Positive Behavior Supports – A proactive approach for addressing student discipline that includes a multi-level system of behavioral intervention supports, and the organizational systems that operate within school organizations.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study are:

1. The data gathered for this study represent teachers' professional practices from only one PBS high school and one traditional high school from the same state.
2. The statistical data from this study were collected from the actual participants who were asked to evaluate themselves.
3. The results of this study reflect the two most recent years of retrieved data and the researcher's one-day visit to both schools.
4. Descriptive data from the Maryland State Department of Education Report Card were used to determine relationship between the use of PBS and student outcomes.
5. Conduct related data were retrieved from the principals of both schools.
6. The primary focus of the data was to draw together information pertaining to teacher professional practices and factors pertaining to the individual status of each school's progress. Therefore, no data regarding teachers' and administrators' prior training were gathered.

Limitations

Some limitations of this study are:

1. The state, which houses the PBS schools currently, has six high schools utilizing the same form of PBS; however, none of the schools are considered challenged schools. This limits the generalizability of the results of this study to samples with similar characteristics. Therefore, the findings of this study may not be able to be generalized to other populations.
2. The teacher participants have varying backgrounds. Teachers come from different cultures and have varying socio economic status and years of service.
3. Teachers' views on professional practices may be affected by teacher burnout or distrust of the school or division administrators.
4. Teachers' and principals' views on professional practices may be shaped by personal biases.
5. Principals' views on professional practices may be influenced by central administration's desire to observe positive results from program implementation.

Organization of the Study

This study explored the professional practices of teachers at a PBS and at a traditional high school where Positive Behavior Support was implemented for at least two years. These characteristics are reviewed with respect to Charlotte Danielson's four domains of *A Framework for Teaching*. In Chapter 2, the review of literature begins with a description of students at-risk, then provides background information on Positive Behavior Support, and, finally, focuses on Danielson's research regarding the four domains outlined in her book *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching*. Chapter 3 includes the methodology used to complete the study, beginning with a description of the setting, participants' information, procedures for data collection, and the method of analysis. Chapter 4 reports and discusses the final results of the study, and Chapter 5 outlines the conclusions, implications and recommendations for practice, and opportunities for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This literature review serves as a means to share research-based information pertinent to the teachers' use of professional practices to establish an effective school-wide Positive Behavior Support (PBS) model in high schools. First, this chapter commences with an explanation of my *Literature Review Search Procedures*. The next two sections, *Background of the Problem* and *Students at Risk*, begin by outlining the need for PBS, the characteristics of the at-risk student, and the key research information of behavior theorists relevant to their studies. The third section, *Positive Behavior Support*, provides an in depth review of the history of PBS, the components of PBS, and supporting research-based data. Next, a discourse regarding schemes and practices applicable to the school and teacher influences that serve as important factors directly related to improved student performances is outlined in the *School and Teacher Influences* section. In the fifth section of this chapter, *Effectiveness of Teacher Professional Practices*, a review of the outcome of successful school-wide teacher professional practices and relevant research findings are presented. Finally in the last section, the *Four Domains of Danielson's Framework of Teacher Effectiveness*, are analyzed as each pertains to the implementation of systems of PBS.

Literature Review Search Procedures

Escalating concerns regarding the number of at-risk students exemplifying negative behaviors in our often-troubled urban schools are ever driving up the cost of public education. This cost is not always measured in dollars and cents but in loss of other valuable resources including but not limited to: (a) instructional time, (b) staff development, (c) school and local government collaboration efforts, (d) community and school engagement, (e) parental support and (f) investment in juvenile justice interventions. PBS assist schools in integrating and implementing programs and strategies where a variety of persons work together and smarter to narrow the performance gaps among students and raise the level of academic achievement of all students. An effective discipline plan identifies a structure that in the end increases the schools' capacity to create a safe effective learning environment for all children. It is for this reason that I want to know if research supports PBS and its claim for success.

The following databases were used to search this topic: ERIC from Ovid, PsycINFO and Info Trac. Some of the articles that were recommended for my research, I was able to locate by

title through Google and High Beam Research. High Beam Research is an electronic web-based research company that has hundreds of articles and books available in print and or for purchase. The articles were also located by author and journal publications. Many of the authors I used for research purposes are renowned for their exploration in the field of Positive Behavior Research (PBS). Their names are: Robert Horner, Timothy Lewis, Nancy Marchand-Martella, Ronald Martella, J. Ron Nelson, Lori Newcomer, Terrance Scott and George Sugai to name a few. I was pleasantly surprised to find hundreds of articles, both research studies and opinions. Journals specifically dedicated to the PBS model were readily accessible coupled with several PBS websites, with www.pbis.org serving as a frontrunner. One such journal is *Journal of Positive Behavioral Interventions*. Also, the research assisted me in locating PBS national conferences, seminars and case studies. I actually attended an Effective School wide Discipline (ESD) seminar sponsored by the Virginia Department of Education (VDOE), which presented a taped interview of Timothy Lewis sharing a brief history of effective school wide discipline. Key search terms that proved most effective were (a) behavior modification, (b) positive behavior, (c) effective school wide discipline (d) behavior interventions and (e) systems of positive behavior.

Studies that demonstrated the implementation process and time studies were of particular interest to me. All articles and investigative materials were research studies that were predominantly centered on the years 2000 to 2004. The rationale for this time span centered around the fact that today's behavioral challenges are ever increasing and changing, leading to the need for PBS, which have demonstrated the ability to address the evolution of these behavioral changes. Additionally, I chose studies that present the status of the various implementation processes of PBS and studies that coincided with teacher professional practices as presented in the *Four Domains of Danielson's Framework of teacher Effectiveness*.

Background of the Problem

Educators, politicians, and community activists are feverishly seeking avenues to solve the many problems plaguing today's public schools (Jackson & Panyan, 2002). These problems are often entrenched in negative behaviors that affect the overall school climate. Often the issues are more prevalent in our inner city schools where administrators find themselves utilizing displacement strategies such as suspensions and expulsions to solve these matters (Jackson & Panyan, 2002). Displacement strategies succeed only in transferring the many negative behaviors from our schools to, in most cases, the communities (Knoster, George & Harrower, 2003).

Therefore, the need to restructure the way schools deal with behavior problems becomes an important element to solving the many difficulties that trouble our inner city schools. Positive Behavior Support (PBS) is one model that has been used for nearly 30 years to combat negative student behaviors (Scott, 2001). For the purpose of this paper the comparison of the current status of the teacher's professional practices in a PBS and a traditional high school is explored.

Students at Risk

Who are students at risk? Students at risk are now diverse in their descriptions (Sugai & Horner, 2002). According to leading researchers, educators are faced with this varied student group described as an ever growing population of people some of whom speak English as a second language; have limited family support; experience significant learning and/or behavioral problems; are from families who face financial barriers; and have a great need for mental health, social welfare, medical, and vocational assistance (Sugai, Horner, Dunlap, Heineman, Lewis, Liaupsin, et al, 2000). This group of students also poses challenges that no longer are relegated to the inner city schools, which have so long been thought to be the center of the at risk population; this population of students presents the challenges with which most teachers are faced everyday in the classroom, regardless of school location (see Figure 2). Evidence has indicated that students in both urban and rural areas and elementary, middle, and high schools are equally likely to be involved in violent acts at school (Scott, 2001). Figure 3 depicts the percentage of these students at each level and the type of prevention that is needed. Primary prevention strategies are typically for the greater portion of the school population where 80% of the students will respond to a school-wide systems approach. Secondary prevention strategies are for specialized groups, which consist of approximately 15% of the students where patterns of problem behaviors are noticeable and chronic. Tertiary prevention strategies incorporate specialized methods to deal with the 5% of students with well-developed negative behaviors that are considered high-risk. These students need intense individualized systems of support. This group is considered to be 'well-known' because of their repetitive behaviors (Scott, 2001).

1. A suburban high school with 1,400 students reported more than 2,000 office referrals from September to February of one school year.
2. An urban middle school with 600 students reported more than 2,000 discipline referrals to the office from September to May.
3. A rural middle school with 530 students reported more than 2,600 office referrals. A total of 304 students had at least one referral, 136 students had at least 5 referrals, 34 students had more than 20 referrals, and 1 student had 87 office referrals.
4. In one state, expulsions increased from 426 to 2,088, and suspensions increased from 53,374 to 66,914 over a 4-year period.
5. In another state, expulsions increased from 855 to 1,180 between the 1994-1995 and 1995-1996 school year—a 200% increase from the 1991-1992 school years.
6. Being suspended or expelled from school is reported by students as one of the top three school-related reasons for leaving school.
7. In one state, 11% of students who had been suspended or expelled also were found in the state's Department of Juvenile Justice Database; 5% of suspended students were arrested while on suspension; and 6% were arrested while on expulsion.
8. Thirty-six percent of general public school parents fear for the physical safety of their oldest child at school, and 31% fear for the physical safety of their oldest child while playing in their neighborhood.
9. The general public rated fighting/violence/gangs, lack of discipline, lack of funding, and use of drugs as the top four biggest problems facing local schools. These same four have been in the top for over 15 years.

Figure 2. Examples of contemporary challenges for schools, families, and communities. Adapted from *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions* by Sugai, et al, 2000, p. 5.

Positive Behavior Support

In the 1980s the public outcry for safer schools became prevalent nationwide (Crone & Horner, 2003). Even though schools were and still are considered one of the safest places for our children, the increase of fighting, violence, vandalism, truancy, lack of discipline and drug use warranted the need for more data based and scientifically researched behavioral strategies (Sugai & Horner, 2002). During this time, the number of students with disabilities or special needs children also increased in our comprehensive schools (Horner & Sugai, 2002). With the increased number of this particular target group in the general education setting came the severe antisocial behavioral concerns (Edwards, Carr & Siegel, 2006). The concern then was how and whether these students could be educated in a regular school atmosphere. Hence, Figure 3 on page 19 illustrates how and where the different levels of PBS are to be implemented. Since PBS

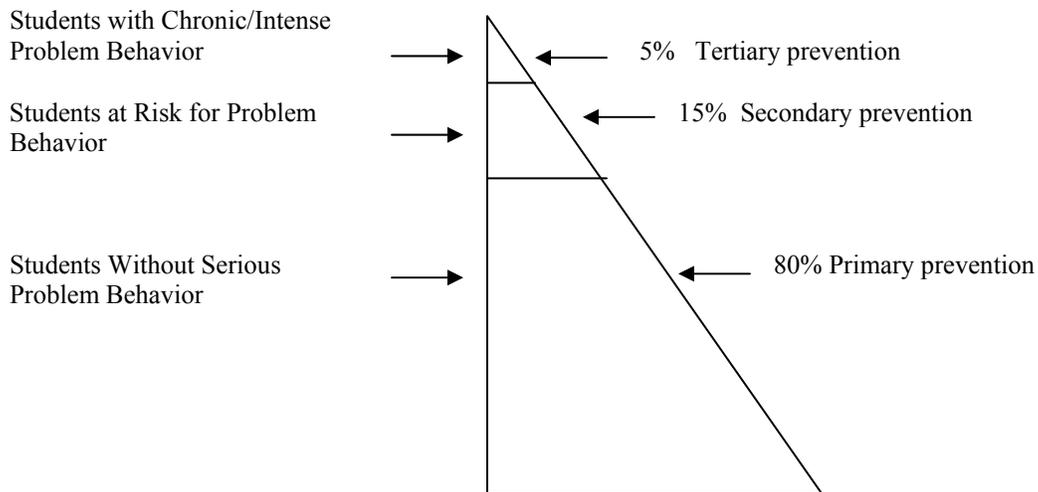


Figure 3: Levels of Positive Behavior Support.

is a school-wide approach Figure 3 also depicts the amount of use needed at each preventive level which covers the entire school's population. In this manner PBS becomes a tool for all students taking in consideration the amount of time an effort needed for each level.

When students demonstrated aggressive behaviors towards schoolmates and adults, defiance and obstinate dispositions were rampant and the overall learning environment was consistently disrupted, teachers and administrators looked for exclusionary strategies to clean up these situations (Sugai & Horner, 2002). Initially, the method used to correct these ever-growing concerns was dealt with through the popular *Standards of Student Conduct Manuals*. When occurrences of rule violating behavior increased in frequency and intensity, monitoring and surveillance was increased to *catch* future occurrences of problem behavior, rules and sanctions for problem behavior were restated and reemphasized, the continuum of punishment consequences for repeated rule-violations was extended, efforts were directed toward increasing the consistency with which school staff reacted to displays of antisocial behavior, and bottom-line consequences were accentuated to restrict or curb future displays of problem behavior (Sugai & Horner, 2002). Along with the aforementioned policies and procedures the following reactive responses were and continue to be overly utilized: (a) establishing zero tolerance policies; (b) hiring security personnel; (c) adding surveillance cameras; (d) adopting school uniform policies; (e) using in-and-out-of-school detention, suspension, and expulsion; and (f) establishing alternative school placements and programs (Sugai & Horner, 2002, p. 26).

None of the policies, procedures and reactive responses mentioned above was noted for any long-range effect. In fact, researchers noted that as stand alone procedures each only served as a band-aid effect with many of the antisocial behaviors returning in some form (Sugai & Horner, 2002). Additionally, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1975 entitled all youth with special needs to a Free Appropriate Public Education (FAPE). Therefore, preventive measures for positive change had to be put in place to avoid often-used exclusionary practices that customarily follow the behavioral concerns of children with disabilities. George Sugai and Robert Horner, two leading activists and researchers of PBS, cited a 2001 report on the prevention of school violence published by the Office of the US Surgeon General and prepared by the US Department of Health and Human Services recommending that schools emphasize prevention-based strategies that

1. Break up the contingencies that maintain antisocial behavior networks,
2. Increase rates and opportunities for academic success,
3. Establish and sustain positive school and classroom climates, and
4. Give priority to an agenda of primary prevention (p. 5).

Thus, schools are being asked to organize their resources, activities and initiatives in ways that efficiently occasion high quality and sustained improvements and positive change in teacher and student behavior (Sugai & Horner, 2001).

Over time the PBS approach has broadened from serving and being implemented by individuals to systems-level implementation to address all students' needs. A systems-level approach provides countless opportunities to integrate behavior science strategies, which targets the whole school (Brown, 2003). The intent is to bring about systemic change in the learning atmosphere by adjusting the way students and teachers integrate preventive and positive approaches, which address problem behaviors and improve academic practices. Herein lies the key focus of PBS in building responsive environments that stack the deck in favor of appropriate student behavior and preferred quality of life outcomes (Turnbull et al., 2002).

The evolution of PBS has moved towards a greater focus on school-wide and system-wide models. Three components of School-wide Positive Behavior Support (PBS) are (1) universal support, (2) group support, and (3) individual support (Turnbull et al., 2002). These three components serve as the new wave of PBS and exist on two continua: (1) scope of students involved and (2) intensity of support (Turnbull et al., 2002). In order to successfully address all

the needs of the students in a particular school both continua must be implemented. The PBS model is only as effective as the identification of the scope and intensity support services. As an example of the success of a PBS, Turnbull and associates reported two-year data of an urban middle school that used the model, which included the three support components. They found that the total number of office discipline referrals decreased by 19%, in-school conferences with students decreased by 23%, timeouts when students are required to sit in the office for a period of time decreased by 30%, in-school suspensions decreased by 12%, short-term suspensions decreased by 60%, and out-of-school replacements remained the same (Turnbull et al., 2002). Much of the research shows that in many schools students require more intensified support based on the problematic needs of the urban students; such as low attendance, illiteracy, and gang violence. In a January 2005 Virginia Department of Education Report, school officials offered the following data after successful implementation of a school-wide system of effective discipline (Virginia Department of Education, 2005):

1. One middle/high school reduced the number of discipline referrals by two-thirds. Student academic engagement increased, and faculty, staff and students said the school was a calmer place.
2. In another middle school, administrators found they saved the equivalent of 20 eight-hour days and teachers found they had more than 430 more hours for instruction. Statewide achievement scores increased dramatically over a four-year period.
3. Over a four-year period, the number of elementary school students who met state achievement standards in reading increased from 20% to 79% (p. 2).

School and Teacher Influences

Schools and teachers play an integral part in the shaping and development of all students for preparation as a productive member of the adult community. Jackson and Panyan (2002) suggest that the student's role, while in school, is to develop

1. The ability to define personal lifestyles and life patterns that are within the latitudes deemed as acceptable by the broader culture;
2. An understanding and acceptance of the lifestyle choices of others, given the diversity that human and cultural differences entail;
3. A capacity for collaborative activity and problem solving for the realization of broader social ends;

4. An appreciation for the historical, artistic, and literary accomplishments that help define the worth of the groups in which a citizen has membership; and
5. The skills to make a contribution to society through community membership and participation, child rearing, and career/vocational pursuits.

Even though these are key learning points for student development, schools and teachers also have a responsibility to address varied behavioral concerns among groups of people. Each school, as it encounters the diverse troubled concerns of the at-risk student, has a responsibility to recognize the varying needs of students and provide strategies to ensure equality. Herein lie the schools' opportunities to seek out problem-solving measures found in the PBS model of behavioral modification and decrease their reliance on exclusion as an enhancement tool for the learning environment. Exclusion, as previously noted, only serves to place individuals at a greater disadvantage upon their entry into adulthood.

In today's schools teachers work to develop plans to address the problem needs of the students. The teachers' creativity provides a level of behavioral diversity in a class, which serves as an important indicator of teacher quality in student preparedness for the future (Szabo & Mokhtari, 2004). Selecting methods to create a classroom atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning supports the use of PBS strategies when implemented as replacement to student behavioral elimination practices (Strickland & Snow, 2002). Teachers and schools must realize that removal of students limits their opportunities to learn and improve upon their individual socialization skills. Jackson and Panyan reported in 2002 that removal reduces the impetus for improving instruction and discipline because the responsible adults no longer experience circumstances that might encourage greater accountability and positive changes in practice. Furthermore, it emulates for the remaining students the use of exclusion as a primary strategy for resolving problems when the behavioral and learning difficulties challenge the status quo.

Person-centered planning by teachers in schools helps to direct a more focused model of individualization for troubled youth (Jackson & Panyan, 2002). Through this method the teacher is able to tailor positive behavior support to meet the needs of a student while at the same time meeting the academic growth, instructional compliance, and conformity to social convention needs, which all serve as student success indicators (Walker & Sylwester, 1998). Teachers who utilize this method assist the students in becoming more independent in their actions to correct poor interpersonal behaviors. A classroom where student autonomy is present builds a more

positive student to teacher relationship that in turn assists both entities in taking charge of their own change activities (Marchand-Martella, 2002). PBS strategies used with this format in mind become an effective behavioral change model to give responsibility to students to correct their own negative behaviors. This person-centered approach, therefore, helps to establish an effective student to teacher relationship that is key to positive behavioral support in the classroom (Sprague & Walker, 2004).

Effectiveness of Teacher Professional Practices

Teacher professional practices are paramount to the development and inclusion of effective PBS in schools. Not only are the practices key to the overall success of the implementation process, the selection of the appropriate methods to address the specific behaviors are equally important (Clarke, Worcester, Dunlap, Murray, & Bradley-Klug, 2002). Therefore, the following two sections will identify (1) teacher instructional applications and self-efficacy approaches to effecting change in negative behaviors, (2) the effectiveness of the interventions, and (3) how to implement the desired changes for the purpose of creating a wholesome classroom and school environment.

Instructional Practices

Researchers using large databases and multilevel techniques in their studies have consistently found that teacher effectiveness influences students' achievement and is one of the main influences on student progress over time (Muijs & Reynolds, 2002). With this important factor in mind, it is imperative to view the teacher as the major catalyst for academic and social growth of students in today's schools. In view of that, the teacher transforms the classroom into a more important venue than the school itself when it comes to the teaching and learning process. Behind the closed doors of the classroom the teacher provides the guidance, nurturing, and assurance that the students need in order to overcome the many challenges they face daily (Ponticelli & Zepeda, 2004). Hence, teacher performance serves as the main predictor and influences on student academic and social progress, more so than factors such as class size (Muijs & Reynolds, 2002).

Research has shown that student progress is evident for those that are taught by effective teachers over consecutive years than those that are taught by ineffective teachers for the same number of years (Edwards, Carr, & Siegel, 2006). It follows, then, that instructional practices

serve as the main gauge of student achievement. Educational researchers identify the following factors as key to student success: (a) teacher personality, (b) teacher beliefs and attitudes, (c) teacher self-efficacy and motivation, (d) subject knowledge, and (e) knowledge of pedagogy (Muijs & Reynolds, 2002).

All of the aforementioned factors are important to the teacher as the catalyst to the development of an effective school. A teacher's beliefs center around the practical knowledge and sincerity held by the instructor towards the student and personal experiences which permeate through the concept that beliefs are encouraged by the experiences (Coberly & Cosgrove, 2002). Teacher self-efficacy, when high, transfers to the students, which in turn becomes prevalent in the students they teach as exemplified in student achievement and positive behavior (Phelps, 2006). Knowledge of the subject and effective teaching practices are teacher characteristics that link teacher behaviors in the classroom to student outcomes. Teachers who demonstrate and have a grasp of the content matter and the teaching profession traditionally have students who perform well on standardized tests and basic thinking skills tasks (Phelps, 2006).

Additional studies by Bosler and Bauman (1992) identify teacher modeling as the most effective behavior in conveying values and attitudes in the classroom. Humans naturally imitate what they see, which draws attention to interaction between the student and the teacher. A teacher who demonstrates a clear vision and a positive attitude towards school, teaching and learning passes those character traits on to the student. The influence of the teacher encourages student achievement and positive behaviors, which plays an important role in the development of a wholesome school climate.

School climate is also established in the classroom through teacher collaboration—a technique that is on the rise through inclusion and the teaming process (Wiebe Berry, 2006). Educators believe that efforts that are both collaborative and cooperative can lead to improvements in the social and cultural practices of education and enhance understanding (Reid-Griffin, Carter, Park, Weibe, Flynn, Parsons, Butler & Haefner, 2004). The formulation of teams helps to build local communities of practice where teachers improve upon their instructional and classroom management skills (Reid-Griffin et al., 2004). Teachers formulate teamwork skills that enhance the quality of relationship building and the promotion of positive behavioral management. Faculty teamwork provides an environment in which “participants develop shared

visions, competence, and organizational perspectives that support team learning” (Bondy, Ross, & Senge; as cited in Reid-Griffin et al., 2004, p. 45).

Positive Behavior Support Approaches

The teacher who serves as the number one means to effecting positive change to negative behaviors in the classroom stays on the look out for acceptable behavior (Lopes, Monteiro, Sil, Rutherford, & Quinn, 2004). In order to identify acceptable behaviors the teacher directs the focus to what is right and needed for positive management instead of focusing on all the *rules* to combat the unacceptable behaviors (Lopes et al., 2004). The positive approach is much more concerned with encouraging a child to do something rather than on instructing him to stop doing something (Cheeseman & Watts, 1985). Rules that stress the dos and don'ts of day-to-day management act as a support to more negative behavior (Horner & Sugai, 2002). These traditional methods continue to place all the power of the positive approach to changing negative behaviors in the hands of the teacher. Educators, however, see that the focus of the positive approach emphasizes a more collaborative style of classroom management that includes the students taking responsibility for effective change in their own behavior (Horner & Sugai, 2002). Cheeseman and Watts (1985) present a brief overview of some strategies to bring about behavioral change.

Re-arranging Antecedents

- (a) Give clear instructions, making the rules explicit and reminding pupils of them. Provide behavioral rehearsal.
- (b) Give an early warning: lessen the impact of bad news by allowing the child to plan his remaining time or actions.
- (c) Give good news with bad: this pairing can reduce the side effects associated with a reprimand.
- (d) Change your own behavior: both verbal and non-verbal.
- (e) Change the setting: altering the physical environment or social setting is a positive way of preventing problem behaviors. Removing temptation also falls into this category.
- (f) Introduce a prompt: use non-verbal cues to signal appropriate and inappropriate behaviors.

Teaching Competing Behavior

- (a) Help the child learn a new skill or behavior, which is incompatible with the problem behavior.
- (b) Suggest the pupil use an alternative behavior in order to prevent the occurrence of the problem behavior.

Changing the Consequences

- (a) Selective attention: ignoring the behavior (extinction).
- (b) Positive reinforcement and reward of good behavior.
- (c) Sharing the responsibility for the situation: using contracting.
- (d) Punishing unwanted behaviors.
- (e) Using time out: removing a pupil from a difficult situation for a short period of time.

The effective implementation and utilization of these strategies assures the teacher that positive change is based on what is desirable for successful change. Therefore, teacher behaviors applicable to direct usage in their individual classrooms become key ingredients to formulating positive change. While dependence upon specifically designed plans become less important to effective change, it is likely that teacher decisions regarding the needed change depend upon the nature of the problem (Keith & Anderson, 1997).

Research Findings

As stated earlier, the framework for professional practice derives from the same research base as the criteria for PRAXIS III: Classroom Performance Assessments. However, the difference lies within the framework's intent to apply the work to all teachers and its design to be used in professional conversations that accompany mentoring or peer coaching (Danielson, 1996). Danielson clearly mentions that the framework must resonate with the professional vision that individuals bring to their craft and each component must be found consistent with the way teachers view their work in order for the components to be of value. Hence, the following research is provided to support the four domains and its 22 components as a structure for substantiating the use of sound professional practices in all schools. The conceptual framework in Figure 4 presents Danielson's four domains and their components.

<p>Components in Domain 1: Planning and Preparation</p> <p>Component 1a: <i>Demonstrating Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy</i></p> <p>Component 1b: <i>Demonstrating Knowledge of Students</i></p> <p>Component 1c: <i>Selecting Instructional Goals</i></p> <p>Component 1d: <i>Demonstrating Knowledge of Resources</i></p> <p>Component 1e: <i>Designing Coherent Instruction</i></p> <p>Component 1f: <i>Assessing Student Learning</i></p>	<p>Components in Domain 2: The Classroom Environment</p> <p>Component 2a: <i>Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport</i></p> <p>Component 2b: <i>Establishing a Culture for Learning</i></p> <p>Component 2c: <i>Managing Classroom Procedures</i></p> <p>Component 2d: <i>Managing Student Behavior</i></p> <p>Component 2e: <i>Organizing Physical Space</i></p>
<p>Components in Domain 3: Instruction</p> <p>Component 3a: <i>Communicating Clearly and Accurately</i></p> <p>Component 3b: <i>Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques</i></p> <p>Component 3c: <i>Engaging Students in Learning</i></p> <p>Component 3d: <i>Providing Feedback to Students</i></p> <p>Component 3e: <i>Demonstrating Flexibility and Responsiveness</i></p>	<p>Components in Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities</p> <p>Component 4a: <i>Reflecting on Teaching</i></p> <p>Component 4b: <i>Maintaining Accurate Records</i></p> <p>Component 4c: <i>Communicating with Families</i></p> <p>Component 4d: <i>Contributing to the School and District</i></p> <p>Component 4e: <i>Growing and Developing Professionally</i></p> <p>Component 4f: <i>Showing Professionalism</i></p>

Figure 4. Danielson’s four domains and 22 components. Adapted from *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching* by Charlotte Danielson, 1996, pp. 30-33.

Domain 1: Planning & Preparation

Danielson reports that the research on planning and preparation is plentiful and understandable. Shulman's work (1987) supports Component 1a (demonstrating knowledge of content and pedagogy) citing that teachers are expected to understand what they teach in several ways. Shulman also points out that teachers should understand how a given idea relates to other ideas within the same subject area and to ideas in other subjects as well.

Throughout Danielson's (1996) research regarding planning and preparation she shares the importance of becoming familiar with and building on students' knowledge and skills (Component 1b) as a concept that demonstrates that learners are already likely to know and understand certain aspects of the subject matter. These learners also bring with them from their home environments experiences and knowledge that help inform their learning process (Floden, Buchmann & Schwille, 1987).

Component 1c (selecting instructional goals) was identified in Danielson's four domains as a factor that demonstrates a link between effective teaching and learning and the teacher's formulation of learning goals that are appropriate for the students. The goal, according to Danielson, must have intellectual rigor and be supported by high expectations for students making sure to eliminate a watered-down curriculum that precludes the development of higher-order thinking skills.

Instructional materials (Component 1d) to be used also serve as a key ingredient when designing a logical lesson for students. Researchers continue to debate about identifying this component as a crucial link between teacher effectiveness and the planning of learning activities (Danielson, 1996). Their debate stems from varied understandings regarding the use of instructional materials as an important lesson design tool; for example, some outside resources help academic learning: tutoring and homework hotlines. Others meet non-academic needs: Big Brother and Big Sister programs and mentoring. In other words, some instructors extend their search beyond the classroom to enhance their students' overall knowledge while others believe that instruction is deemed most successful as it applies to face-to-face classroom applications.

Danielson (1996) believes that the importance of designing coherent instruction (Component 1e) confirms the understanding that students learn more and rate their teachers higher when they can understand how facts, concepts, and principles are interrelated and that students learn better when instruction is logically sequenced. Furthermore, she introduces

Component 1f (assessing student learning) as a means to enhance the learner's achievement. She supplements this notion by sharing that effective teachers plan for the evaluation of student progress in relation to the stated learning goals.

In one study Edwards, Carr, and Siegel (2006) explored differentiated instruction (DI) as an approach for meeting the academic and related needs of a wide array of diverse learners in schools. Particularly, they looked at ways to break teachers' trends of teaching the way they were taught. Cuban (1983) noted the following set of core teaching practices, which endured over the past century:

1. Teaching the whole group,
2. Reliance upon a textbook,
3. Rows of desks, and
4. Question-answer framework for carrying on dialogue.

These are all practices that are in direct opposition to the components of Domain 1, which are identified as those to determine the teacher's effectiveness in knowledge of content, pedagogy, students, and resources; selecting instructional goals; and designing coherent instruction.

The authors' focus of the research was on the effectiveness of the teacher education program in a university to train future teachers in the use of DI to meet students' needs. Not only was the research to identify the efficient training and understanding of DI but to translate this instruction into practice in schools. Successfully implementing DI strategies translates into effective planning and preparation practices employed in the classrooms of teachers. Therefore, the teachers in this project were examined for their identification of students' uniqueness, in planning, teaching, and evaluating lessons. The participants in this study were also carefully analyzed for their implementation of methods such as, engagement of students through different learning modalities, each student's competition with self; multiple approaches to all aspects of lessons; student-centered lessons; combination of whole-class, group, and individual instruction; more qualitative than quantitative research; and a proactive rather than reactive attitude.

Participants in this study were teacher candidates, teachers, teacher educators, and principals in Region II of the Louisiana Department of Education. Group 1 (n=17) consisted of the 2001 student teacher core from Southeastern Louisiana University's teacher preparation program. Group 2 (n=34) consisted of elementary school teachers who participated in a two-day workshop presented by the same consultant. The other participants who attended and participated

in the workshop did not participate in the study. Group 1 participants were 88% female and all Caucasian with 94% having no teaching experience. Ninety-one percent of Group 2 was Caucasian and all were female with 94% reporting that they had teaching experience in general education or general/inclusion teachers and the majority taught at the elementary school.

All respondents completed a questionnaire immediately before participating in the workshop. Teacher candidates (Group 1) completed the same questionnaire 10 months later, upon completion of their student teaching experience. Group 2, established teachers, completed the same post-questionnaire 3 months later at the end of the school year. A selected task force examined the results of each participant's student teacher exit survey after their active participation in a special training program for teacher candidates and teams of elementary school teachers and administrators. Program participants completed pre-and post-training surveys.

The task force was comprised of university faculty representing elementary and special education, as well as two elementary school teachers who use differentiated instruction in their classes. The task force did the following: a) reviewed research literature, educational materials, policy documents, and student teaching exit surveys; b) compiled a list of resources; and c) conducted pilot surveys of teacher educators and candidates. Forms of diversity, inclusion, accommodations and modifications are related items that served as parameters to limit the scope of the research and identified questions on DI.

The research instrument was a questionnaire consisting of five sections. The first three sections had 18 items, requiring a 5-point Likert-type scale rating. In Section 1, respondents indicated ("not at all" to "frequently") regarding use of various strategies/techniques to plan for and accommodate individual differences in the classroom. In Section 2, they indicated how well prepared ("not at all" to "very") they planned and used the same strategies/techniques. In Section 3, respondents indicated how necessary ("not at all" to "very") each strategy/technique was to effectively teach all students. Section 4 of the questionnaire asked participants to provide definitions for *diversity*, *inclusion*, *differentiated instruction*, *accommodations*, and *modifications*. The final section requested demographic data.

The following tables report the effects of training involving pre-and post-test results of Group 1 (candidates) and Group 2 (teachers) responses on the 54-item questionnaire. The analysis was a repeated measures ANOVA with one within-subjects factor (test occasion—pre/post) and one between-subjects factor (type of respondents—candidate/teacher).

In this comparison the results show that the only significant effect was the within-subject factor (test occasion)- $F(1,30) = 17.669$, $p < .001$. There was no overall difference between the candidates and teachers, nor was there a significant interaction between the type of subject and test occasion. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 1 on page 37.

When the means for the importance of DI strategies/techniques were compared, there was no significant difference between pre- and post-test scores, the candidates and teachers, or interaction between the type of subject and test occasion. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 3 on page 37.

When the means of preparation/training in DI strategies/techniques were compared, the only significant effect was the within-subject factor (test occasion)- $F(1,30) = 7.247$, $p = .012$. There was no overall difference between the candidates and teachers, nor was there a significant interaction between the type of subject and test occasion. The means and standard deviations of Section 2 are presented in Table 2.

Table 1

The Means and Standard Deviation of Within Subject Factor

	Pretest Mean	SD	Post-test Mean	SD	N
Candidates	3.5556	.65145	4.2009	.45505	13
Teachers	3.4568	.85049	3.8363	.61096	19

Table 2

The Means and Standard Deviation of preparation/training in DI Strategies

	Pretest Mean	SD	Post-test Mean	SD	N
Candidates	3.4530	.70814	4.0214	.34287	13
Teachers	3.7427	.84563	3.8860	.55199	19

Table 3

The Means and Standard Deviation of the Importance of DI Strategies

	Pretest Mean	SD	Post-test Mean	SD	N
Candidates	4.4915	.44609	4.6282	.42212	13
Teachers	4.4503	.57195	4.4298	.52308	19

From *“Influences of Experiences and Training on Effective Teaching Practices to Meet the Needs of Diverse Learners in Schools,”* by C. J. Edwards, S. Carr & W. Siegel, 2006, *Education*, 126, pp. 580-92.

Considering the results of items in Tables 1, 2, and 3, the researchers report that teacher educators should model the principles of differentiated instruction in their classes, as well as teach DI strategies/techniques and require the use of DI during field experiences. For teachers, the results indicate that in-service and graduate programs could focus on cultural diversity and the terminology associated with effective pedagogical practices. Additionally, the results prove that candidates and teachers are prepared to use and are using specific DI strategies/techniques and their attitudes reflect the necessity of employing those strategies/techniques in their classroom planning and preparation. This information can be utilized in the development of curricula for teacher education classes and in-service training provided by schools.

Domain 2: The Classroom Environment

Establishing a positive classroom environment is critical to the day-to-day teaching and learning process. Characteristics of a constructive classroom environment are typically found in schools where student achievement and student to teacher collaboration is high. Teacher expectations of student behavior also ranks high among the traits teachers must possess for success to be prevalent in the classroom. The literature supports the premise that teachers who demonstrate a high level of commitment towards developing a positive climate characteristically exhibit a high level of self-motivation. This self-motivation often leads the teacher in a search for desirable behavioral modifications to assist in improving student performance. These modifications may include behavioral contracts, school-home note systems, reinforcement programs, task difficulty adjustments, social skills instruction, or even merely changing seat assignments (Lane, Pierson, Robertson & Little, 2004). All the aforesaid techniques seem to be quite effective in creating a positive classroom environment when implemented with integrity and with sustained efforts. These techniques, moreover, overlap the five components outlined by

Danielson (1996) in her framework for teaching: (a) creating an environment of respect and rapport, (b) establishing a culture for learning, (c) managing classroom procedures, (d) managing student behavior, and (d) organizing physical space.

The classroom is the key location for establishing mutual grounds for respect and rapport. Respect and rapport (Component 2a) must be present between teacher and students and among students in order to have successful relationships in the classroom. Teachers, through their interaction with the students and by the interaction they encourage and cultivate among students, create an atmosphere of mutual respect and rapport. A role that is taken on by the teacher, which demonstrates friendliness, caring, and openness, promotes high levels of respect and rapport (Danielson, 1996). These roles are often different and are put in place based on the culture, teacher demeanor, and grade levels of the students. What works in one arena may not necessarily serve as the ultimate manner to develop respect and rapport in another. Hence, the teacher becomes the creator of the techniques needed for a successful atmosphere by never losing the true focus of developing and exhibiting the essential caring that students are encouraged to display for all those in the classroom (Muijs & Reynolds, 2002).

Often the proof of a successful classroom is evident in the look of the room itself. In this case, the class environment promotes positive conversations among all individuals in the room. The surroundings foster personal growth and development. All the lessons and activities carried out and displayed are those that demonstrate high expectations of learning. Students generally display attitudes that seem to value learning and hard work (Garavalia & Gredler, 2002). To continue building a feeling of respect and rapport, the classroom must continue to develop in these areas to deter the negative behaviors that characteristically lead to student non-compliance, a major obstacle to teachers' ability to manage the classroom and deliver instruction (Sherman, 2004).

Noncompliance often diminishes the teacher's ability to build a classroom of mutual respect and rapport through students' constant resistance of teacher directives. Bullying, stealing, peer conflict and other disruptive behaviors are directly related to noncompliance (Walker & Sylwester, 1998). Noncompliance, as a descriptive term, is also used to refer to a failure to comply with the specific requests, commands, or directives of teachers and parents. Walker and Sylwester (1998) reported research of two types of commands that prompts students' compliance or noncompliance (see Table 4). These commands are known as alpha and beta. *Alpha*

commands involve a clear, direct, and specific directive, without additional verbalizations, that allow reasonable time for a response. *Beta* commands involve vague or multiple directives, given simultaneously and accompanied by excess verbalization, and without a clear criterion or adequate opportunity for compliance (Walker & Sylwester, 1998).

Table 4

Types of Alpha and Beta Commands

Alpha	Beta
1. "Corey I want you to pick up your room as soon as you're through with dinner."	1. "James, your room is always a mess! Why don't you clean it up instead of waiting for me to do it for you?"
2. "Greg, go see the school attendance officer about yesterday's absence!"	2. "Georgi. It's time for you to get to work. Don't let me catch you loafing again or you'll have to stay in during recess!"

Herzog, 1998 conducted a direct observational study of student refusal responses to teacher directives in first and second grade classes. The research involved two 30-minute observations of 40 elementary teachers and their classrooms in which their directives and student responses to them were coded and recoded. Herzog reported the following results:

1. The teachers gave an average of 59% alpha commands as opposed to 41% beta commands.
2. Students complied with 83% of all teacher commands given: the proportions were 88% for alpha commands and 76% for beta commands.

This research supports that the predominant use of alpha commands creates a stronger atmosphere of mutual respect and rapport while at the same time discourages the use of beta commands. In consideration to mutual respect, alpha commands take into account each individual's sensitivity towards certain directives by appealing to all parties' desires to be viewed as important to the daily teaching and learning processes (Herzog, 1998). Further, since there is also research that shows that at-risk students and those with behavior disorders are much less likely to comply with adult commands, particularly beta commands, Herzog's observational study reinforces the importance of using alpha commands to get the type of compliance and response necessary to maintain a successful classroom.

Walker and Sylwester (1998) offer other suggestions in assisting teachers in maintaining respect and rapport in the classroom by eliminating noncompliance: (a) avoid getting pulled into hostile, escalated interactions with a student who is agitated; (b) avoid beta commands and use only alpha commands to direct and manage student behavior; (c) limit the number of commands you give; and (d) pay close attention to the timing and nature of the commands that are given (p.4). The researchers recommend that teachers utilize self-monitoring and recording of directives to students such as, simple counting or recording devices to identify effective use of verbal commands to achieve compliance in the classroom.

Evidence of a culture for learning (Component 2b) as described by Danielson (1996) shows in the appearance of the classroom through student work displays, conversations among students and teacher, and the overall attitudes of high expectations in achieving maximum success on all tasks. The value systems shared by all disclose the fact that difficult tasks are mere obstacles to be championed by the collaborative efforts of students and teachers. A culture for learning does not automatically happen; it is established through a variety of instructional and managerial practices. The goal is to ultimately instill pride and determination in the students that they might consistently seek methods to improve in every aspect of their own human growth and development. Through the establishment of these two characteristics, the classroom atmosphere—indicative of a commitment to high quality work, advancement of personal ideals and a high regard for personal abilities—leads the way to a positive culture for learning.

According to Tomlinson et al. (2003) the challenge of serving the academically diverse learners in regular classrooms seems an inevitable part of a teacher's role. This challenge focuses on the broad range of teacher preparedness and instructional practices needed to address student readiness, interests, and learning profiles. The diversity of the classrooms is typified by a variety of characteristics that include, but are not limited to, (a) students with identified learning problems; (b) highly advanced learners; (c) students whose first language is not English; (d) students from broadly diverse cultures and economic backgrounds; (e) motivated and unmotivated students; (f) students who fall closer to the template of grade-level expectations and norms; and (g) students with widely varying interests and preferred modes of learning. These characteristics require teachers to address learner variance in the regular classroom; therefore, a call for teachers to adjust curriculum, materials, and support to ensure that each student has equity of access to high-quality learning becomes vital to the establishment of a culture of

learning (Tomlinson et al., 2003). Bearne and Tomlinson (cited in Tomlinson et al., 2003) define this need for varied instruction as differentiation, which means an approach to teaching, designed to maximize the learning opportunity for each student in a classroom, wherein teachers proactively modify curricula, teaching methods, resources, learning activities, and student products to address the diverse needs of individual students and small groups of students.

Hootstein's (1998) survey of high school teachers found 90% responding that addressing academic differences is important or very important. By contrast, 50% of respondents to a nationwide survey of middle schools teachers said they did not differentiate instruction based on readiness, interest, or learning profile because they saw no need to do so (Tomlinson et al., 2003). In general many teachers acknowledge academic diversity in their classrooms and the need to incorporate differentiated practices. However, the research shows that their practices are misaligned with those beliefs mainly because traditional practices tend to promote the idea of equity. Tomlinson et al. (2003) further report that theory and research support the need for differentiated instruction for the establishment of a culture of learning. The following characteristics of the differentiated approach were proposed:

1. Effective differentiation of curriculum and instruction is proactive, rather than reactive.
2. Effective differentiation employs flexible use of small teaching-learning groups in the classroom.
3. Effective differentiation varies the materials used by individuals and small groups of students in the classroom.
4. Effective differentiation uses variable pacing as a means of addressing learner needs.
5. Effective differentiation is knowledge centered.
6. Effective differentiation is learner centered.

While the aforementioned characteristics of the differentiated classroom serve as a guide to effective differentiation practices, it must be understood that they are ineffective without strong implementation practices, which influence the classroom culture. The key to implementation is to remain student-centered rather than teacher-centered (Tomlinson et al., 2003). Therefore, establishing a culture of learning requires continued willingness from the teacher to develop classrooms that are challenging and more inviting to all students.

Teachers can further enhance a student's experience in the classroom by ensuring that the class is free of chaos and distractions. So, before effective classroom instruction can occur, a teacher must be able to manage daily routine classroom procedures (Component 2c). Without effective management practices chaos becomes an unfortunate factor in the teacher's instructional operations. A poorly managed classroom is easy to spot: time is wasted on non-instructional matters, students must wait for a teacher's attention, instructional groups are off-task, materials are not at hand, and transitions are confused. By contrast, Danielson (1996) offers the following description of an effectively managed classroom:

1. One where procedures and transitions are seamless.
2. Students assume responsibility for the classroom's smooth operation.
3. Instructional groups are engaged at all times.
4. Students function well within the groups.
5. Transitions in the classroom are smooth.
6. Materials needed for the lesson are at hand.
7. Procedures for distribution and collection of materials are well established.
8. Students assume responsibility for the care and location of materials.
9. Classroom volunteers and paraprofessionals are provided valuable guidance and supervision (p. 23).

Graham Nuthall (2005) shared results from research of a longitudinal study on teaching that argue that classroom teaching is structured by ritualized routines supported by widely held myths about student learning and ability. This research was Nuthall's personal journey of over 45 years of teaching. Nuthall recounts how much of what teachers do in schools and what they believe about teaching and learning is a matter of cultural routines and myths. For the purpose of this section on Managing Classroom Procedures, his research journey on *Identifying How Students and Teachers Manage Classroom Activities* (1998 – 2001) is presented.

What emerged from this study was a growing understanding of how classroom activities are structured and how teachers and students create their own routines and patterns of interaction within larger culturally determined patterns of classroom behaviors. The four phases of learning activities were identified as (a) instructional phase, (b) activity phase, (c) reporting phase, and (d) wrap-up phase. Each phase demonstrated that students often sought to identify what actually the teacher was looking for followed by the students' determination to find the easiest method to

retrieve the teacher's desired results. Often much of the time was spent identifying the students who would answer all the questions followed by the waiting period of the class to retrieve these answers from those students.

Unfortunately students followed their own rules about what counts as being helpful, contributing, copying, and cheating. When Nuthall showed a video taping of a class activity to a group of students and asked what they were thinking during the class activity, the common answer was that they were thinking how to get finished quickly or how to get the answer with the least possible effort. Most teachers were observed demonstrating a higher focus on resources, how long the activity should take, and what would happen if it were not finished on time. Students on-task talked mainly about how much each of them had completed, how long the activity would take, where the answers could be found, and whether it could be finished for homework. Generally speaking the classroom life of teachers and students was mostly about organizing and getting tasks completed.

The research also presented three cultural contexts that caused predictable patterns and structures that coordinated the interactions of the participants. They are:

1. Public teacher-managed activity routines and rules,
2. Peer relationships and interactions, and
3. Personal cultural context of beliefs, attitudes and knowledge that individual students brought into the classroom from their family and neighborhood backgrounds.

Nuthall concluded that since ritualized routines are recognized by teachers as the right way to run classrooms and students have learned to play, and accept without question the reciprocal roles that these routines require, then teachers do not have to pay more than passing attention to the experiences of individual students. Meaning, so long as the routines are following the expected format, well-intentioned teachers can be completely unaware that they are favoring boys over girls or majority over minority students or teaching content that the students already know. Nuthall (2005) ends by communicating that the feelings, values, needs, and beliefs of students are the result of socializing into the commonly held culture of teaching and that the theoretical knowledge and school folklore are the result of the web of supporting myths and beliefs that underpin the cultural routines of teaching. Therefore, this research provides information that supports the need for a clear understanding of classroom culture, effective

grouping of students, and appropriate management of activities all done simultaneously as the teacher develops functional management of classroom procedures.

Johnson, Rice, Edgington, and Williams (2005) also examined procedures and behavior management strategies that teachers can use to alleviate problems with classroom management. They describe classroom management as a wide array of proactive, well established, and consistent techniques and practices. Classroom procedures are articulated as those practices that are different from classroom rules that clearly and precisely communicate behavioral expectations for specific situations. Canter & Canter (1992) described three main types of procedures, which are Academic, Routine, and Special, that help to identify even more specific practices needed for teachers to effectively manage classroom procedures.

Academic Procedures

First, Canter & Canter (1992) outline academic procedures as those tasks such as taking tests, getting the teacher's attention, and participating in class discussions. All of these tasks present the need to know specific procedures to ensure success. Specific test taking procedures may include, but are not limited to, where and how students will turn in their tests and what students are supposed to do after completing the test. Planning is the key attribute referred to in order to guarantee the success of a lesson. For example, if a lesson requires the students to move around the room, plans should include procedures for traffic flow. Canter (1992) also offers that teachers should run through the lesson and anticipate student performance and behaviors so that potential problems can be foreseen or the lesson amended as a result of any possible miscues.

The implementation of planning is very important to the entire planning process as progress is made towards managing classroom procedures. Teachers should post daily objectives in strategic locations, be able to explain why students are learning specific material and how they can use it. This information clearly denotes the fact that effective teachers use detailed plans as a reference rather than scripts. According to Canter (1992), teachers need to provide students with the following:

1. Detailed written and oral instructions for the tasks they are assigned;
2. Expectations for class discussions (e.g., only one person speaks at a time, students listen intently, and take turns speaking) and small group discussions (assign jobs for a smoother discussion); and

3. Methods for appropriately gaining the teacher's attention (raised hand or some form of "flag").

Following the successful implementation of plans all teachers are said to need effective measures of assessment. Canter & Canter (1992) share two types of assessment: formal and informal. Formal assessment includes paper-pencil tests, student presentations, and other evaluation techniques; informal assessment refers to an on-going process that teachers implement to document a student's academic performance between formal testing situations.

Formal assessment uses measures that communicate rules for the testing environment (e.g., avoid talking or other distracting noise, follow procedures to sharpen a pencil, use folders as *screens* to discourage roving eyes). Canter and Canter also cited the need to provide directives regarding what to do after students finish taking a test or an assignment and expected behavior for students during classmates' oral presentations, which certainly helps in maintaining order.

Informal assessment requires teachers to observe and document areas in which students are knowledgeable and where they need assistance. They must also, under this technique, be able to analyze the effectiveness and efficiency of their own planning, implementation, and assessment of lessons. It serves as a reflection process to avoid similar problems in the future. Acute observation skills are key to this assessment method.

Routine Procedures

The Canters' second type of procedure addresses such practices as entering and exiting the classroom, making transitions, turning in homework, and going to the restroom. Interestingly, these are all noted as a part of Danielson's (1996) Managing Classroom Procedures component. Canter and Canter report that properly organizing daily routine procedures can make the difference between a smooth-running classroom and one that seems disjointed. They further express that monitoring routine procedures requires an effective transition process. Transitions are noted as procedures that begin on day one; therefore, appropriate planning is needed to plan transitions before school starts. They should be introduced the first day and consistently applied throughout the year. For a successful school year the Canters provide the following advice:

1. Establish expectations for appropriate activities when assigned work is completed.
2. Decide if there will be regular restroom breaks.
3. Teach students to be quiet, orderly and attentive during physical movement periods (Canter & Canter, 1992, p 5).

In addition to routines for students, there should be routines for materials, supplies, and the endless amount of paperwork with which teachers must deal. In other words, teachers must organize their *clutter*, so that their expectations for classroom cleanliness are met. Therefore, organization is a much needed classroom procedural skill for teachers. Canter and Canter reveal that thorough preplanning, effective implementation, and consistent monitoring provide the best organizational results. The Canters also provide the following list of important management tips for “the paperwork trail”:

1. Provide in-boxes in strategic locations.
2. Design a system to gather missed assignments.
3. Organize an effective method to regularly take attendance (p 13).

Special Procedures

Canter's third and final procedural method, called special procedures, includes fire and disaster drills among other detailed procedures that must be taught, molded, practiced, and frequently reviewed. It has been proven that when students understand and follow procedures, the need for corrective management is decreased.

Positive student behavior (Component 2d) is essential to the day-to-day operation of an effective classroom. Assuring that all students exemplify appropriate student behavior each day is even more important to the success and establishment of the classroom environment. Research shows that in a classroom characterized by students engaged with content, the learners appear to be less disruptive and more cooperative with the teacher. Today's classrooms are quite complex in nature. They often symbolize spaces that are shared by students with varying needs, cultural differences, and different learning styles. These noted differences require teachers to develop and initiate classroom management practices that are clear and concise in nature and serve to establish standards that must be observed by all students for the orderly operation of classroom routines. Danielson (1996) shares the following characteristics of a well-run classroom:

1. Expectations are clear to everyone and may be posted in a classroom.
2. The standards of behavior are appropriate to the developmental levels of the students and are consistent with the cultural norms of students in the class.
3. Expectations are consistently applied—no favoritism.

4. Teachers are aware of what is going on; they have eyes in the back of their heads. Teachers sometimes influence students, for example, by calling on a student to redirect her attention or by moving nearer to a student.
5. Teachers refrain from losing their temper, banging books on a desk, or otherwise demonstrating that they have lost their composure. Students do not fear being physically or orally attacked.
6. Any chastisement of conduct focuses on a student's behavior, not on the student. It is carried out so that the classroom rhythm is only minimally disrupted and the student's dignity is maintained.
7. Teachers encourage students to monitor their own behavior (p. 24).

Through these identified characteristics the teacher is able to recognize the success of the established standards that develop positive student behavior. In turn, teachers enjoy a classroom environment where all celebrate fascinating outcomes.

Preventing behavioral escalation is a key practice when seeking to effectively manage student classroom behavior (Mitchem & Young, 2001). Mitchem and Young's research notes that prevention measures always serve as the preferred tactic for teachers during classroom organization rather than crisis management mainly because most classroom problems are minor and are easily resolved. Shukla-Mehta and Albin (2003) list twelve strategies that they present as empirically effective in preventing behavioral escalation. These research-based strategies apply to general and special education classroom settings and are useful across various school and non-school environments. Teachers should:

1. Reinforce calm and on task behaviors.
2. Know the triggers.
3. Recognize events that trigger their own behavior.
4. Pay attention to anything unusual about the student's behavior.
5. Not escalate along with the student.
6. Offer students opportunities to display responsible behavior.
7. Intervene early in the sequence.
8. Understand how behavioral incidents ended in the past.
9. Know the function of problem behaviors.
10. Use good judgment about which behaviors to punish.

11. Teach students socially appropriate behavior to replace problem behavior.
12. Teach academic survival skills and set students up for success (Shukla-Mehta & Albin, 2003, p. 17).

It seems, as indicated by research, that the key to preventing problems is to anticipate the occurrence of events (e.g., know the triggers, pay attention to unusual behavior) and to use effective preventive strategies (e.g., offer opportunities to display responsible behavior) to ensure successful student outcomes. Thus, the researchers conclude that a well-devised prevention plan is vital to eliminating the escalation of student problem behaviors and challenges, which characteristically pose significant hardships in the classroom. The challenge for teachers, though, is devising a program of behavior intervention that will be, in fact, acceptable and amenable to effective classroom management. Teachers become frustrated because what is generally seen is a hodgepodge of remedies throughout the school with no clear school-wide plan for addressing behavior issues.

Several researchers have focused their studies on the aforementioned challenge and have tried to address teachers' roles in evaluating, accepting and implementing behavior intervention programs. Mitchem and Young (2001) studied the acceptability and feasibility of programs to improve behavior and the implementation and evaluation of a class wide peer-assisted self-management (CWPASM) program based on its feasibility, acceptability, and effects on classroom behavior. For the purpose of this paper only the first part of their study, acceptability and feasibility of programs to improve behavior, will be presented.

One of the goals of the researchers was to determine teachers' "buy-in" to specific programs and the trigger or motivation that determines acceptance or rejection of a proposed intervention program. Mitchem and Young (2001) pointed out factors that are linked to teachers' decisions to use and continue to use an intervention. Mitchem and Young focus on five of those factors in the research; they are acceptability, effectiveness, time and resource required, theoretical orientation of the intervention, and ecological intrusiveness.

Acceptability data from three studies reported that teachers generally accepted the program, but because the teacher was not responsible for training or implementing the procedures, it is not clear whether the teacher found the procedures acceptable. The studies also showed that teachers were satisfied with the ease of the implementation process.

Effectiveness studies focused on the measure of on-task, disruptive, or appropriate classroom behavior as well as academic behavior. All results reported improvements in behavior and academic performances. However, the degree of improvement varied across studies and, given the variety of behaviors measured and the different research purposes, it was not possible to draw conclusions about patterns of improvement.

Time and resources in these studies included time to train students and teachers, time to implement the programs, resources needed for students and teachers, and personnel needed for the training process. Training ranged from two brief training sessions, to two days, to fifteen 40-minute lessons. No report was provided for student training but 2.5 hours of training were administered to teachers. The result of the teacher training and implementation conveyed that teachers demonstrated some resistance mainly because of the time involved for training. Teachers expressed that they might be more willing to use an intervention if they knew at the outset how much time would be required to learn how to use the procedures, to train their students, and to implement the program. The time for implementation of the program was found to be most effective when put into practice by the teachers, any other form of implementation would skew the data regarding ease of implementation or practicality of the procedures.

The intrusiveness of the intervention measured the extent to which the procedure interfered with typical teacher routines and procedures. No information was provided on the extent to which teachers considered the procedures intrusive. Also findings on the theoretical orientation were inconsistent; therefore, this factor was not considered in the final report.

Mitchem and Young (2001) summarized their research on the implementation of class wide self-management interventions by providing the following recommendations:

1. Researchers should report information on which practitioners typically base their choice and continued use of interventions.
2. Researchers should involve practitioners in selecting target behaviors, developing interventions, and training their own students.
3. The effects of self-management procedures on class behavior as a whole and, at the same time, on at-risk students must be examined more formally.
4. Researchers should consider reporting on replications of these studies with different teachers, target populations, and lower levels of consultant support

(p 8).

This research helped to identify three issues as being relevant to a teacher's decision to select an intervention and continue using it: (a) involvement of the teacher in developing the procedures both to address identified needs and to ensure a fit with classroom routines; (b) documentation of the time, resources, and skills required to implement the intervention; and (c) satisfaction with the procedures and sustained use of the procedures after completion of the program.

The final component of Domain 2 addresses the physical space of the classroom. A positive classroom environment is easily established when physical space is properly organized and arranged for optimal efficiency by the teacher. The organization of the classroom space typically varies in each classroom based on the grade level, social, academic, and behavioral needs of the students. Danielson (1996) lists the three most important elements teachers must consider when organizing physical space as (1) safety and accessibility to learning, (2) arrangement of furniture, and (3) teachers' use of physical resources. These three elements serve as the guide, which this paper explores when examining the organization of physical space as it relates to the creation of a positive classroom environment.

Holley and Steiner (2005) conducted an exploratory study of baccalaureate and master of social work students at a United States western university. This study focused mainly on student feedback on the roles of the instructor, other students, physical classroom environment, and the individual student in creating an environment that encourages honest and open dialogue. The study concentrated on the students' perspectives of what a safe space is and how it is created. It also addressed if it is possible to have safe classrooms where students are academically and personally challenged and learn to think critically.

First, Holley and Steiner's (2005) description of a safe space is a classroom where the space is considered as a place of protection from psychological or emotional harm. A safe classroom space is also said to be one in which students are able to openly express their individuality, even if it differs dramatically from the norms set by the instructor, the profession, or other students. In a safe classroom space the rewards must outweigh the penalties when a student thinks 'outside the box'. The creation of a safe classroom space can reduce the negative outcomes experienced by students' willingness to risk disclosure. Holley and Steiner (2005) recommend the following teacher characteristics as key to creating a safe space: (a) welcoming discussion, (b) approachability, and (c) supportiveness. Holley and Steiner (2005) stress the importance of instructors maintaining a demeanor of nonjudgmental acceptance of students as

individuals even when the students' comments are reprehensible. Furthermore, Holley and Steiner suggest that instructors offer opposing positions and support students' honesty and willingness to question their own beliefs.

Secondly, Holley and Steiner (2005) address two questions to examine the perspectives of the students in this study: (1) What are students' perspectives about the characteristics or behaviors of instructors, peers, themselves, and the classroom physical space that contribute to safe and unsafe classroom spaces? (2) What are students' perspectives about the impact of safe classrooms on their own learning? The students were given anonymous and optional surveys to complete. The questionnaires were returned in an envelope. A total of 54 baccalaureate and 67 master's students' surveys were returned, resulting in response rates of 90% and 71% respectively.

The study produced the following results from the students when they were asked how important it was to create safe space in the classroom. On a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being not important at all and 5 being extremely important, 97% (n=117) indicated that it was very important (n=29, 24%) or extremely important (n=88, 73%). Similarly, 97% (n=117) of the students said that being in a safe classroom changed what they learned, while 84% of the respondents reported that being in a safe class changed how much they learned.

When asked to describe the instructor, fellow students, and personal and classroom characteristics that were important in creating safe and unsafe spaces, student responses were varied. Only the responses that were mentioned at least 10 times were reported. For the purpose of this component, organizing physical space, just the physical environment characteristics are listed:

1. Seating arrangement allowed for everyone to be seen (e.g., circle seating).
2. Appropriate room size for number of students.
3. Good lighting.

By contrast, the characteristics that the respondents identified as creating unsafe space were reported as:

1. Seating not conducive to discussion (e.g., row seating).
2. Small or cramped room.
3. Uncomfortable room temperature.

The results of this study imply that students may feel safer when instructors demonstrate that they are knowledgeable about the room size, seating arrangements; room temperature, and arrange their classrooms so that students can see each other. Perhaps most important is the seating arrangements for class discussion. As a class is seated properly with all classmates clearly in view of one another, students can physically see and subsequently learn what behaviors and attitudes their peers and the instructor desire of them.

Domain 3: Instruction

Instruction stands at the forefront of student achievement (Koretz, 2003). Without effectiveness in the method of delivery by teachers, students' opportunities to advance socially and academically are in jeopardy (Shukla-Mehta & Albin, 2003). Danielson presents in Domain 3 (Instruction) that as educators expand their expectations for student learning to include more conceptual understanding or greater skill in problem solving, then the instructional strategies used must correspondingly change.

Component 3a (communicating clearly and accurately) connects goals, learning expectations, and specific instructions for meeting these goals with the effective communication of teachers (Danielson, 1996). Undoubtedly, the ability of teachers to present information to their students in a manner that promotes setting goals and learning expectations helps students to understand the learning expectations of the class and how to get help to achieve those goals. Danielson also posits that the research base for questioning and discussion techniques (Component 3b) and student engagement with learning (Component 3c) suggests that effective teachers use questioning strategies that challenge students at several cognitive levels. Sigel's (1990) research regarding questioning strategies concludes that effective teaching requires clear and precise formulation of questions, waiting an appropriate interval for a student response, and follow-through using the student's response as a base. Appropriate questioning that stimulates students' higher order thinking bring into play opportunities to develop concepts and skills necessary to organize and reorganize knowledge (Barth, 2004).

Constructive feedback (Component 3d) from teachers, such as praise and specific suggestions, serves as a central tool for teachers to help students understand if they are on the right track or if they may require further explanation or assistance. The frequent managing and monitoring of student learning serves as a key ingredient in the teacher's efforts to put in place responses that increase students' knowledge of what they have learned. Along with feedback,

Danielson (1996) asserts the teacher's role as facilitator and resource manager is significant to developing the students' ability to ask their own questions and conduct their own investigations. This task challenges the teacher's capacity to be more flexible and responsive (Component 3e) as s/he puts into practice instructions to build students' potential for problem and project-based learning. Teachers' flexibility and responsiveness break the mold of instruction that focuses on skill-based instruction administered in small steps and assessed using norm-referenced, standardized, multiple-choice tests. As a result, teachers may abandon an entire activity or modify it significantly to meet the needs of the students. Spontaneity and searches for alternative approaches serve as two other essential attributes of flexibility and responsiveness since both relate to a teacher's sense of efficacy and commitment to the success of all students (Phelps, 2006).

Mastropieri, Scruggs, Norland, Berkeley, McDuffie, Tornquist and Connors conducted a research study in 2006 that explored the use of differentiated curriculum enhancement in inclusive middle school science and its effects on classroom and high-stakes tests. The researchers listed their objectives of this investigation as (a) to determine whether differentiated curriculum enhancements relevant to the study of scientific methods could be developed for eighth-grade inclusive science classes; (b) to implement these materials using a class wide peer-mediated format; (c) to determine, in a randomized field trial, whether this intervention would improve classroom test scores and high-stakes testing; and (d) to determine whether students enjoyed using the materials and improved their attitudes toward science learning. These research objectives support the use of this study as a useful instrument to identify the strength of Domain 3 (Instruction) and its five components.

In this study, the researchers noted that the documented academic problems of students with disabilities in science substantiated the need for an investigation into more effective ways to instruct students. One underachievement matter was the mismatch between the curriculum and the needs of students with disabilities. The researchers also suggested that these same students exhibited some relative difficulty with inductive and deductive thinking associated with scientific reasoning. Another problematic area for students with disabilities lay with their difficulty to acquire relevant scientific vocabulary. The researchers' data collection and information gathering also yielded that the textbook was unfriendly for students deducing that, often, discrepancies exist between reading level and textbook readability for students with

disabilities. The main challenge, in this particular instance, was the shortfall of the students' literacy level and the teacher's dependency on the course book as a prominent teaching tool.

The researchers presented a number of specific strategies that could facilitate science achievement for students with disabilities. These strategies included vocabulary enhancements, text-processing strategies, real-world problem-solving strategies, and hands-on science activities. Through their research they identified how all these strategies would intensify the learning experience in some way by carefully matching the skill level of students with the characteristics of the curriculum and instruction. Additionally, this research included peer mediation, in the form of partnering or tutoring as one way to substantially increase academic engagement of all students in a classroom. Although it was confirmed that the peer-mediated experience can produce positive academic gains in this science investigation and other contents as well, such partnering can be effective only if classroom activities are at the appropriate level of difficulty for all students. This observable fact also supports the idea that activities and materials used in the classroom must be relevant and functional for all students possessing virtually any number of disabilities.

The participants in this study were students from 13 eighth-grade science classes. Classes were assigned to either an experimental group or a control group. Of the 13 classes, five classes were co-taught by a general education teacher (GET) and a special education teacher (SET), and eight classes were taught by a single teacher (6 GET and 2 SET). A total of four GETs and four SETs participated as teachers in these classes. The GETs all held licensure as science teachers, with specialty areas of biology, geology, and/or chemistry. The SETs all held licensure in special education. Teachers held college degrees, which ranged from bachelor of arts (3), bachelor of science (2), master of arts (1) or master of science (2). The school was on a modified block schedule such that four days a week were blocked with 90-minute classes, with the fifth day having shortened 45-minute periods.

Participants from the 13 eighth-grade science classes included 213 students, of whom 44 were classified with a disability (37 with learning disabilities and 7 with emotional/behavioral disorders) and 35 were English language learners. Forty-four percent of the sample was Caucasian, 29% was Black, 17.4% was Latino, 4.4% was Asian, and 5.2% was multiracial; 109 were males and 104 were females. Student achievement was assessed on the available previously administered high-stakes tests, on which a 600-point scaled score is used to determine levels of

proficiency. Demographic data on the special education sample placed them within a normal range of intellectual functioning, but below grade level in reading.

The experimental group and the control used the same textbook and accompanying materials. Materials in the traditional instruction condition consisted of teacher lecture, class notes, laboratory-like class activities, and supplementary textbook materials. These materials consisted of worksheets that accompanied each chapter with fill-in-the-blanks, matching, vocabulary, and short-answer items. Teacher-led presentations were accompanied with questioning, note-taking, audio and video recordings, and class activities.

The researchers developed experimental materials for the experimental group in this investigation, including curriculum enhancements that taught the “Scientific Investigation” units of instruction, covering charts and graphs, measurement, independent and dependent variables, and qualitative and quantitative research methods. All activities were designed to be used as many times as necessary for mastery of content. Each activity had explicit, easy to follow directions, and students worked in groups of two or three to complete the activities.

In order to institute the study, the researchers first received permission from the district, students, and parents. Classes were then matched and randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. The intervention was conducted over a period of 12 weeks and included pretesting, teacher and student training, posttesting, and administration of surveys regarding student attitudes toward the instructional materials. In the control condition (traditional), the teachers directed all aspects of instruction. They began their lessons with a daily review, presented new information, offered guided and independent practice, and led laboratory activities. Also, students answered teachers’ questions regarding content, took notes independently, completed worksheet activities, and performed laboratory work. In the experimental condition, all teacher presentations were identical to those in the control condition; however, time typically spent completing worksheets were instead devoted to peer-assisted learning with differentiated science activities. Students worked with one another using hands-on curriculum enhancement materials. Groups of three were formed making sure that there was an equal mix of abilities within each group in order to guarantee that students needing assistance were paired with higher achieving partners.

In this research quantitative data were retrieved from pre- and posttests of science content, end-of-year high stakes tests in science, and surveys about attitudes toward science and

attitudes toward instructional activities. The science content tests were 34-item, paper-and-pencil multiple choice tests of content covered in the Scientific Investigation unit. Experimental condition students were administered an 8-item survey about their attitudes toward specific activities, and teachers were interviewed regarding their perspectives.

Reliabilities of the unit tests were assessed at $\alpha = .82 - .83$. Posttest data were entered into a 2 condition (experimental vs. control) x 2 groups (special education vs. general education) ANOVA with pretest as covariate and with classrooms treated as a nested factor within condition. Significant effects were observed for condition, $F(1192) = 8.93, p = .003$. The effects for group $F(1192) = 2.73, p = .10$, and condition x group interaction, $F(1192) = .133, p = .716$, were not statistically significant, nor was the effect of classroom nested within treatment, $F(11, 192) = 1.66, p = .085$. See Table 5 for descriptive information by treatment condition and group.

Table 5

Covariate-Adjusted Means by Group and Treatment Condition

	Experimental	Control	MSE	Non-disabled student	Students w/disabilities
Posttest	23.86	21.90	17.7	23.72	22.04
High-stakes test	458.87	438.05	4620.8	460.80	436.08

Note. MSE = mean square error. From “*Differentiated Curriculum Enhancement in Inclusive Middle School Science: Effects on Classroom and High-Stakes Tests*,” by Mastropieri, Scruggs, Norland, Berkeley, McDuffie, Tornquist, & Connors, 2006, *The Journal of Special Education*, 40, pp. 130-7.

High-stakes test data were entered into a 2 condition (experimental vs. control), 2 group (special education vs. general education) ANCOVA with pretest as a covariate (pretest unit score was correlated $r = .417, p = .000$, with high-stakes test score), with classrooms as a nested factor within treatment, which yielded significant effects for condition, $F(1185) = 6.12, p = .014$, and for group $F(1185) = 5.56, p = .018$. The condition x group interaction effect was not statistically significant, $F(1, 185) = .044, p = .044, p = .834$, nor was the effect of classroom nested within treatment, $F(11, 185) = .952, p = .492$.

The survey of attitudes toward experimental materials reported that students’ variable attitudes toward the individual activities ranged from .2 to 3.8 on a 5-point scale of 1 (liked very little) to 5 (liked very much), with an overall mean of 3.0 (neutral). On the total attitude score ($\alpha = .73$), students with disabilities reported more positive attitudes ($M = 43.0, SD = 9.4$)

than did students without disabilities ($M = 40.9$, $SD = 8.1$), although these differences were not statistically significant, $t(169) = 1.50$, $p = .135$. In general students expressed greater approval for activities that were more game oriented.

The overall research results support the effectiveness of using differentiated learning activities with peer partners in middle school inclusive science classes, not only on content posttests, but also on high-stakes end-of-year tests. When using peer mediation combined with differentiated science activities, students appear to learn more content than when taught more traditionally, without peer-mediated learning activities. These results also suggest that students in inclusive science classes can work with each other in critical content area materials, and when they do so, their content area learning improves at a rate greater than that attained through instruction that is traditional. Further, the research suggests that teachers of middle school students consider the use of differentiated hands-on curriculum enhancements using peers as an important means of delivering high-quality instruction to all students.

Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities

The full range of responsibilities that comprise teaching cannot be overlooked. So often teaching is thought to be grounded only in classroom interaction between teachers and students, but Domain 4 (professional responsibilities) delves into the research that presents teaching as a true profession (Danielson, 1996). The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1991) uses the following standards in the assessment of accomplished teachers and the awarding of advanced certificates, which also correspond to some of the components in Danielson's Domain 4:

1. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience (Component 4a).
2. Teachers are members of learning communities (Component 4d).
3. Teachers are committed to students and their learning (Component 4f).

Danielson (1996) also reports that two of Domain 4's components are recognized in the U.S. Department of Education's 1987 report *What Works*. They are:

1. Students benefit academically when their teachers share ideas, cooperate in activities, and assist one another's intellectual growth...Good instruction flourishes when teachers collaborate (Component 4e).

2. Parent involvement is a critical component of effective educational practice (Component 4c).

Finally, Danielson (1996) notes that teachers maintain professional relationships with their students when as an instructor they keep accurate records (Component 4b). She communicates that, particularly, secondary students become very irritated when teachers form habits of losing or otherwise not registering student work. Hence, the identification of accurate record keeping as a component of Domain 4 stands to enhance student-teacher interactions and enable teachers to respond to students' individual needs.

Phelps (2006) shared that professionalism means teachers fully accept the challenges of teaching. Danielson supports this notion in Domain 4 (Professional Responsibilities), which the writer has already identified as teacher duties beyond the classroom such as keeping accurate records, communicating with families, and participating in school activities, which are known as basic requirements of fulfilling the teaching role. Teachers who assume responsibility for student learning have a sense of efficacy, which is a critical component of professionalism (Phelps, 2006). This measure of commitment depicts a certain level of persistence by the classroom teacher unfolding their desire to meet the challenging needs of their students. If this value is used, then this commitment represents the willingness of teachers to try different innovative and creative strategies fully accepting the responsibility of their students' learning. Guided by this responsibility, teachers will hold the belief that they have an obligation to students, students' families, colleagues, and the school as a whole (Phelps, 2006).

In 2001, Hausman and Goldring conducted a study that explored the relationship between indicators of professionalism and teacher commitment in schools where some teachers had the opportunity to choose to teach in their particular schools, whereas other teachers were assigned to their schools. Specifically this study examines teacher commitment in nonmagnet (assigned attendance zones) and magnet schools (students and teachers choose to participate). In this research the level of teachers' willingness to grow and develop independently is noted along with their desire to work in partnership with others to develop their sense of community.

The researchers report that elevating the status of teaching and building community within the schools will result in enhanced teacher commitment, which will, in turn, lead to improved teacher performance and, ultimately, gains in student learning. Therefore, the new professionalism is moving away from the teacher's traditional professional authority and

autonomy toward new forms of relationships with colleagues, students and parents. This new communal aspect of teachers' professionalism portrays new teachers being mentored instead of supervised, teams of teachers replacing hierarchies, in-service education giving way to continuous professional development, and partnerships, rather than liaisons, which are all central to professionalism.

The sample of this study included 10 magnet elementary schools and 10 nonmagnet schools in one large urban school system that served over 36,000 students. The schools were chosen by pair-matching them based on racial balance with the percentage of African American students. In addition, eight of the 36 nonintegrated elementary schools were randomly selected for inclusion in the study. Anonymous surveys were distributed to all certified teachers. Responses were received from 214 (64.8%) magnet school teachers and 357 (77.3%) nonmagnet school teachers.

To explore the relationship between teacher professionalism and teacher commitment in magnet and nonmagnet schools, the researchers used descriptive and multivariate statistics. All variables in this study were comprised from teacher self-reports on the survey questions. The dependent variable, teacher commitment, included three items ($\alpha = .74$). Independent variables, operationalized as indicators of teacher professionalism, were autonomy (5 items, $\alpha = .73$); influence in school-wide decision areas (16 items, $\alpha = .90$); opportunity to learn as a teacher (9 items, $\alpha = .87$); collegiality (4 items, $\alpha = .78$); goal congruence (7 items, $\alpha = .84$); efficacy (5 items, $\alpha = .62$); and opportunity to choose the school in which they taught (0 = yes, 1 = no). The autonomy, opportunity to learn, collegiality, goal congruence, and efficacy measures used a 4-point response scale with values of 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (agree), and 4 (strongly agree).

The influence in decision-making scale responses was 1(none), 2 (very little), 3 (some), and 4 (a great deal). School characteristics were also represented. Table 6 summarizes descriptive data on the variables in the study by school type. The data in Table 6 indicate that nonmagnet school teachers were more experienced and worked harder in larger schools that served a higher percentage of students receiving free or reduced lunch than their magnet school counterparts. Independent-sample t-tests revealed that higher levels of teacher autonomy characterized magnet schools, whereas nonmagnet teachers reported greater goal congruence than their magnet school counterparts. No significant differences were found between magnet

and nonmagnet teachers' reports of influence, opportunity to learn, collegiality, or efficacy. In all schools, teachers reported relatively low levels of influence in decision-making and modest opportunities to learn.

Table 6
Means and Standard Deviations of Independent Variables by School Type

Variable	Magnet (FN _a)		Nonmagnet (FN _b)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
School characteristics:				
Free lunch % (FN*)	66		94	
Enrollment (FN*)	330	69	417	104
Personal characteristics:				
Sex (% female)	90.8		88	
Highest degree (% M.A.)	55.1		48.4	
Race or ethnicity (% minority)	55.3		63.3	
Years teaching experience (FN*)	3.92	4.94	7.98	9.29
Professionalism:				
Autonomy (FN*)	3.12	.43	3.04	.61
Influence	2.53	.53	2.55	.58
Opportunity to learn	2.82	.56	2.91	.54
Collegiality	3.06	.57	3.04	.48
Goal congruence (FN*)	3.18	.61	3.32	.53
Efficacy	2.91	.46	2.86	.46
Chose school (%) (FN*)	75.2		36.7	

Note. a n = 214; b n = 357; p < .01. From "Sustaining Teacher Commitment: The Role of Professional Communities," by C. Hausman & B. Goldring, 2001, *Peabody Journal of Education*, 76, pp. 30-51.

Table 7 summarizes the results of a comparison of magnet and nonmagnet teachers' self-report of their commitment levels. Magnet teachers rated their levels of commitment higher than their peers in nonmagnet schools mainly due to their opportunity to choose the school in which they worked. However, commitment levels were relatively high in both school types. Most teachers indicated that they liked where they worked.

Table 7

Teacher Commitment by School

School Type	n	M	SD	t	p (two-tailed)
Magnet	192	3.20	0.61	2.81	.005
Nonmagnet	311	3.04	0.61	.55199	

From "Sustaining Teacher Commitment: The Role of Professional Communities," by C. Hausman & B. Goldring, 2001, *Peabody Journal of Education*, 76, pp. 30-51.

Separate regression analyses were conducted to determine the factors influencing teacher commitment in magnet and nonmagnet schools. The analyses focused on indicators of a professional workplace, including the opportunity of teachers to choose the school in which they worked. Personal and school characteristics were also included in the models. The results are presented in Table 8. For teachers in magnet schools, the analysis suggests that three aspects of professional community were central to the teachers' level of commitment: opportunity to learn, collegiality, and efficacy. Additionally, the analysis for nonmagnet teachers highlighted the importance of teacher professional community in predicting levels of teacher commitment. Three aspects of teacher professional community were associated with levels of teacher commitment in nonmagnet schools: autonomy, efficacy, and abundant opportunities to learn. Because teachers reported learning most frequently from interactions with other colleagues, the common thread among these variables was their focus on professional growth. This finding places a premium on ongoing teacher development. Finally, the findings strongly support the importance of a professional teacher community, one allowing for strong collegial interaction and opportunities

Table 8

Effects on Magnet and Nonmagnet Teachers' Ratings of Their Commitment

Variable	Magnet (FN _a)		Nonmagnet (FN _b)	
	B	Significance T	B	Significance T
Personal characteristics:				
Sex (1 = male, 2 = female)	-.010	.866	-.028	.575
Race (1 = minority, 2 = white)	.083	.190	.007	.887
Degree (1=<Masters, 2=>Masters)	-.111	.072	.053	.282
Years teaching experience	.023	.715	.039	.438
School Background:				
Free or reduced lunch (%)	.028	.664	-.168	.004 (FN**)
Total enrollment	.050	.406	-.047	.438
Professionalism:				
Autonomy	.100	.179	.205	.001 (FN**)
Influence	-.063	.438	.097	.140
Opportunity to learn	.337	.001(FN**)	.200	.003 (FN**)
Collegiality	.226	.012 (FN*)	.167	.011 (FN*)
Goal congruence	.128	.161	.006	.923
Efficacy	.211	.002 (FN**)	.297	.000 (FN**)
Chose school (0 = yes, 1 = no)	-.050	.441	-.061	.219

Note. a n = 214. R² = .55. b n = 357. R² = .51. *p < .05. **p < .01. From "Sustaining Teacher Commitment: The Role of Professional Communities," by C. Hausman & B. Goldring, 2001, *Peabody Journal of Education*, 76, pp. 30-51.

to learn and with conditions than can support the constituencies, that of linking the school with the school community. For teachers, a professional work environment can provide the necessary conditions to ensure a level of commitment such that teachers engage in the community-building

process. These professional communities can emerge, even when teachers are assigned to schools. The results of this study suggest that forming a community of learners for teachers is a powerful strategy for enhancing teacher commitment. In schools where teachers feel a sense of collegiality and have opportunities to learn, there seems to be a fairly strong sense of commitment to their schools (Garavalia & Gredler, 2002). The teacher professional community is central to the development of teacher commitment. Thus, school leaders have a unique challenge in developing schools as a sense of place for all.

Summary

This chapter began with a detailed description of students at risk and Positive Behavior Support. The components, research, and history of Positive Behavior Support (PBS) were discussed. School and teacher major influences on the impact of student learning and performance were detailed with an emphasis on the development of teacher and student relationships. The importance of the effectiveness of teacher professional practices as they pertain to instructional and PBS approaches were noted. Charlotte Danielson's four domains of teaching responsibly, as outlined in her *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching*, were presented along with supporting documentation from other studies and bodies of research.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter the participants, procedures, measures, and analyses of the methodology of the present study are described. The data came from two schools in the same district from the state of Maryland, one where school-wide systems of Positive Behavior Support (PBS) have been implemented for at least two years and one traditional high school with similar demographics in the same district. The purpose of the present study is to analyze the professional practices of teachers working in PBS high schools and traditional high schools. In particular, the study compared the professional practices of the PBS and the traditional high schools in the same district. The data collected can be used to provide teachers in PBS and traditional high schools with descriptive details of various research-based teacher practices that are successful in both settings. It will also provide school systems with the data necessary to determine the actual benefits obtained by PBS and traditional schools when compared with other efforts being undertaken by other local schools.

PBS Background Information for the Maryland Education System

Implementation of PBS throughout Maryland serves as a proactive approach to address student discipline in a positive and practical way. The selected PBS high school implemented systems of school-wide PBS in conjunction with the Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE), Sheppard Pratt Health System and Johns Hopkins University according to a variety of procedures and plans outlined by the Office for Special Education Programs (OSEP) Center for Positive Behavior Support.

The superintendent of the MSDE demonstrated a buy-in into the use of PBS by sending faculty and staff of the different districts to workshops and conferences for training. More importantly, in 1998, Dr. Nancy Grasmick, State Superintendent, took the lead by initiating dialogue with behavioral specialists to develop a proactive plan to promote positive mental health targeting the reduction of suspensions, school violence, and referrals for additional services. Her efforts placed the state of Maryland in the forefront of successful PBS implementation and sustained use with supporting data.

A member of a statewide leadership team, which began in 2000, trained each school. The implementation plan that followed incorporated all students and not just the special education

population as often targeted by many behavioral plans. Emphasis was on best practices and research-based strategies on issues of prevention and behavioral interventions. The Maryland Positive Behavior Intervention Support (PBIS) team reported that since 1999 over 276 schools have been trained in the effective use of PBS and, of those, 228 remained active with 133 behavior support coaches serving as practicing trainers (Pbismaryland.org, 2005). Project Target, a five year collaboration project of the Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) provided data that showed that over a two-year period, implementation schools met the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) standards and improved from 60% to 75% (Pbismaryland.org Newsletter 2005, Spring). Additionally, comparison data show that schools in the same districts without implementations have not experienced changes in student behaviors as those with full implementation (see Table 9). Over the past six years the state of Maryland has been an assertive participant of school-wide PBS as demonstrated by the total number of member schools, their data, and on-going training. Overall, the participating high school in the PBS proactive state of Maryland that used PBS for at least two years represents a good sample for data collection. Even though the demographics of all participating PBS schools in the division are diverse, the data collection methods and reporting remain the same. Seventy-six percent of the teachers in the PBS selected school took part in this study.

Table 9

Participating PBS Schools Comparison to Non-participating Schools

Project Year	Comparison Schools	PBIS Schools
Baseline	43%	38%
Year 1	57%	84%
Year 2	57%	91%

Adapted from Pbismaryland.org Newsletter (2005, Spring). Maryland PBS Partnership and Collaboration. Baltimore, MD: Author.

Description of Participating High Schools

Participants in this study included teachers in one high school in the state of Maryland that implemented PBS for at least two full years starting during the 2000 – 2001 academic year

and teachers in a traditional high school of the same district. The PBS school has teachers who were actively involved in the implementation process and completed at least two full years of service utilizing the PBS model. Teachers in the traditional high school also have a minimum of two full years in the school.

The PBS school sent a task force in 2003 to the annual Maryland State Department of Education (MSDE) training for the implementation of PBS in the schools. MSDE, Sheppard Health System, and Johns Hopkins University jointly sponsored all training initiatives. The task force consisted of two members of the PBS school who became the key drivers of the implementation process. The week long comprehensive training dealt specifically with early intervention strategies to maintain safe school environments. One other major highlight of the training dealt with involving the entire school community in the focus to change behavioral expectations within schools, not just individual student behaviors.

Workshop sessions ranging from violence prevention and dealing with challenging students to educating African American male children were included in the training. Furthermore, sessions that dealt with high school best practices and the inclusion of after school programs made up key implementation initiatives presented at the seminar. The teams were also educated on the importance of utilizing data to determine important decisions as they pertained to PBS implementation. For that reason, the teams were shown statistics on results and exhibits from participating schools that demonstrated success.

Upon completion of the training, the task force presented the plan to the faculty and staff of the PBS school at a specially designed training session for PBS implementation. The plan included an incentive based program that rewarded the students for accomplishing various goals established by the faculty, staff and students. Also, teachers were instructed to focus on assisting students to identify those behaviors that are considered negative and distractive to the teaching and learning process for the purpose of putting in place corrective measures that are not punitive in nature. In other words, developing a positive approach in which exclusionary practices are less likely to be the first option for rectifying the negative behaviors.

Although the initial training session introduced the plan of implementation, the training was on-going at faculty meetings throughout the school term. This long-term training consisted of a 10 – 15 minute presentation by the two-member task force at each faculty meeting. Each presentation primarily consisted of a data presentation that identified before and after statistics,

so to speak, which mainly measured attendance, conduct, and academic achievement. Most importantly, the review of the data generated conversations that targeted the need for fine-tuning various PBS best practices that would produce positive results in reducing disciplinary referrals and suspensions, and in improving school-climate to increase student availability for learning. Once again, the key-driving tool was accentuating the positives through an incentive based program that focused on changing behavioral expectations within the school.

The traditional high school is not currently involved with PBS and does not have any plans to institute the program in the immediate future. The principal of the school did not provide the requested data on the survey regarding suspensions, attendance, or academic performance and opted not to provide an explanation for withholding the information. However, these important figures were gathered from the 2006 State of Maryland Report Card and are presented in Chapter 4 of this paper.

Procedures

All the participants were e-mailed an electronic survey questionnaire. The participants are teachers in the PBS and traditional high schools. Demographic information for each participant was gathered during the actual survey. A one-time visit to the PBS and the traditional school was conducted in order to guarantee the following: a high percentage of data collection, a complete understanding of how to access the electronic survey, an accurate explanation of the study, and proper identification of the survey method to be used. Upon completion of the two individual visits, all participants completed the research survey electronically over a two-week time period. Confidentiality of all participants was protected throughout this process by personalizing all e-mail contacts. This process ensured that no participant was part of a mass mailing that revealed either multiple recipient addresses or a listserv origin.

Both principals were contacted via phone or e-mail for the purpose of explaining the study. Information pertinent to the data collection needed from the principal included:

1. Attendance (truancy)
2. Suspensions
3. Request for alternative placement
4. Bus referrals
5. In-school suspensions
6. Detentions

7. Disrespectful behavior

Measures

To identify the professional practices of teachers in a PBS driven school and a traditional school with like demographics, the participants were required to complete the electronic survey (see Appendix A), which has questions directly constructed from Charlotte Danielson's four domains of teaching responsibility (see Appendix B). The principals of both schools were asked to provide their most recent demographic, school-wide and content data.

Content Validity

The 68-question survey instrument was the chosen method to validate this study and to give ideas about how to develop a more effective instructional and intervention program in schools. The survey questions were drawn directly from Danielson's four domains and 22 components. Each component consists of elements that were rated on four teacher performance levels: (1) limited, (2) basic, (3) proficient, and (4) distinguished. For the purpose of this study, items were placed into two performance categories and randomly selected from each component. The performance categories were identified as basic and proficient, the basic representing categories 1 and 2, while proficient represented categories 3 and 4. This restructuring of the categories served to clearly distinguish the teachers' range of performance, without creating a nattering effect regarding results validation.

Each item was carefully chosen from among the elements of the 22 components. The arrangement of the items allowed each respondent various opportunities to react to the selected element in order to identify similarities and associations. A 4-point Likert-type scale rating was used. Respondents evaluated each item through the use of the "not at all" to "great extent" scalar concept. This answer choice was used to obtain separate respondent evaluations of different concepts and compare preferences across areas.

Field Testing

Selected teacher representatives, principals and researcher cohort members with experience working in alternative schools, juvenile detention centers, and traditional schools served as consultants to this survey research.. They were provided with the purpose of this study and data collection procedures. In addition, the consultants were provided a copy of the

questionnaire to be used during the actual survey. Several suggestions were made to help clarify the questions to be used on the final questionnaire.

Demographic Data

Demographic data significant to this research were included and consisted of

1. Size of the School
2. School District
3. Ethnicity
4. Gender
5. Socio Economic Status (SES)
6. Number of Disadvantaged Students
7. Number of Special Needs Students
8. Number of Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students
9. Technology Integration
10. School Community Partners
11. Parental Involvement

School-wide Data

Standardized test results, suspensions, discipline referrals, expulsions, attendance, and dropouts are all important data to be used in this study. At least two years of data were collected to provide for accurate comparison. For the purpose of this study, the school-wide measures, adapted from Tyre (2003), are operationally defined as follows:

Standardized test. Standardized test is operationally defined as a school's overall percentile rankings on the NCLB literacy and numeracy tests.

Suspensions. Student suspensions are the yearly totals of students removed from the school setting for one or more days due to the violation of a school rule.

Discipline referral. Discipline referrals are defined as the annual total of student rule violations observed by school staff and for which a permanent record is retained of the event.

Expulsion. Student expulsions are the annual total of students permanently removed from the school setting due to one or more school rule violations.

Attendance. The average attendance of students who attended school each day during the comparison years applicable to this study.

Dropouts. Student dropouts are operationally defined as the annual total of students in grades nine through 12 who left school or stopped attending for unknown reasons during the academic year.

Content Data

Data were gathered on the implementation of PBS. The data included information regarding the activities the PBS school used in the implementation process. Assessment approaches significant to the data analysis procedures were reviewed. All intervention strategies that were used in the PBS school were included in the data gathering method. Both accomplishments and barriers pertinent to the execution of the PBS program in the school were taken into account. All the content data were retrieved from the PBS principal from existing records or profiles that showed comparison data for at least two years.

Data Analysis

Mean scores of the treatment and control schools' responses to the survey questions were examined and compared to determine how PBS and non-PBS teachers characterize their teacher professional practices.

To address research question 2 the researcher used the Mann-Whitney test to determine any significant difference in the characterization of teacher professional practices between high schools with PBS and without. The use of the Mann-Whitney test is an appropriate, effective tool of analysis because it is a non-parametric test (Field, 2005). A non-parametric test such as Mann-Whitney, known as assumption-free tests, was selected because it makes no assumptions about the type of data used. Furthermore, the Mann-Whitney test was chosen because it tests differences between means when there are two conditions and different subjects have been used in each condition (Heiman, 2001). The Mann-Whitney is appropriate as well when distributions are skewed. The data distributions for this test were mainly 4s with some 3s and virtually no 2s and 1s signaling that the results were based on teacher self-rating. In the case of this study, self-rating produced skewness as demonstrated by the dominance of 4s and some 3s.

The 2006 State of Maryland Report Card was analyzed to identify any existing relationship between teacher professional practices of PBS and traditional high schools and student outcomes in the academic setting for research question 3. Comparison data from the PBS

school and the traditional school on literacy, attendance, graduation ate and grade 12 documented decisions were reviewed.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The research conducted in this study presents the comparison of teacher professional practices in a Positive Behavior Support (PBS) high school and a traditional high school within the same school district. This chapter summarizes the overall findings from an on-line survey of teachers and principals and the demographic data of the two schools, examining similarities and differences from the information retrieved.

In this chapter a general profile of the participants of each school is presented from information gathered through on-line survey responses. This information specifically addresses educational backgrounds and experiences. Additional demographics of both schools are shared, which include data such as discipline, attendance, standardized test scores, and graduation completion. Finally, the chapter will conclude with teacher professional practices comparison data taken from the responses provided by the principals and teachers of both schools. The conclusion will also consist of information gathered from the researcher's personal observation of both schools climate and culture that was established by the role of the principal.

Information from the teacher professional practices on-line survey is organized by the ideas that derived from the four domains and 22 components of Charlotte Danielson's (1996) book *Enhancing Professional Practice A Framework for Teaching*. A general description of each idea is provided, identifying specific occurrences seen in the data, and tables are presented that provide graphics of these patterns and comparisons. The patterns and comparisons presented in this chapter are used to recognize the specific dynamics of both schools' professional practices and demographics. Both schools will be identified as either PBS (treatment) or non-PBS (control) schools throughout this report.

Profile of the Participants

The demographic data of the participants were collected from their on-line survey responses. Additional data were retrieved from the Maryland State Report Card (2006). Table 9 on page 87 provides a comparison of the two schools' educators based on the characteristics noted on the two aforementioned documents.

All teachers and building level principals and assistant principals from two high schools in one school division were used for this comparison study. Both schools had a similar number

of participants. The PBS school had 121 participants and the non-PBS school had 112 participants. Of the 121 PBS possible participants, 94 (76%) agreed to participate in the on-line survey. Eighty-one (66%) of the non-PBS participants out of the 112 possible participants agreed to participate in the on-line survey.

Table 10 on page 87 also indicates that each school has a larger population of teachers that have taught at their identified school for six or more years, while the smaller number of teachers at the same schools is represented in the 4-5 year range. Teachers with only one year of experience rank second in both schools with the PBS school having 26 (28%) and the non-PBS having 21 (26%). The PBS school had 11 (12%) of their teachers with 2-3 years of tenured service in comparison to the non-PBS school with 16 (20%) years of service at that school. The aforementioned group ranks as the third largest teaching pool in both schools.

Each school's one year total teaching experience ranks as the fewest number of teachers in their schools. The PBS school is represented by 5 (5%) and the non-PBS has 8 (9%). In comparison, both schools' largest population was indicated in the six or more years teaching experience category: PBS 57 (61%) and non-PBS (46%). In addition, the 2-3 year teaching experience group at the PBS school ranked third with 10 (11%) while 0-1 and 4-5 years of teaching experience was identical at the non-PBS school with 8 (9%). Comparatively speaking, the 4-5 years teaching experience at the PBS school was the second highest with 12 (13%) and the 2-3 year teaching experience team was established as their second largest group at 11 (14%).

In respect to teacher certification, 49 (41%) PBS teachers and 52 (46%) of the non-PBS teachers have Advanced Professional Certificates. Twenty-two (18%) of PBS and 28 (25%) of non-PBS teachers have the Standard Professional Certificate, which is based on possession of a Bachelor's degree. There were a total of 24 (20%) of the PBS schoolteacher participants with a Conditional Certificate and 16 (14%) of the non-PBS teacher participants. The Conditional Certificate is based on teachers who possess a college degree but do not have a valid teacher's certificate.

A total of 106 (88%) participants out of a possible 121 were regular education teachers at the PBS school. Out of a possible 112 teachers at the non-PBS school 103 (92%) are considered regular education. Twelve percent of the participants were special education teachers in the PBS school as compared to only 8% at the non-PBS school.

Table 10

Comparative Teacher Demographic Information of PBS School and Non-PBS School

	PBS		Non-PBS	
	N	%	N	%
Total No. Participants	94	76%	81	66%
Years at Current School				
0 – 1	26	28%	21	26%
2 – 3	23	24%	16	20%
4 – 5	11	12%	9	11%
6 >	27	29%	28	35%
Years Teaching Experience				
0 – 1	5	5%	8	9%
2 – 3	10	11%	11	14%
4 – 5	12	13%	8	9%
6 >	57	61%	46	28%
Teacher Assignments				
No. Regular Education Teachers	106	88%	103	92%
No. Special Education Teachers	15	12%	9	8%
Teacher Certification				
Advanced Professional	49	41%	52	46%
Standard Professional	22	18%	28	25%
Resident Teacher	1	1%	0	0%
Conditional	24	20%	16	14%
Age Range				
20 – 25	9	9%	10	12%
26 – 31	13	14%	14	17%
32 – 37	10	11%	7	8%
38 – 43	10	11%	8	9%
44 – 49	12	13%	7	8%
50 – 55	18	19%	12	15%
56 – 61	13	14%	13	16%
62 >	2	2%	0	0%
Gender				
Male	26	28%	27	33%
Female	68	72%	46	56%
PBS Membership				
Years of participation	4	N/A	0	N/A

Both schools' participants' ages varied; however, each school had a low number of participants over the age of 62. Of the eight different age ranges presented, the PBS school's largest number of participants fell in the 50-55 age range (n=18; 19%). On the other hand the non-PBS participants' largest number fell in the 26-31 age range (n=14; 14%). The aforementioned categories did not distance themselves by a large number from the second largest

groups, with the PBS participants showing an even number of participants for second place in the 26-31 and 56-61 age group (n=13; 14%) and the non-PBS with 13 (16%). Both schools have similar numbers of participants that are in the 20-25 age range with much of the other middle numbers seeming quite equivalent in size. However, the non-PBS school shows identical numbers for the 32-37 and 44-49 age classifications (n=7; 8%).

The female teacher participants in both schools were larger in comparison to the male participants. There were 68 (72%) female participants at the PBS school while the non-PBS had 46 (56%). Each school's male participants were similar in number as the PBS school had 26 (28%) as compared to the non-PBS school, which had 27 (33%).

School Demographic Information

Each school's demographic data were gathered from the on-line survey responses and the 2006 State Report Card. The following tables provide comparison of the two schools based on the information secured from the two previously identified sources. Table 11 shows that the PBS school's average enrollment over a three-year period (2004-2006) was 2,000 students, while the three-year average for the non-PBS school or the traditional high school was 1,910 students. The average daily attendance over the same three years for the PBS school was 1,876 (93.8%), and the average daily attendance for the non-PBS school was 1,765 (92.4%). At the same time, the PBS school had a drop-out rate of 2.77%, which is an average of 57 students per year. The non-PBS school averaged 48 (2.49%) student drop-outs during that same period. The participating school division also reports student mobility as an attendance factor. Therefore, during the 2004-2006 period, the PBS school reported an average of 9% entrants and 11% withdrawals at the same time that the non-PBS school reported 6% entrants and 10% withdrawals.

Table 11

Comparative Demographic Information of PBS School and Non-PBS School

	PBS		Non-PBS	
	N	%	N	%
Total Enrollment 2004 – 2006	2,000	N/A	1910	N/A
Attendance 2004 - 2006 (daily average)	1876	93.8%	1765	92.4%
Drop-out 2004 – 2006	57	2.77%	48	2.49
Student Mobility 2004 - 2006 Entrants	n/a	9%	n/a	6%
2004 - 2006 Withdrawals	n/a	11%	n/a	10%

In Table 12 the graduation rate for the 2004-2006 reporting period showed that the PBS school graduated 426 (87%) seniors and the non-PBS school graduated 415 (84%) of their seniors. Of these graduating seniors the participating school division reported that in 2006 the PBS and non-PBS school awarded 436 (100%) and 388 (100%) high school diplomas respectively. In the same year, the PBS school awarded 100% (38) of their Special Education and 100% (26) of their disadvantaged students with high school diplomas. The non-PBS school also reported that a total of 100% or 22 and 17 of their Special Education and disadvantaged students correspondingly received their high school diplomas. Neither school listed any Limited English Proficient (LEP) students on roll for the 2006 school term. Documented decisions for the graduates of 2006 show the greater number of PBS students (n=169; 42%) and the greater number of non-PBS students (n=109; 29%) attended a four-year school. Only a small percentage of students from both the PBS and non-PBS schools entered the military at 11 (4%) and 12 (3%), respectively. Students who chose to enter a two-year school ranked second between both schools with 84 (21%) from the PBS school and 95 (25%) from the non-PBS school. The third highest decision encompassed students who entered part-time employment, of which the PBS school had 53 (13%) and the non-PBS school had 60 (16%). Students choosing to enter full-time employment ranked fourth among the documented decisions for both schools. The PBS school reported that 28 (7%) of their students chose to work full-time and the non-PBS school report indicated that 26 (7%) of their students made the same choice.

Table 12

Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS Schools' Graduation Data

Graduation Rate				
2004 – 2006	426	87%	415	84%
2006 Program Completion				
High School Certificate (all)	0	0	0	0
High School Diploma (all)	436	100%	388	100%
2006 Program Completion Diploma				
Special Education	38	100%	22	100%
Limited English Proficient	0	0%	0	0%
Disadvantaged	26	100%	17	100%
2006 Grade 12 Documented Decisions				
Attend a Four Year School	169	42%	109	29%
Attend a Two-year School	84	21%	95	25%
Specialized Training School	7	2%	13	3%
Enter the Military	11	4%	12	3%
Enter Full-time Employment	28	7%	26	7%
Enter Part-time Employment	53	13%	60	16%

Regarding special services, Table 13 shows that 38 special education (.19%), eight disadvantaged (.04%), two LEP (.01%), two 504 (.01%), and zero Title I students received services at the PBS school. Concurrently, ten special education (.005%), five disadvantaged (.02%), zero LEP, three 504 (.01%), and zero Title I students received special services at the non-PBS school. Also, per Table 13, the PBS school had more girls (n=1,002; 49%) than boys (n=998; 49%) and the non-PBS school had more boys (n=957; 51%) than girls (n=943; 49%). However, the gender breakdown was fairly even in both schools, which demonstrated no dominance in the gender category at either school.

Table 13

Special Services Comparative Data

	PBS		Non-PBS	
	N	%	N	%
Receiving Special Services				
2004 – 2006 (504)	2	.01%	3	.01%
2004 – 2006 (Title I)	0	0%	0	0%
2004 – 2006 (Disadvantage)	8	.04%	5	.02%
2004 – 2006 (Special Ed.)	38	.19%	10	.05%
2004 – 2006 (LEP)	2	.01%	0	0%
Average Enrollment by Gender				
2004 – 2006 (Total)	2,000	N/A	1910	N/A
2004 – 2006 (Male)	998	49%	957	51%
2004 – 2006 (Female)	1,002	50%	943	49%

Table 14 indicates 1,275 represented the total number of white students at the PBS school and 1764 represented the total number of white students in the non-PBS school. The next highest ethnic group at the PBS and non-PBS schools during the 2004-2006 spans was blacks at 558 and 111 respectively. Asian student enrollment for the same three-year period was third, with 97 at the PBS school and 18 at the non-PBS school. Fifty nine total students was the average for the Hispanic population at the PBS school and seventeen for the non-PBS school. The Native-Americans in both schools ranked fourth among the ethnic groups. Over the three-year period the PBS school had an average of 10 students per year, in comparison to only one student at the non-PBS school for the same time period.

Table 14

Ethnic Groups Comparative Data

	PBS		Non-PBS	
	N	%	N	%
Ethnic Groups				
2004 – 2006 (Am. Indian)	10	.01%	1	.00%
2004 – 2006 (Asian)	97	.05%	18	.01%
2004 – 2006 (Black)	558	.28%	111	.06%
2004 – 2006 (Hispanic)	59	.03%	17	.01%
2004 – 2006 (White)	1,275	.64%	1764	.92%

School discipline for the non-PBS school illustrated in Table 15 shows no change in disciplinary infractions over a two-year period. The number of discipline referrals (>400), bus referrals (<100), in-school suspensions (<100), out-of-school suspensions (>400), and detentions (<400) remain within the same range during the same two-year period. The non-PBS school did not report any disciplinary data. The expulsion data for the non-PBS school was retrieved from a central office person.

These data illustrate that PBS has had little effect on the behavior of the students from 2004 to 2006. The range of referral submissions over a two-year period remained the same, as did the average scope of students assigned to in-school and out-of-school suspension. In other words, though PBS implementation began in 2004 with the main focus of reducing the number of negative behaviors, the reported statistics depicted in Table 15 show no overall progress during this reporting period.

Table 15

PBS and Non-PBS Schools' Discipline Comparative Data

School Discipline	PBS		Non-PBS	
	N 2004 – 2005	N 2005 – 2006	N 2004 – 2005	N 2005 – 2006
Alternative Placements	<10	<10	non-reported	non-reported
Expulsions	<20	<20	<20	<20
Discipline Referrals	>400	>400	non-reported	non-reported
Bus Referrals	<100	<100	non-reported	non-reported
In-school Suspension	<100	<100	non-reported	non-reported
Out-of-School Suspensions	>400	>400	non-reported	non-reported
Detentions	<400	<400	non-reported	non-reported

With reference to federal Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), 529 PBS students (65%) and 333 non-PBS students (70%) achieved proficiency in mathematics. At the same time, 474 PBS students (69%) and 273 non-PBS students (62%) achieved reading proficiency. Although these scores represent a three-year total, the yearly scores demonstrate that both schools have not met the Federal AYP standards in either the math or reading proficiency category. At the time of this 2006 report, the Annual Measurable Objective (AMO) score was set at 45.5% for the division. Hence, the PBS and non-PBS schools fell short in the Special Education subgroup, collectively, in math 28% and 37%, respectively, and reading 33% and 21%, respectively.

Both schools' statistics demonstrate that the black students are scoring low in the reading proficiency category, with PBS at 54% and the non-PBS at 32%; however, the PBS school met the AMO in this category where the non-PBS school fell nearly 13 percentage points below the benchmark score. Also, with respect to the reading scores for disadvantaged students, the percentage meeting the AMO at the PBS school was 45%, whereas non-PBS was 40%. Once again, this illustrates that the non-PBS school is performing below the federal expectations as compared to the PBS school. In connection with the math and reading proficiency scores among the white students, the data in Table 16 supports success and growth. In spite of this, the reading scores for the non-PBS school (64%) remains lower for this subgroup than the PBS school (76%), which is consistent with all the measured subgroups in this category. Although the LEP category was reported earlier as having no students that data only depicted the 2004 data count. Table 16 is representative of a two-year period, which shows 7 (43%) for the PBS school.

Table 16

Student Academic Achievement Comparative Data

	PBS		Non-PBS	
	N	%	N	%
2004 - 2006 AYP Mathematics Proficiency				
All Students	529	65%	333	70%
Am. Indian	5	80%	0	0%
Asian	29	76%	5	71%
Black	155	53%	12	45%
White	328	70%	315	71%
Hispanic	15	58%	5	56%
Disadvantaged	38	59%	12	58%
Special Education	54	28%	10	37%
Limited English Proficient	7	43%	0	0
2004 - 2006 AYP Reading Proficiency				
All Students	474	69%	273	62%
Am. Indian	0	0%	0	0%
Asian	23	80%	3	60%
Black	133	54%	25	32%
White	302	76%	260	64%
Hispanic	12	66%	0	0%
Disadvantaged	35	45%	8	40%
Special Education	51	33%	8	21%
Limited English Proficient	5	40%	0	0%

Descriptive Data on Teacher Professional Practices

It is important to get a sense of how teachers and principals in both schools understand and characterize the components of teacher professional practices. Charlotte Danielson's book (1996) *Enhancing Professional Practices: A Framework for Teaching* was used as the tool to identify a set of qualifying teacher professional practices shared by educators. From her book, questions were created to address how PBS and non-PBS teachers and principals viewed their teacher professional practices in conjunction with Danielson's four domains, their 22 components, and related elements. See Appendix C and D for individual school responses. The major focus was to determine how teachers from a PBS school in comparison with a non-PBS school view the use of the professional practices in their quest for student success. This information is important to determine these groups' perception, understanding and use of these practices in their academic setting towards student achievement and positive behavior.

This overview presents the four resounding themes of this study. The first theme arose from questions 1 – 6, which speak to Domain 1: Planning and Preparation. The second theme, Classroom Environment, originated from questions 7 – 11. Instruction, the third theme, developed from questions 12 – 16 and the final theme found its origination in questions 17 – 22, which dealt with Professional Responsibilities. Table 17 depicts the data of all the teacher professional practices and the most significant elements selected by the teachers within their schools.

In respect to Planning and Preparation, a combined average of 58.25% of the PBS and non-PBS schoolteachers identified "knowledge of teaching" as their strongest area. Most of the teacher professional practices identified in the six components of Planning and Preparation ranged in the low to high 50 percent range for the PBS school. However, the data for the non-PBS school ranged from the mid to high 50 percent range in the same categories. For the non-PBS school, "demonstrating knowledge of resources" was the only component that indicated a percentage (48%) less than 50. This score showed that this particular non-PBS school felt that their understanding of how to secure a variety of resources needed to be enhanced.

Table 17

Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS School Professional Practice Patterns

Domain	Components	Teachers			
		N	PBS	N	Non- PBS
Planning and Preparation	Knowledge of Teaching	89	57.8%	74	58.7%
	Knowledge of Students	90	56.2%	74	55%
	Selecting Instructional Goals	89	54.7%	74	55%
	Demonstrating Knowledge of Resources	89	51%	74	48.6%
	Designing Coherent Instruction	89	57%	73	59.2%
	Assessing Student Learning	87	53.9%	74	58.1%

N = total number of responses

Classroom Environment demonstrated the overall highest percentage scores of the four domains. Both the PBS and the non-PBS schools' percentage scores ranked in the high 60 to mid-70 percentile range per component. The highest percentage rank component for the PBS and the non-PBS schools was "managing student behavior" at 75.5% and 80.6% respectively. In conjunction with the high score recorded in knowledge of teaching, these data also illustrate that teachers apply efforts to providing an atmosphere conducive to the teaching and learning process. Hence, the greatest focus is first establishing an effective environment through positive student behaviors followed by appropriate teaching methods.

Table 18

Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS School Professional Practice Patterns

Domain	Components	Teachers			
		N	PBS	N	Non- PBS
Classroom Environment	Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport	90	60.5%	73	65.9%
	Establishing a Culture of Learning	89	67.3%	74	66.2%
	Managing Classroom Procedures	89	53.1%	74	56.4%
	Managing Student Behavior	90	75.5%	74	80.6%
	Organizing Physical Space	90	69.3%	74	73.9%

N = total number of responses

The Instruction data in Table 19 demonstrate varied levels of responses between the two schools; however, “communicating clearly and accurately” received the highest percentage points for the PBS (70.8%) and non-PBS (66.2%) school. While both schools are practically even for the “demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness” component (62%), together they fared below 55% in the area of “providing feedback to students.” This percentage is arguably lower than the top component in this domain, “communicating clearly and accurately.” Providing feedback to students generally stands as an effective communication tool, which enhances student learning (Garavalia & Gredler, 2002). Since feedback to students is noted to promote their understanding, it opens questions about such wide percentage differences between the aforementioned components, particularly the treatment school. Overall, the five components of Domain 3: Instruction, demonstrate that the PBS school feels strongly about its instructional techniques with three of the five categories ranging from 60 to 70 percent; however, the components that directly engage students, *engaging students* (58.8%) and *feedback* (49.4%), rank at the lower end of their responses. The control school also averaged in the 50 percentile range in the areas that require direct communication with the students, namely *questioning* (57.6%) and *feedback* (53.8%).

Table 19

Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS School Professional Practice Patterns

Domain	Components	Teachers			
		N	PBS	N	Non- PBS
Instruction	Communicating Clearly and Accurately	89	70.8%	73	66.2%
	Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques	89	62.1%	74	57.6%
	Engaging Students in Learning	89	58.8%	74	61.3%
	Providing Feedback to Students	86	49.4%	73	53.8%
	Demonstrating Flexibility and Responsiveness	89	62.2%	73	62.1%

N = total number of responses

Table 20 presents data pertinent to the participants' responses for Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities. The overall percentages in this category are the lowest of all four domains. *Communicating with parents* was ranked by the PBS school as the lowest percentage (46.8%) of all 22 components, while 53.5% of the non-PBS school had this component tied for third with *growing and developing professionally*. The control school's participants equally ranked *maintaining accurate records, contributing to the school and district*, and *showing professionalism* with 56.7% affirming their importance. Showing professionalism was the highest percentage (76%) presented in Professional Responsibilities by the PBS school, which was also demonstrated in the researchers' visit to the school. The demographic data of the treatment school also correspond with this percentage as they depict positive percentages in the majority of the categories within the school.

Table 20

Comparison of PBS and Non-PBS School Professional Practice Patterns

Domain	Components	Teachers			
		N	PBS	N	Non- PBS
Professional Responsibilities	Reflection on Teaching	89	53.7%	72	52.5%
	Maintaining Accurate Records	89	54.9%	74	56.7%
	Communicating with Families	88	46.8%	74	53.5%
	Contributing to the School and District	90	50%	74	56.7%
	Growing and Developing Professionally	89	58.2%	74	53.5%
	Showing Professionalism	89	76%	74	56.7%

N = total number of responses

Data Analysis

The study explored three research questions: (a) In what important ways do teachers working in Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools characterize their professional practices in the academic setting of their workplace? (b) Is there a significant difference between teacher professional practices of Positive Behavior Support high schools and traditional high schools? and (c) Is there an obvious difference on student outcomes in the academic setting between high schools that applied Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools?

Characterization of Teacher Professional Practices

In Danielson's (1996) framework for teaching, she identified four domains of teacher professional practices: planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities. These four domains, which represent the aspects of a teacher's responsibilities that have been documented through empirical studies and theoretical research as

promoting improved student learning, represent the conceptual framework of this study. They also characterize the main areas wherein the practices of PBS and non-PBS teachers need to align sequentially to meet the needs of all students. Since Danielson's four domains and 22 components were used to develop the survey for this study, all the responses formed the data utilized for the results.

To determine the extent to which each participant perceived the level of importance for each component, the respondents were asked to respond to 68 survey questions using a rating scale. Each item was rated based on the extent to which participants perceived the item as important, ranging from *not at all*, *a small extent*, *some extent*, to *a great extent*. The table presented in Appendix D displays the PBS and the non-PBS schools' faculty and principals' perceptions of teacher professional practices by level of importance of every variable for each component. The level of importance is ranked, ordered by the mean scores of the PBS school.

A mean score of 3.0 or better was used to measure the level of importance. The Likert scale rating was set at 1-4 with 4 being the highest. For the purpose of this study 1-3 represents not a great degree of agreement or relative low response. Four represents a great degree of agreement. With this in mind, based on mean score descriptive data of 3.0 or better, both schools greatly characterize many of their teacher professional practices as important in the academic setting. Table 21 displays 31% or 21 out of 68 variables were characterized by the PBS school as having a high level of importance as noted by a mean score of 3.6 or better; they are (1) understanding relationships among topics and concepts; (2) understanding the need for different learning approaches; (3) understanding developmental characteristics of age; (4) having friendly teacher-student interactions; (5) conveying genuine enthusiasm for the subject; (6) establishing clear standards of student conduct for all students; (7) being alert to student behavior at all times; (8) responding to misbehavior while respecting student's dignity; (9) providing a safe classroom environment; (10) ensuring all learning is equally accessible to all students; (11) providing directions with the appropriate level of detail; (12) ensuring spoken and written language is appropriate for all students' age and interests; (13) providing adequate time for students to respond; (14) ensuring activities and assignments are appropriate for students; (15) accommodating students' questions and interests; (16) ensuring minor adjustments occur smoothly; (17) establishing that cooperation and support characterize relationships with colleagues; (18) being active in serving students; (19) maintaining an open mind during

departmental decision making; (20) working with others to ensure all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed.

Table 21

Mean And Standard Deviations Of PBS School By High Level Of Importance

Variables	PBS		
	N	Mean	SD
Knowledge of Teaching			
Understanding relationships among topics and concepts	89	3.75	.05
Knowledge of Students			
Understanding the need for different learning approaches	91	3.71	.06
Understanding developmental characteristics of age	91	3.64	.06
View Respect and Rapport			
Teacher-student interactions are friendly	90	3.71	.05
Culture of Learning			
Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject	89	3.78	.05
Manage Student Behavior			
Standards of student conduct are clear to all students	90	3.79	.04
Alert to student behavior at all times	90	3.76	.05
Response to misbehavior respects student's dignity	90	3.68	.05
Organize Physical Space			
The classroom is safe	88	3.82	.05
All learning is equally accessible to all students	89	3.71	.06
Communicate Clearly and Accurately			
Directions contain appropriate level of detail	89	3.71	.05
Spoken and written language is appropriate to all students' age and interests	89	3.68	.05
Questioning and Discussion Techniques			
Provide adequate time for students to respond	90	3.62	.06
Engage Students in the Learning			
Activities and assignments are appropriate to students	89	3.66	.06
Demonstrate Flexibility and Responsiveness			
Successfully accommodates students' questions and interests	89	3.62	.06
Minor adjustments occur smoothly	89	3.60	.06
Contribute to the School District			
Cooperation and support characterize relationships with colleagues	90	3.62	.07
Display Professionalism			
Active in serving students	89	3.77	.05
Maintain an open mind during departmental decision making	89	3.73	.05
Work with others to ensure all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed	89	3.70	.05

To further disaggregate the data, the Likert scale rating of 1, 2, and 3 were considered to be of little or no importance. For that reason, the elements with the highest mean scores (3.0 and above) signify great importance. Table 22 presents the top three elements for the treatment

school: (a) the classroom is safe (3.82), (b) standards of student conduct are clear to all students (3.79), and (c) teacher conveys culture of learning (3.78). These are all comprised in the components of Domain 2: Classroom Environment, which indicate that the perceived level of importance for PBS schools lies within establishing a positive classroom environment.

Table 22

Top Three Mean and Standard Deviations of PBS School by High Level of Importance

Variables	PBS		
	N	Mean	SD
Knowledge of Teaching			
The classroom is safe	88	3.82	.05
Manage Student Behavior			
Standards of student conduct are clear to all students	90	3.79	.04
Culture of Learning			
Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject	89	3.78	.05

Likewise, Table 23 illustrates that the non-PBS school characterized 23 out of 68, or 33%, of their elements as having a high level of importance by being noted with a mean score of 3.6 or better; they are: (1) teaching reflects research on best practices; (2) the need for different learning approaches is understood; (3) goals permit practical methods of assessment: (4) assessment criteria are clear; (5) teacher-student interaction is clear; (6) teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject; (7) classroom environment conveys high expectations for student achievement; (8) standards of student conduct are clear to all students; (9) teachers are alert to student behavior at all times; (10) response to misbehavior respects student’s dignity; (11) the classroom is safe; (12) all learning is equally accessible to all students; (13) directions contain appropriate level of detail; (14) spoken and written language is appropriate to all students’ age and interests; (15) students are provided adequate time to respond: (16) activities and assignments are appropriate for students; (17) instructional resources and materials are suitable to the instructional goals; (18) minor adjustments occur smoothly; (19) teachers accurately assess a lesson to verify goal achievements; (20) system for maintaining information on student assignment completion is effective; (21) teachers are active in serving students; (22) teachers maintain an open mind during departmental decision making: and (23) teachers work with others to ensure all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed.

Table 23

Mean and Standard Deviations of Non-PBS School by High Level of Importance

Variables	Non-PBS		
	N	Mean	SD
Knowledge of Teaching			
Teaching reflects research on best practices	74	3.67	.06
Understanding of Students			
Understanding the need for different learning approaches	74	3.67	.07
Knowledge of Students			
Goals permit practical methods of assessment	74	3.64	.09
Assess Student Learning			
Assessment criteria are clear	74	3.62	.06
View Respect and Rapport			
Teacher-student interactions are friendly	73	3.83	.05
Students exhibit respect for the teacher	73	3.61	.07
Culture of Learning			
Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject	74	3.79	.08
Classroom environment conveys high expectations for student achievement	74	3.60	.06
Manage Classroom Procedure			
Organize task to engage all students at all times	74	3.63	.06
Manage Student Behavior			
Standards of student conduct are clear to all students	74	3.85	.05
Alert to student behavior at all times	74	3.79	.05
Response to misbehavior respects student's dignity	74	3.71	.07
Organize Physical Space			
The classroom is safe	74	3.79	.06
All learning is equally accessible to all students	74	3.78	.05
Communicate Clearly and Accurately			
Directions contain appropriate level of detail	72	3.70	.05
Spoken and written language is appropriate to all students' age and interests	73	3.60	.06
Questioning and Discussion Techniques			
Provide adequate time for students to respond	74	3.71	.07
Engage Students in the Learning Process			
Activities and assignments are appropriate to students	74	3.68	.06
Instructional resources and materials are suitable to the instructional goals	74	3.64	.06
Demonstrate Flexibility and Responsiveness			
Minor adjustments occur smoothly	73	3.65	.06
Demonstrate Reflection on Teaching			
Accurately assesses a lesson to verify goal achievements	72	3.70	.06
Maintain Accurate Records			
System for maintaining information on student assignment completion is effective	74	3.70	.06

Table 24 indicates that the highest mean score was 3.85, *standards of student conduct are clear to all students*, and falls under Domain 2: Classroom Environment; nine other variables

scored 3.6 or higher. Although Domain 3: Instruction had a strong showing with six variables ranking 3.6 or better (see Table 22 on page 105), Table 23 was used because *classroom environment* showed a total number of 7 that are 3.7 or better, which stands as the top choice for the non-PBS school's high level of importance. This indicates that in conjunction with the PBS school the non-PBS school also rates the variables in Classroom Environment as the highest level of importance.

Table 24

Mean and Standard Deviations of non-PBS School by Classroom Environment Level of Importance

Variables	Non-PBS		
	N	Mean	SD
Respect and Rapport			
Teacher-student interactions are friendly	73	3.83	.05
Students exhibit respect for the teacher	73	3.61	.07
Culture of Learning			
Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject	74	3.79	.08
Classroom environment conveys high expectations for student achievement	74	3.60	.06
Manage Classroom Procedures			
Organizes tasks to engage all students at all times	74	3.63	.06
Manage Student Behavior			
Standards of student conduct are clear to all students	74	3.85	.05
Alert to student behavior at all times	74	3.79	.05
Response to misbehavior respects student's dignity	74	3.71	.07
Organize Physical Space			
The classroom is safe	74	3.79	.06
All learning is equally accessible to all students	74	3.78	.05

Significant Differences Between Teacher Professional Practices

Table 25 reflects the results of the Mann-Whitney tests to identify any significant differences ($p < .005$) between professional practices of PBS and the traditional high school's teachers. These data also show variables that are near the alpha level of $p < .05$. The results show that five out of 23 variables suggest a significant difference denoted by $p < .05$. A chart of all 23 variables can be found in Appendix D.

Understand relationships among topics and concepts ($p < .005$), *teaching reflects current research on best practices* ($p < .003$), *volunteer to participate in school events*

($p < .004$), and *volunteer to participate in school and district projects* ($p < .003$) are the four variables that show the greatest significant difference. The two variables with the greatest significant difference as characterized by a p-value of .003 are (a) *teaching reflects current research on best practices* and (b) *volunteer to participate in school and district projects*. In addition, a fifth variable, *feedback is high quality*, showed a statistical difference with a p value of .045.

The PBS school's mean score for *understanding relationships among topics and concepts* was higher at 3.75 than the non-PBS school's (3.52) creating a significant difference ($p = .005$). This significant difference is reflective of the teachers' and principals' dissimilarities regarding their knowledge of teaching and possibly the quality of training available to assist strengthening teachers' knowledge base. Also, *teaching reflects current research on best practices* presents the treatment school's mean score as 3.32 compared to the control school's significantly higher mean score of 3.67. These statistical data show a large distinction ($p = .003$) between the two schools' views concerning the effective use of research based instructional strategies with the PBS school having the lesser consideration.

Both schools had mean scores below 3.5 for *volunteer to participate in school and district projects*, with the PBS school displaying 3.02 and the non-PBS school having 2.55. This is reflective of the two schools sensing that there is a need for more involvement between district and the individual schools. Therefore, the 2.55 mean score by the non-PBS school is representative of the high level of disconnect that they perceive exists between the school and the central office.

The remaining selected variables in Table 25 had p-values that ranged from .091 to .170 and did not meet the .05 statistical differences but are near. Once again, this shows that there was little significant difference between the PBS and non-PBS schools' characterization of teacher professional practices

Difference on Student Outcomes Between a PBS and Traditional High School

To determine if there is any obvious difference on student outcomes between high schools that applied PBS and traditional high schools, descriptive data from the 2006 Maryland

Table 25

Mann-Whitney U test to Identify Significant Differences between Professional Practices

Variable	<i>u</i>	P value
Understand relationships among topics and concepts	2,576.500	.005*
Teaching reflects current research on best practices	2,458.000	.003*
Understand developmental characteristics of age	2,860.500	.091
Goals are suitable for most students	2,901.000	.170
Goals permit practical methods of assessment	2,165.000	.099
Instructional materials that engage students in learning	2,853.500	.162
Students exhibit respect for the teacher	2,844.000	.113
Furniture arrangement is a resource for learning activities	2,813,500	.140
Content is appropriate with students' knowledge and experience	2,841.000	.143
Feedback is consistently high quality	2,515.500	.045*
Feedback is consistently provided in a timely manner	2,563.000	.091
System for maintaining information on student assignment completion is effective	2,881.000	.164
Volunteer to participate in school events	2,375.000	.004*
Volunteer to participate in school and district projects	2,396.500	.003*

* $p < .05$

State Report Card was used. Table 26 presents descriptive data of the percentages of the identified student outcomes of both the treatment school and the control school. These particular outcomes were selected based on the level of importance the State of Maryland placed on its reporting and the accreditation standards of Federal AYP. Those categories mainly include standardized test scores for literacy (reading) and numeracy (math), subgroup participation, and attendance. However, for the purpose of this study three-year averages in reading, math, attendance, graduation, and grade 12 documented decisions are presented. *Documented decisions*

is defined as the choices made by the graduates once they successfully complete four years of high school and are issued a diploma. This study places particular emphasis on decisions about (a) a four year college, (b) a two year college, (c) the military, (d) part-time employment, and (e) full-time employment. These groups represent typical post-high school destinations that are generally universal to most graduates. Usually, the higher percentage of graduates sensing their preparedness to enter into a four-year college is symbolically viewed as a direct reflection of the success of the school's ability to train, mentor and develop its student population.

The descriptive data in Table 26 also reveal that in the literacy category the treatment school outperformed the control school 69% to 62%, while in the numeracy component the non-PBS school had stronger scores, 70% to 65%. However, the PBS school outperformed the non-PBS in all other categories. This data is reflective of the treatment school having an effect on the environment; subsequently, making an impact on the student outcome data when compared to the control school. This speaks to the role of the teachers' use of PBS strategies combined with teacher professional practices that provide opportunities and experiences that enable students to be successful in the academic setting.

This positive relationship between professional practices and student outcomes, as noted on all but one variable in Table 26, provides information to educators that can be used to enhance career preparedness and goal setting. The information is also helpful for identifying target areas for staffing and teacher training and development. In addition, these data provide support that enhances teachers' abilities to access information and opportunities that they can further use to assist their students in building their future. The data are key to identifying that the school receiving the treatment and utilizing the professional practices is making significant gains and outperforming a like school.

Furthermore, Table 23 on page 105 presents data that shows 42% of PBS students attending four-year colleges as compared to 29% of the non-PBS school's students. At the same time, 25% of the control school students move on to a two-year college, in contrast to 21% of the treatment school. Taken as a whole, the treatment school has 63% of its graduates more or less attending college with the control school having 54% of its students moving on to college. However, both schools' graduates have more students electing higher learning opportunities versus the military and employment. PBS and non-PBS schools' military and employment documented decisions total 3.5% and 13.3% respectively. The district's standardized test scores

in literacy and numeracy support the fact that students from both schools favor continued learning opportunities opposed to military or other (4.2%) opportunities.

Table 26

Descriptive Data that Show Student Outcomes

	Treatment School PBS	Control School Non-PBS
Reading Proficiency	69%	62%
Math Proficiency	65%	70%
Attendance	93.8%	92.4%
Graduation Rate	87%	84%
Grade 12 Documented Decisions		
Four Year College	42%	29%
Two Year College	21%	25%
Military	4%	3%
Part-time Employment	13%	16%
Full-time Employment	7%	7%
Other	5.5%	2.9%

Summary

The demographics of the two schools made for an accurate comparison as the data showed comparable participant descriptive data, student enrollment, reading and math proficiency, attendance, graduation, and discipline data. The principals and teachers of PBS and non-PBS schools characterize the teacher professional practices similarly. Both schools' mean score descriptive data range near or above 3.0 in most all categories within Charlotte Danielson's four domains, their 22 components and related elements. Classroom Environment boasted the top overall percentages when teachers from both schools characterized their professional practices. Together the teachers ranked managing student behavior as a high level of importance. Professional Responsibilities presented the lowest percentages of all four domains with the PBS

school ranking *communicating with parents* as its lowest category. Both schools characterized over 30% of their professional practices as significant in the academic setting demonstrated by a mean score of 3.6 or better. The variables, which show the highest level of importance to the teachers and principals, were found in Domain 2: Classroom Environment, particularly the variables that speak to establishing a positive classroom environment. Five out of 22 variables exemplified a significant difference in the way the treatment and control school characterize their professional practices. The two schools differ to a great extent on *teaching reflects current research on best practices* and *teachers volunteer to participate in school and district projects*. Additionally, the two schools show a significant difference in *understanding relationships among topics and concepts*. The PBS school's professional practices appear to influence student outcomes as shown in the descriptive data. The PBS school's students are outperforming the non-PBS school's students in reading proficiency, attendance, graduation, and attending college after they receive their diploma. However, both schools are fairing well in students selecting college as compared to the military and other documented decisions.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, SUMMARY, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore and compare teacher professional practices in planning and preparation, classroom environment, instruction, and professional responsibilities of a Positive Behavior Support (PBS) high school and a traditional high school within the same school district. The teacher professional practices for the purpose of this study were extracted from Charlotte Danielson's book *Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching*. This study involved the collection of data from a questionnaire survey completed by principals and teachers from both a PBS school and a non-PBS school. The review of literature and the conceptual framework of this study, which is based on Danielson's four domains, their 22 components, and 68 elements, guided the questions regarding teacher professional practices. A comparison and contrast of the two schools' principals and teachers' characterizations, and identified levels of importance of teacher professional practices, were reported after data analysis.

This chapter will first focus on the conclusions drawn from these data. Then, it will include a description of recommendations and implications for educators. The chapter will conclude with information pertaining to recommendations for future research and personal reflections about conducting this study.

Summary of Findings

Danielson's (1996) framework for teaching comprised four domains essential to promoting teaching excellence and positive student outcomes: (a) planning and preparation, (b) classroom environment, (c) instruction, and (d) professional responsibilities. These four domains are by and large all of equal importance to the scope of enhancing the academic environment. The data gathered from the survey, however, vary slightly as to the emphasis placed on each element by the participants at the two participating schools in this study.

Planning and Preparation

In planning and preparation the educators from both schools characterized the importance of their teacher professional practices within the six evaluated components as moderate; however, PBS and non-PBS participants alike described knowledge of teaching as the integral

component of Domain 1. Educators from the PBS and non-PBS schools viewed the elements in demonstrating knowledge of resources as the least of the component, and the non-PBS school rated this component among its lowest concerns as well.

Danielson reported that the research on planning and preparation is plentiful and understandable as supported by Shulman (1988). Shulman stated that teachers should understand how a given idea relates to other ideas within the same subject area and to other ideas as well. This research supports the teachers' emphasis on knowledge of teaching. Heretofore, Danielson reports that historically researchers have debated whether teachers' knowledge of resources acts as a crucial link between teacher effectiveness and planning. This fact endorses the diminutive level this component received from the educators of both schools, specifically the traditional high school.

Classroom Environment

A direct connection between classroom environment and teacher professional practices was especially noted in this research. This domain stood alone as having three or more components highly recognized for their level of importance as characterized by the data received from the treatment and control schools. Managing student behavior received equal high emphasis in this specific professional practice, which points to the specific focus each school has on establishing an environment conducive to the teaching and learning process. Educators identified managing classroom procedures among the lowest of importance out of five components.

Shukla-Mehta and Albin (2003) identified 12 research-based strategies that when applied to all classroom settings prove useful across various school environments. These researchers also mention the key to preventing problems is to anticipate the occurrence of events and to use effective preventive strategies to ensure successful student outcomes. The educators in the treatment and control schools echo this research with the high level of importance each applied to the managing student behavior component.

Instruction

In connection with instruction, the data disclosed that each school determined that communicating clearly and communicating accurately were equally important teacher professional practices. For the most part, the PBS and traditional high schools reported that demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness depicts a level of significance that ranks second

among the five components. However, the PBS educators ranked “providing feedback” as the least important component as well as the non-PBS school’s educators. The difference, however, lies in the level of insignificance the PBS high school placed on this component. Again, both sets of educators found the teacher professional practices within the instruction domain to be one of the most important; nevertheless, neither indicated a significant level of importance in the area of providing feedback to students.

Danielson (1996) relates goal connection, learning expectations, and specific instructions for meeting goals to effective teacher communication. She unequivocally links effective instruction with the ability of teachers to present information to their students in a manner that promotes setting goals and learning expectations. Herein lies a connection between the research of this study and Danielson’s theory as the data indicate that communicating clearly and accurately support the participants’ designation of this component as highly significant. The miniscule importance that both groups of educators used to characterize “providing feedback to students” is initially alarming. Then again, a review of Mastropieri, Scruggs, Morland, Berkeley, McDuffie, Tornquist, and Connors’ (2006) research explored the use of differentiated curriculum enhancement and found that peer assisted learning, review, and collaboration had a statistical significant effect on learning. This fact places less emphasis on teacher feedback as noted in this research.

Professional Responsibility

Strangely enough, teacher professional practices demonstrated the least significance in Domain 4: Professional Responsibility. In the PBS school the educators acknowledged that communicating with families portrayed the least importance among the six components. Similarly, this was the lowest rated component of the traditional high school as well. Involving families in the education of the students, over time, has become a lost phenomenon. Thus, a key ingredient in the PBS model is the involvement of families. The lack of family participation in both schools suggests a relationship to the inferior rating received in the professional responsibility category. Low family participation generally corresponds with inadequate home to school collaboration that is ever so important to the professional accountability process.

In 2001, Hausman and Goldring conducted a study that explored the relationship between indicators of professionalism and teacher commitment. The resounding theme that derived from this study supported that the teachers’ willingness to grow and develop in their desire to work in

partnership with others develops their sense of community. This important point highlights the fact that these positive results inevitably lead to improved teacher performance and, ultimately, gains in student learning. It must be noted that the research of Hausman and Goldring (2001) also showed that no significant difference was found between the two participants' results. Relative to the participants in this research study, Hausman and Goldring's educators moreover reported proportionally low levels of influence in their professional practices.

Although *professional responsibilities* ranked among the lowest scores of the PBS school, the category did, however, fair higher than in the traditional school. The researcher observed this comparison during the visits to both schools. The principal at the PBS school was cordial and professional during the preliminary phone calls and the subsequent visit. Quick responses were given to all e-mails prior to the visit and throughout the follow-up process. The Administrator's Section of the survey was completed within the first hour of its availability. Moreover, the principal inadvertently completed the hardcopy and willingly transferred the responses to the electronic survey within the same hour.

The traditional school's first day responses to the electronic survey amounted to nearly 70% of the total responses received. Thereafter, the responses filtered in slowly throughout the remainder of the open period. The principal did not provide any conduct related data and provided no response to an additional request for this data from the researcher or the central office.

The researchers' comparison of the two visits gives an idea about the affect that professionalism and human relation skills have on an organization. The principal at the PBS school was more supportive, timely, and participative with the study. Professionalism was at the forefront of her consistent contact with the researcher. As a result, the staff followed the lead. In contrast the building principal at the traditional school displayed a business as usual approach to the researcher and the study. Consequently, the atmosphere at the traditional school was similar in its survey responses and mannerisms.

Findings for the Research Questions

All the data gathered from the questionnaire survey provided results that were used to address the three research questions:

1. In what important ways do teachers working in PBS and traditional high schools characterize their professional practices in the academic setting of their workplace?

2. Is there a significant difference between teacher professional practices reported by Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools?
3. Is there an obvious difference on student outcomes in the academic setting between high schools that applied Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools?

Ways Teacher Professional Practices Are Characterized

To explore the important ways teachers characterized their professional practices, mean score descriptive data were analyzed. The sample of this study included a PBS and a traditional school within the same district. The schools were chosen because of their matching demographics and the state of Maryland's commitment to system-wide implementation of PBS. An electronic survey was distributed to all teachers and administrators in both schools. Responses were received from 95 (76%) PBS school respondents and 81 (66%) non-PBS school respondents.

All variables in this study were comprised from Charlotte Danielson's four domains and 22 components on the survey questions. There were 21 variables that demonstrated they had a great degree of importance for the PBS school. Of these variables, those that are attached to the classroom environment domain demonstrated the greatest measure of importance, specifically (a) the classroom is safe, (b) standards of student conduct are clear, and (c) the teacher conveys culture of learning. The classroom environment exhibited the highest level of importance for the educators of this particular PBS school. Waxman and Walberg (1999) report that classroom management is an area that intimidates teachers and has been shown to be the number one influence on classroom learning. The PBS school, in conjunction with the aforementioned research, sees that establishing a classroom where students feel safe and secure is an important element.

In other research studies it was found that reflection helps teachers analyze, discuss and evaluate classroom practices (Posner, 2000; Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997). This form of reflection also coincides with the PBS strong view on "teacher conveys culture of learning." As the emphasis is placed on routine reflection, teachers become less critical, provide different viewpoints, and are able to explain rationale behind decisions, which sets the tone for the classroom culture (Posner, 2000). In turn, the students become more connected with the teacher and the classroom develops into an active learning center for all.

As we reflect on the variables associated with the PBS high levels of importance, the educators have placed strong emphasis on managing student behavior, organizing physical space, and communicating clearly and accurately. In addition, many of the educators revealed a heightened degree of significance on displaying professionalism. The focus on professionalism is connected to the educators' belief to actively serve students. Serving students, which is an integral part of Positive Behavior Support, is no doubt an appropriate variable selected by the PBS school that warrants their attention. To build a school program that focuses on accentuating the positives undoubtedly is reflected in the PBS educators' responses, particularly those regarding serving students and working with others to ensure all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed.

Equally, the traditional high school identified the classroom environment and associated variables as having the highest level of importance when responding to the survey. Once again, the importance of creating an environment that encourages positive student outcomes continues as the resounding theme. Of most importance to the traditional high school was communicating standards of student conduct clearly to all students. Additionally, the friendliness of teacher-student interactions received the next highest level of importance. As with the PBS school, this variable also connects the educator's interest with the needs of the students. Positive teacher-student relationships certainly provide for an encouraging atmosphere for a wholesome school spirit. A learning environment in which connectivity between adults and children is beneficial to the learning process and continues to point toward desirable outcomes in many observed areas throughout the school.

Significant Differences Between Professional Practices

The second research question seeks to identify any significant differences in the way Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools characterize their professional practices in the academic setting. Although the majority of the identified professional practices between PBS and non-PBS schools showed no significant difference, five of the 68 teacher professional practices did. *Teaching reflects current research on best practices* and *teachers volunteer to participate in school and district projects* were the two professional practices that showed the greatest significant differences, while *teachers volunteer to participate in school events* and *feedback is consistently high quality* ranked second and third correspondingly. *Teachers understand relationships among topics and concepts* are fourth.

Current research on best practices has focused on instructional procedures that suggest that some teachers are more effective than others (Ferguson & Ladd, 1996; Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Wright, Horn & Sanders, 1997) although this research has not yet identified the characteristics or practices that are associated with effectiveness. Data from the PBS school depict support for best practices as it relates to current research, whereas data from the traditional school indicate that instruction is not reflective of research-based strategies. PBS is well established in studies and innovative methods to provide effective instruction to students. The participants in this study associate the success of their students with efficient instruction, wherein a parallel is drawn with instructional practices based on intrinsic research. However, the traditional school tends to operate in the *one-size-fits-all* mode of instruction (Edwards, Carr & Siegel, 2006). According to the research of Edwards, Carr, and Siegel (2006) schools are often competing with the teachers' strong ties to the traditional culture of schooling. As in this research, the traditional school's low response to this variable points to an attitude that flows with the common thread seen in many schools portraying a lack of zeal to challenge students with stimulating lessons.

Meaningful activities are often found in schools where a concerted effort to provide teaching strategies derived from investigative planning and preparation are present. Koretz (2003) presented information about changes in practice being important to validating changes to test scores whereupon the PBS schools' reading test scores exemplify this fact. It is important to note that the PBS respondents' view on instruction based on current research tends to associate the aforesaid practices with the success of their test scores.

Feedback has its best results when the instructor provides quality with the delivery of the responses. Quality feedback is often an example of the more experienced teacher who is not intimidated by the questions or responses of the students. Failed lessons may often be the result of students' lack of opportunities to participate in a worthwhile discussion that includes high quality feedback from the teachers. The data retrieved from the research shows that the PBS school's largest age group is between the ages of 50 - 55 (20.7%) while the traditional school's largest age group is 26 - 31 (18.9%). Also, the PBS school has 65.5% of its teachers who has taught for 6 or more years as compared to 63% of the traditional school. Although there is not a large disparity this data does indeed support the notion that veteran teachers provide more quality feedback, which is demonstrated in the academic performance data of both schools as well.

The PBS schools' responses support the notion that teachers volunteer to participate in school and district projects even as the traditional school did not characterize this as a high level of importance. Participating in school and district projects maintains unity with the teachers, thus creating connectivity to important stakeholders within the two entities. Volunteering is important in making all parties aware of one another's needs. While the value of volunteering is well understood, often the importance of a collaborative relationship between teachers, school, and district is misunderstood (Swisher & Page, 2005). Frequently, these relationships are portrayed as negative creating the illusion that these groups have no positive shared values. The PBS school responded favorably to this professional practice as the resounding theme of the school is to develop positive relationships. Collegiality as it pertains to volunteering among all staff is an important attribute to maintaining a wholesome atmosphere. Effective programming and planning depends upon the functional linkage between, teacher school and district. The professionalism that is developed through working together stands as a cornerstone to a winning school program where efficacy is prevalent (Coberly & Cosgrove, 2002). Thus, the importance of volunteering in school and district events as viewed by the PBS school in this study supports the research of Coberly and Cosgrove (2002).

Obvious Differences on Student Outcomes between High Schools

The effect of PBS implementation on positive student outcomes as opposed to a non-PBS traditional school model was explored to determine any association with its use to the success of academic achievement, attendance, graduation rate, and grade 12 documented decisions. The PBS model had higher ratings in academic achievement, attendance, graduation rate, and grade level documented decisions when a comparison of the descriptive data from the 2006 Maryland State Report Card in these categories was performed. Three years of data were examined for both schools and the treatment school was a PBS school for at least two years.

Descriptive data from this research show that the PBS school outperformed the non-PBS school in four out of six major categories: (a) reading proficiency (7%), (b) attendance (1.4%), (c) graduation rate (3%), and (d) percentage of students attending a four year college (13%). In respect to twelfth grade documented decisions, four of six categories were similar, which demonstrated that teacher professional practices of both schools have similar effects on decisions to attend a two year college, go to the military, or accept full or part-time employment. Grade twelve documented decisions represent students who attended their particular schools for four

years before graduating; these students' retention over four years indicates a good sample of students who are affected by the culture of the schools.

While both schools' statistical data in this research report comparable results, primarily in classroom environment, the student outcomes favor the treatment school. The PBS school's focus is on enhancing the atmosphere with the goal of eradicating exclusionary practices (Sugai & Horner, 2002). Sugai and Horner also report that the major intent of PBS implementation is to bring about systematic change in the learning atmosphere where students and teachers integrate preventive and positive approaches that address problem behaviors and improve academic performances. Equally important, Turnbull et al. (2002) revealed that the focus of introducing PBS strategies and procedures is building a responsive environment that *stacks the deck* in favor of appropriate student outcomes.

In another area, once again, the descriptive data presented in this research show that the treatment school is more successful at encouraging regular daily attendance (1.4%), which improves standardized test scores, and heightens the total number of students graduating on time. More to the point, the combined data of four and two-year college attendance illustrates that the PBS school has 63% of their students attending college while the traditional school has 54%. Although both schools have over 50% of their students attending college this data demonstrates the PBS school is out performing the traditional school by 9% in college attendance.

Math proficiency is the only category by which the control school achieved a higher score than the treatment school. This symbolizes that teacher professional practices had little effect on improving math scores and supports the study of Moll and Diaz (1987). Their research presented that to improve math scores of at-risk students, there is a need for instructional change in order to improve the conditions for learning. Hence, it is the development of the teacher as an efficient instructor who ultimately will enhance math scores. Teachers' conception of mathematics teaching influences what they do in the classroom and plays a significant role in the teachers' characteristic patterns of instructional behavior (Dunn, 2004). Dunn also reports that teachers' conceptions and expectations for their students influence classroom practices and may adversely affect student performance. This research supports the fact that more attention needs to be directed towards the individual math teachers in the treatment school given that math proficiency is the only control school score higher than the others.

Recommendations

Principals and teachers must understand their roles as academicians as they evolve within an educational system that is enshrouded in high-stakes testing and an outcry for a safe and secure school environment. Additionally, they should maintain the understanding that the ultimate responsibility and accountability for the effective use of teacher professional practices in the classroom lies within the principals and teachers. It also remains their responsibility to ensure that the students are the beneficiaries of the effective use of these professional practices in the academic setting of the workplace.

Continued staff development is very important to the development of teacher professional practices as they pertain to local, state and federal regulations so that districts can produce high quality 21st Century schools and learners. Principals should provide the leadership in staff developments for teachers and staff, in addition to identifying diverse programs for the implementation of teacher professional practices that are proficient, modern, and useful to enhancing the school environment. One such program for consideration is Positive Behavior Support (PBS) mainly due to the success noted in this research.

Although this research shows that the differences of teacher professional practices between PBS and traditional schools are minimal, the PBS school is outperforming the traditional school by a narrow margin. For that reason, the administrator might consider connecting the use of a PBS program with the effective use of teacher professional practices that coincide with the overall goals of the total school program. Principals must cautiously observe the daily use of teacher professional practices and also create conditions that show support of the teachers as they combine their use with PBS implementation.

Leadership efforts to help teachers understand the importance of utilizing teacher professional practices that enhance the school environment must be communicated not only to teachers but the entire school community as well. Ultimately, as the principal integrates a PBS system into the school a natural involvement of all stakeholders will occur, as this is a key component of the PBS model. Griffin (1986) characterized the effective teacher as one who interacts with students, colleagues, and community members purposefully and effectively. With this in mind, the principal should seek to strengthen the teachers more in the area of professional responsibilities as this area was noted in this study as the least efficient of Danielson's four domains in both schools.

Schools that have positive leaders who demonstrate outstanding professionalism typically create a high quality atmosphere for teaching, learning, and collegiality amongst all stakeholders. With this in mind, the researcher recommends that the results of this study direct the attention to establishing well-rounded resourceful leaders who can establish the direction for program implementation. Even though the PBS school narrowly outperformed the traditional school, its discipline data remained the same over a two-year period. The site visit by the researcher supports the fact that the tone of professionalism was set by the principal. Even more, the principal's attitude towards program implementation also appeared contagious, so-to-speak. This leads to the definite need to continue to develop leaders who are considered professional, flexible and willing to buy-in to the need for school improvement, which in turn will assist with program implementation such as PBS. Positive Behavior Support as a stand-alone entity originally needs the support of the leader followed by the teachers, and eventually the entire school community to achieve the success it is designed to accomplish.

Future Research

The results of this study demonstrate that more research is needed to identify clearly the requirements that are needed for synchronizing Positive Behavior Support strategies and teacher professional practices. Also, principals and teachers need to fully understand the different strategies essential to enhancing teacher professional practices and PBS implementation. Moreover, research based on secondary principals' and teachers' insight into the function of PBS and Danielson's four domains may enhance the study as well.

With respect to teacher training, more specific data can be gathered to outline how teachers assess their prior training. This data may offer educators an in-depth understanding and information pertinent to the teachers' feeling regarding their daily instructional and professional preparedness as an effective educator. Teacher insight that suggests potential solutions to identified concerns furnishes facts essential to establishing useful staff development.

Actual teacher interviews and classroom observations may gain more knowledge of teachers' perceptions and characterizations of the use of teacher professional practices in the schools. A series of visits to the PBS and traditional schools through a case study could provide valuable feedback, a more intimate account of perception of their levels of involvement in PBS program developments, and teachers' thoughts on the effective use of teacher professional practices. It may also provide insight into the principals' and teachers' awareness of their

individual roles of enhancing the school environment through the use of PBS programming and diverse teacher professional practices.

Furthermore, a larger comparison sample possibly would provide more information to enhance the results. A larger sample to include more PBS and traditional schools provides a greater degree of comparison variables, which in turn, lends to more categories available for data analysis. Included in this larger sample size would be interviews of students, parents, community persons, and business partners. Through this method a more in-depth study would be achieved that includes valuable information from all stakeholders.

Conclusion

This research indicates that even though Positive Behavior Support and traditional high schools characterize the level of importance of teacher professional practices similarly, in reality, the use of practices is getting different, more positive results. The results of this study also suggest that the practices noted as significantly different are minimal, and in so doing, allude to five distinct differences. Those differences include (a) understanding relationships among topics and concepts, (b) teaching that reflect current research on best practices, (c) volunteering to participate in school events, (d) teacher feedback to students is high quality, and (e) volunteering to participate in school and district projects.

In examining the results of this study, the PBS school's teachers surpassed the traditional school's teachers in all but one notable performance outcome essentially pointing to the PBS teachers' knowledge of teaching and training, which supports the higher level of importance rating given to understanding relationships among topics and concepts. This variable is directly associated with the knowledge of teaching component and the planning and preparation domain. Additionally, the two professional responsibility elements that deal precisely with volunteering were rated with a higher level of importance by the PBS school. Teachers volunteering to participate in school events and to participate in school and district projects all serve as quality ways to connect the classroom, school, and district, thus identifying another key component of a successful PBS school.

A further comparison of descriptive data from the 2006 State of Maryland Report Card shows that the PBS school is preparing a higher percentage of students for the future. There is a higher degree of success noted in reading proficiency, student overall daily attendance and student graduation rates which stands as a steady progression towards the higher PBS rating for

grade 12 documented decisions. More students are going to four year colleges from the PBS school (42%) than the traditional school (29%) and more students are going to college overall. The reading proficiency scores are 7% higher at the PBS school (69%) than the traditional school (62%). Here again, demonstrating the conscientiousness towards providing a higher standard of teaching as it relates to the professional practices duly noted in this study.

However, the higher rating of the math proficiency of the traditional school (70%) as compared to the PBS school (65%) is grounds for concern. This presents itself as an area of concern when comparing the consistency of all the other descriptive data that supports the PBS school's positive outcomes. In spite of the high level of importance (70.8%) the PBS school ranked the communicating clearly and accurately component, the delivery of this communication in math as noted by the descriptive data continues to be a challenge. With this in mind, it is proper that the math department at the PBS school spend more time implementing best practices to encourage a higher degree of student success in math.

Nevertheless, the study also showed that the PBS school's rate of referrals and all other conduct data remained constant over a two-year period, meaning that PBS implementation may have leveled off and its effect on these issues were diminishing. This fact points to the PBS school's principal's leadership characteristics, which seemed to serve as the turning point of the PBS school's higher performance levels. Also, the PBS school's principal's leadership style and staff training appear to be two key factors that encouraged the seemingly successful PBS implementation. Without the professionalism and leadership of the PBS building principal supported by the effective staff training it is quite possible that the favorable PBS results viewed on the Maryland State Department of Education's Report Card could very well be different. It is deduced from this research that the successfulness of the implementation for any program is connected to the leader of the school, which in this case is the building level principal

With the high demand to educate students to successfully meet the "No Child Left Behind" mandates, providing an atmosphere for the teaching and learning process becomes ever so important. This atmosphere is often disrupted by students' socially maladjusted behavior that regularly is dealt with through traditional exclusionary practices. Students' absence typically translates into low performance outcomes; therefore, professional practices that encourage students' desire to be present daily are imperative. Therefore, school systems should seek to integrate programs like Positive Behavior Support with the effective use of teacher professional

practices and continue to employ professional, resourceful principals, which could mean the difference between becoming an institution that challenges the at-risk student to becoming a student “at-promise”.

REFERENCES

- Barth, R. S. (2004). *Learning by Heart*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bosler, R., & Bauman, D. (1992). Meeting cultural diversity with personal conviction: The teacher as change agent and transformational leader. Paper presented at the National Forum of the Association of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges, Louisville, KY.
- Brown, D. F. (2003). Urban teachers' use of culturally responsive management strategies. *Theory into Practice, 42*(4), 277-282.
- Calderhead, J., & Shorrock, S. (1997). *Understanding teacher education: Case studies in the professional development of beginning teachers*. Washington D.C.: Falmer Press.
- California Department of Education (2002). Unsafe school choice option: A report of the Assistant Deputy Secretary. Washington, D.C: Office of Safe and Drug Free Schools, U.S. Department of Education.
- Canter, L. & Canter, M. (1992). *Assertive discipline: Positive behavior management for today's classroom*. Canter & Associates, Inc. 48, 55, 77, 95.
- Cheeseman, P. L. & Watts, P. E. (19985). Positive behavior management. *Support for Learning, 14*(3), 129-134.
- Clarke, S., Worcester, J., Dunlap, G., Murray, M., & Bradley-Klug, K. (2002). Using multiple measures to evaluate positive behavior support: A case example. *A Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 4*(3), 131-145.
- Coberly, P., & Cosgrove, M. (2002). Standards for dispositions and efficacy in pre-service teachers. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Southern Association of Teacher Educators, October 30-November 2, Hot Springs, AR.

- Crone, D., & Horner, R. (2003). *Building positive behavior support systems in schools*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Cuban, L. (1983). How did teachers teach, 1890-1980. *Theory Into Practice*, 22(3), 159-165.
- Danielson, C. (1996). *Enhancing professional practice: A framework for teaching*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Dunn, T. K. (2004). Enhancing mathematics teaching for at-risk students: Influences of a teaching experience in alternative high school. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 31(1), 46-52.
- Edwards, C. J., Carr, S., & Siegel, W. (2006). Influences of experiences and training on effective teaching practices to meet the needs of diverse learners in schools. *Education*, 126(3), 580-592.
- Ferguson, R. F., & Ladd, H. F. (1996). How and why money matters: Analysis of Alabama schools. In H. Ladd (Ed.) *Holding Schools Accountable*, pp. 265-298. Washington, DC: Brooking Institution.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Floden, R., Buchmann, M., & Schwille, J. (1987). Breaking with everyday experience. *Teachers College Record*, 88, 485-506.
- Fox, S., & Hoffman, M. (2002). Escalation behavior as a specific case of goal-directed activity: A persistence paradigm. *Basic & Applied Social Psychology*, 24, 273-85.
- Garavalia, L. S., & Gredler, M. E. (2002). An exploratory study of academic goal setting, achievement calibration and self regulated learning. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 29(4), 22-230.

- Grady, M. C. (2002). Changing problem behavior: Evidence supports best practices. *The Special Edge*, 16(1), 1-3.
- Griffin, G. A. (1986). Using research findings to change school and classroom practices: Results of an experimental study. *American Educational Research Journal*, 23(4), 572-586.
- Hanushek, E. D., Kain, J. F., & Rivkin, J. G. (2004). Why public schools lose teachers. *Journal of Human Resources*, 39(2), 326-354.
- Hausman, C. S., & Goldring, E. B. (2001). Sustaining teacher commitment: The role of professional communities. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 76(2), 30-51.
- Heiman, G. W. (2001). *Understanding Research Methods and Statistics*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Herzog, N. (1998). Using open-ended learning activities to empower teachers and students. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 30, 39-43.
- Holley, L., & Steiner, S. (2005). Safe space: Student perspectives on classroom environment. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 41(1), 49-64.
- Hootstein, E. (1998, November). Differentiation of instructional methodologies in subject-based curricula at the secondary level. (Research Brief No. 38). Richmond, VA Metropolitan Education Research Consortium.
- Horner, R. (2002). Introduction to the special series on positive behavior support in schools. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 10(3), 130-136.
- Horner, R. & Sugai, G. (2002). *Overview of positive behavior support*. Paper presented at the 2002 Convention of the Council for Exceptional Children, New York.
- Jackson, L., & Panyan, M. (2002). *Positive behavioral support in the classroom: Principles and practices*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes Publishing.

- Johnson, D., Rice, M., Edgington, W., & Williams, P. (2005). For the uninitiated: How to succeed in classroom management. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 42(1), 28-32.
- Keith, T. Z., & Anderson, E. S. (1997). A longitudinal test of a model of academic success for at-risk high school students. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 90, 259-268.
- Knoster, T., George, H. P., & Harrower, J. K. (2003). School-wide prevention and early intervention: A process for establishing a system of school-wide behavior support. *Preventing School Failure*, 47(4), 170-176.
- Koretz, D. (2003). Using multiple measures to address perverse incentives and score inflation. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice*, 22(2), 18-26.
- Lane, K., Pierson, M., Robertson, E. J., & Little, A. (2004). Teachers' views of pre-referral interventions: Perceptions of and recommendations for implementation support. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 27(4), 420-439.
- Lopes, J., Monteiro, I., Sil, V., Rutherford, R., & Quinn, M. (2004). Teachers' perceptions about teaching problem students in regular classrooms. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 27(4), 394-419.
- Marchand-Martella, N. (2002). Maximizing student learning: The effects of a comprehensive school-based program for preventing problem behaviors. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 10(3), 136-148.
- Maryland State Department of Education. (2008). *2006 Maryland Report Card*. Retrieved March 5, 2007, from the Maryland State Department of Education Web site: <http://www.mdreportcard.org>

- Mastropieri, M. A., Scruggs, T. E., Norland, J. J., Berkeley, S., McDuffie, K., Tornquist, et al, (2006). Differentiated curriculum enhancement in inclusive middle school science: Effects on classroom and high-stakes tests. *The Journal of Special Education, 40*(3), 130-137.
- Mitchem, K., & Young, K. R. (2001). Adapting self-management programs for class wide use: Acceptability, feasibility, and effectiveness. *Remedial and Special Education, 22*(2), 75-88.
- Moll, L. C. & Diaz, S. (1987). Explaining the school performance of minority students. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 18*(4), 300-311.
- Muijs, D., & Reynolds, D. (2002). Teachers' beliefs and behaviors: What really matters? *Journal of Classroom Interaction, 37*(2), 3-15.
- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. (1991). *Toward High and Rigorous Standards for the Teaching Profession, 3rd* ed. Detroit: Author.
- Newcomer, L., Lewis, T., & Powers, L. (2002). *Policies and procedures to develop effective school wide discipline practices at the elementary school level*. Report to Council of Administrators of Special Education and The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders Mini-Library Series on Safe, Drug-free, and Effective Schools.
- Nuthall, G. (2005). The cultural myths and realities of classroom teaching and learning: A personal journey. *Teachers College Record, 107*(5), 895-934.
- Pbismaryland.org Newsletter (2005, Spring). *Maryland PBS partnership and collaboration*. Retrieved October 7, 2005, from the Pbismaryland Web site:
<http://www.pbismaryland.org>
- Phelps, P. H. (2006). The three Rs of professionalism. *Kappa Delta Pi, 42*(2), 69-71.

- Ponticelli, J. A., & Zepeda, S. A. (2004). Confronting well-learned lessons in supervision and evaluation. *NASSP Bulletin*, 88(639), 43-59.
- Posner, G. (2000). *Field experience: Methods of reflective teaching*. New York: Longman.
- Reid-Griffin, A., Carter, G., Park, J., Weibe, E., Flynn, L., Parsons, E., Bulter, S., & Haefner, L. (2004). Educators working smarter: A closer look at a local community of practice. *Action in Teacher Education*, 26(3), 44-51.
- Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee.
- Scott, T. (2001). A schoolwide example of positive behavioral support. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 3(2), 88-94.
- Scott, T. (2002). Wraparound and positive behavioral interventions and supports in the schools. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 10(3), 171-180.
- Sherman, S. (2004). Responsiveness in teaching: Responsibility in its most particular sense. *The Educational Forum*, 68(2), 115-124.
- Shukla-Mehta, S., & Albin, R. W. (2003). Twelve practical strategies to prevent behavioral escalation in classroom settings. *The Clearing House*, 77(2), 50-56.
- Shulman, L. S. (1988). A union of insufficiencies: Strategies for teacher assessment in a period of education reform. *Educational Leadership*, 46(3), 36-41.
- Sigel, I (1990). Psycho educational intervention: Future directions. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 36(1), 159-172.
- Sprague, J. & Walker, H. M. (2004). Improving school climate with school wide positive behavior support. *The Utah Special Educator*, 25(2), 12-15.

- Strickland, D., & Snow, C. (2002). *Preparing our teachers: Opportunities for better reading instruction*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Sugai, G., & Horner, R. (2001). Features of effective behavior support at the school district level. *Beyond Behavior, 11*(1), 16-19.
- Sugai, G., Horner, R., Dunlap, G., Hieneman, M., Lewis, T., Liaupsin, C., et al. (2000). Applying positive behavior support and functional behavioral assessment in schools. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 2*(3), 131-143.
- Sugai, G., & Horner, R. (2002). The evolution of discipline practices: School-wide positive behavior supports. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy, 24*(1/2), 23-50.
- Sugai, G. & Horner, R. (2002). Introduction to the special series on positive behavior support in schools. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 10*(3), 130(6).
- Swisher, L. L., & Page, C. G. (2005). *Professionalism in Physical Therapy*. St. Louis, MO: Elsevier Saunders.
- Szabo, S., & Mokhtari, K. (2004). Developing a reading teaching efficacy instrument for teacher candidates: A validation study. *Action in Teacher Education, 26*(3), 59-72.
- Tomlinson, C., Brighton, C., Hertberg, H., Callahan, C., Moon, T., Brimijoin, K., et al, (2003). Differentiating response to student readiness, interest, and learning profile in academically diverse classrooms: A review of literature. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 27*(2/3), 119-145.
- Turnbull, A., Edmonson, H., Griggs, P., Wickham, D., Sailor, W., Freeman, R., Guess, D., Lassen, S., McCart, A., Park, J., Riffel, L., Turnbull, R., & Warren, J. (2002). A blueprint for schoolwide positive behavior support: Implementation of three components. *Exceptional Children, 68*(3), 377-402.

- Tyre, A. (2003). State-level implementation of schoolwide positive behavior support: An evaluation of the Arizona behavioral initiative. (Doctoral Dissertation, Northern Arizona University).
- Virginia Department of Education (2005). Virginia's effective school wide discipline (ESD) Project: A report of the ESD Project Staff on the statewide initiative to support positive academic and behavioral outcomes for all students. Office of Special Education Instructional Services, Virginia. Department of Education.
- Walker, H., & Sylwester, R. (1998). Reducing students' refusal and resistance. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 30(6), 52-5.
- Waxman, H., & Walberg, H. (1999). *New directions for teaching: Practice and research*. California: McCutchan.
- Wiebe Berry, R. A. (2006). Inclusion, power, and community: Teachers and students interpret the language of community in an inclusion classroom. *American Educational Research Journal*, 43(3), 489-529.
- Wright, S., Horn, S., & Sanders, W. (1997). Teacher and classroom context effects on student achievement: Implications for teacher evaluation. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 11(1), 57-67.
- Zins, J. E. & Ponti, C. R. (1990). Best practices in school-based consultation. In A. Thomas & J. Grimes (Eds.), *Best practices in school psychology*, 2, 673-694. Washington, DC: National Association of School Psychologists.

APPENDIX A
DATA COLLECTION FORM

Note: The information collected on this data form is confidential and will remain confidential.

The following information is needed from all teachers and school administrators who will be cooperating with the study.

Only the Principal should complete items 1–3. All others proceed to questions 4-9.

1. Please provide 2 year data for the following:

	2004 – 2005	2005 – 2006
1. Attendance Rate		
2. Drop-out Rate		
3. Number of Alternative Placements		
4. Number of Bus Referrals		
5. Number of In-school Suspensions		
6. Number of Out-of-school Suspensions		
7. Number of Detentions		
8. Number of Discipline Referrals		
9. Number of Expulsions		
10. Graduation Rate		

2. Please provide current year (2006 -2007) demographic data for the following:

2006 - 2007	Number	Percentage
1. Total School Enrollment		
2. Technology (number of computers per student)		
3. School Community Partners		
4. Parent Teachers Association (PTA) Members		
5. Free & Reduced Lunch Students		
6. Special Needs (IEP) Students		
7. Limited English Proficient (LEP) Students		
Ethnic Groups	Number	Percentage
1. Black		
2. White		
3. Hispanic		
4. Asian		
5. Other		

3. Has your school been identified as a Positive Behavior Intervention and Support (PBIS) site? Yes No **If yes**, how many years?

- 0-1 2- 3 4-5 6 or more

4. Please provide 3 year state and federal High School Assessment percentages.

HSA	State			Federal (AYP)		
	'03	'05	'06	'04	'05	'06
1. Algebra 1						
2. English 2						

5. Please check your status.

- Full time teacher Part time teacher
 Full time administrator Part time administrator
 Full time department chair Part time department chair

6. Please check number of years that you have been teaching/working as of January 1, 2007.

- 0-1 2- 3 4-5 6 or more

If you checked 0-1 to the above, you should stop at this point and log out of the survey.

7. Please check number of years that you have been teaching as of September 1, 2004 at your current school.

- 0-1 2- 3 4-5 6 or more

If you checked 0-1 to the above, you should stop at this point and log out of the survey.

8. Please check your gender

- Male Female

9. Please check your age range.

- 20-25 38-43 56-61
 26-31 44-49 62 or more
 32-37 50-55

10. Please check subjects that you teach (check all that apply).

- Math Science Social Studies

- English
- Visual Art
- Foreign Language
- Military
- Business
- Technology
- Special Education
- Alternative Education
- Performing Art
- Health & PE
- Work & Family Studies

Survey Questions

Comparing the Professional Practices of Teachers in a Positive Behavior Support High School with Teachers in a Traditional High School

Q1. To what extent do you display knowledge of teaching in the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Make connection between content and other disciplines1	1	2	3	4
Understand relationships among topics and concepts1	1	2	3	4
Teaching reflects current research on best practices1	1	2	3	4

Q2. To what extent do you demonstrate knowledge of students in the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Understand developmental characteristics of age1	1	2	3	4
Understand the need for different learning approaches ...1	1	2	3	4
Planning displays knowledge of each students skills1	1	2	3	4
Display knowledge of each students cultural interest1	1	2	3	4

Q3. To what extent do you demonstrate the ability to select instructional goals in the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Goals are suitable for most students	1	2	3	4
Goals reflect several types of learning	1	2	3	4
Goals permit practical methods of assessment	1	2	3	4
Goals are valuable to expectations and understanding	1	2	3	4

Q4. To what extent do you display knowledge of resources in the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Demonstrate awareness of all available resources	1	2	3	4
Understand how to gain access to available resources	1	2	3	4

Q5. To what extent do you design sound instruction through the use of the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Learning activities suitable to students	1	2	3	4
Instructional materials that engage students in learning	1	2	3	4
Instructional groups that support instructional goals	1	2	3	4
Lesson structure organized around the activity	1	2	3	4

Q6. To what extent do you assess student learning in the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Assessment approach corresponds with each goal	1	2	3	4
Assessment criteria are clear	1	2	3	4
Assessment results are used to plan for all students	1	2	3	4

Q7. To what extent do you view the following elements of respect and rapport in your classroom?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Teacher-student interactions are friendly	1	2	3	4
Students exhibit respect for the teacher	1	2	3	4
Student interactions are respectful towards one another	1	2	3	4

Q8. To what extent do you observe the following elements of a culture of learning in your classroom?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject	1	2	3	4
Students demonstrate pride in their work	1	2	3	4
Classroom environment conveys high expectations for student achievement	1	2	3	4

Q9. To what extent do you manage your classroom procedures through the use of the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Organize task to engage all students at all times	1	2	3	4
Transitions are smooth with little loss of instructional time ..	1	2	3	4
Handling of materials and supplies occur with little loss of instructional time	1	2	3	4
Systems for performing non-instructional duties are in place to prevent little loss of instructional time	1	2	3	4

Q10. To what extent do you manage student behavior through the use of the following elements in your classroom?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Standards of conduct are clear to all students	1	2	3	4
Alert to student behavior at all times	1	2	3	4
Response to misbehavior respects student's dignity	1	2	3	4

Q11. To what extent do you organize the physical space in your classroom utilizing the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
The classroom is safe	1	2	3	4
Furniture arrangement is a resource for learning activities	1	2	3	4
Display skillful use of physical resources	1	2	3	4
All learning is equally accessible to all students	1	2	3	4

Q12. To what extent do you communicate clearly and accurately through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Directions contain appropriate level of detail	1	2	3	4
Spoken and written language is appropriate to all students' age and interests	1	2	3	4

Q13. To what extent do you use questioning and discussion techniques through the following elements in your classroom?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Provide adequate time for students to respond	1	2	3	4
Classroom interaction represents true discussion	1	2	3	4
All students are engaged in the discussion	1	2	3	4

Q14. To what extent do you engage students in the learning through the following elements in your classroom?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Content is appropriate with students' knowledge and experience	1	2	3	4
Activities and assignments are appropriate to students	1	2	3	4
Instructional groups are appropriate to all students	1	2	3	4
Instructional resources and materials are suitable to the instructional goals	1	2	3	4
Pacing of the lesson is consistent	1	2	3	4

Q15. To what extent do you provide feedback to students through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Feedback is consistently high quality	1	2	3	4
Feedback is consistently provided in a timely manner	1	2	3	4

Q16. To what extent do you demonstrate flexibility and responsiveness through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Minor adjustments occur smoothly	1	2	3	4
Successfully accommodates students' questions and interests	1	2	3	4
Seek approaches for students who have difficulty learning	1	2	3	4

Q17. To what extent do you demonstrate your reflection on teaching through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Accurately assesses a lesson to verify goal achievement	1	2	3	4
Make a few suggestions for future alternative actions	1	2	3	4

Q18. To what extent do you maintain accurate records through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
System for maintaining information on student assignment completion is effective	1	2	3	4
System for maintaining information on student progress in learning is effective	1	2	3	4
System for maintaining information on noninstructional activities is effective	1	2	3	4

Q19. To what extent do you communicate with families through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Provide frequent and appropriate information to parents	1	2	3	4
Communicate students' progress to parents on a regular basis	1	2	3	4
Efforts to engage families in the instructional process are frequent and successful	1	2	3	4

Q20. To what extent do you contribute to the school district through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Cooperation and support characterize relationships with colleagues	1	2	3	4
Volunteer to participate in school events	1	2	3	4
Volunteer to participate in school and district projects	1	2	3	4

Q21. To what extent have you grown and developed professionally as noted through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Seek opportunities for professional development to enhance teaching and knowledge	1	2	3	4
Participate actively in assisting other educators	1	2	3	4

Q22. To what extent do you display professionalism through the following elements?

	Not At All ▼	Small Extent ▼	Some Extent ▼	Great Extent ▼
Active in serving students	1	2	3	4
Work with others to ensure all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed	1	2	3	4
Maintain and open mind during departmental decision making	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX B

FOUR DOMAINS OF PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE WITH ELEMENTS OF EACH COMPONENT

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Knowledge of Content	Teacher makes content errors or does not correct content errors students make.	Teacher displays basic content knowledge but cannot articulate connections with other parts of the discipline or with other disciplines.	Teacher displays solid content knowledge and makes connections between the content and the other parts of the discipline and other disciplines.	Teacher displays extensive content knowledge, with evidence of continuing pursuit of such knowledge.
Knowledge of Prerequisite Relationships	Teacher displays little understanding of prerequisite knowledge important for student learning of the content	Teacher indicates some awareness of prerequisite learning, although such knowledge may be incomplete or inaccurate.	Teacher's plans and practices reflect understanding of prerequisite relationships among topics and concepts.	Teacher actively builds on knowledge of prerequisite relationships when describing instruction or seeking causes for student misunderstanding.
Knowledge of Content-Related Pedagogy	Teacher displays little understanding of pedagogical issues involved in student learning of the content.	Teacher displays basic pedagogical knowledge but does not anticipate student misconceptions.	Pedagogical practices reflect current research on best pedagogical practice within the discipline but without anticipating student misconceptions.	Teacher displays continuing search for best practices and anticipates student misconceptions.

Figure B1. Planning and Preparation. Component 1a: Demonstrating Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Knowledge of Characteristics of Age Groups	Teacher displays minimal knowledge of developmental characteristics of age group.	Teacher displays generally accurate knowledge of developmental characteristics of age group.	Teacher displays thorough understanding of typical developmental characteristics of age group as well as expectations to general patterns.	Teacher displays knowledge of typical developmental characteristics of age group, exceptions to the patterns, and the extent to which each student follows patterns.
Knowledge of Students' varied approaches to learning	Teacher is unfamiliar with the different approaches to learning that student's exhibit, such as learning styles, modalities, and different "intelligences."	Teacher displays general understanding of the different approaches to learning that students exhibit.	Teacher displays solid understanding of the different approaches to learning that different students exhibit.	Teacher uses, where appropriate, knowledge of students' varied approaches to learning in instructional planning.
Knowledge of Students' Skills and Knowledge	Teacher displays little knowledge of students' skills and knowledge and does not indicate that such knowledge is valuable.	Teacher recognizes the value of understanding students' skills and knowledge but displays this knowledge for the class only as a whole.	Teacher displays knowledge of students' skills and knowledge for groups of students and recognizes the value of this knowledge.	Teacher displays knowledge of students' skills and knowledge for each student, including those with special needs.
Knowledge of Students' Interests and Cultural Heritage	Teacher displays little knowledge of students' interests or cultural heritage and does not indicate that such knowledge is valuable.	Teacher recognizes the value of understanding students' interests or cultural heritage but displays this knowledge for the class only as a whole.	Teacher displays knowledge of the interests or cultural heritage of groups of students and recognizes the value of this knowledge.	Teacher displays knowledge of the interests or cultural heritage of each student.

Figure A2. Planning and Preparation. Component 1b: Demonstrating Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Value	Goals are not valuable and represent low expectations or no conceptual understanding for students. Goals do not reflect important learning.	Goals are moderately valuable in either their expectations or conceptual understanding for students and in importance of learning.	Goals are valuable in their level of expectations, conceptual understanding, and importance of learning.	Not only are the goals valuable, but teacher can also clearly articulate how goals establish high expectations and relate to curriculum frameworks and standards.
Clarity	Goals are either not clear or are stated as student activities. Goals do not permit viable methods of assessment.	Goals are only moderately clear or include a combination of goals and activities. Some goals do not permit viable methods of assessment.	Most of the goals are clear but may include a few activities. Most permit viable methods of assessment.	All the goals are clear, written in the form of student learning, and permit viable methods of assessment.
Suitability for Diverse Students	Goals are not suitable for the class.	Most of the goals are suitable for most students in the class.	All the goals are suitable for most students in the class.	Goals take into account the varying learning needs of individual students or groups.
Balance	Goals reflect only one type of learning and one discipline or strand.	Goals reflect several types of learning but no effort at coordination or integration.	Goals reflect several different types of learning and opportunities for integration.	Goals reflect student initiative in establishing important learning.

Figure B3. Planning and Preparation. Component 1c: Selecting Instructional Goals.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Resources for Teaching	Teacher is unaware of resources available through the school or district.	Teacher displays limited awareness of resources available through the school or district.	Teacher is fully aware of all resources available through the school or district.	In addition to being aware of school and district resources, teacher actively seeks other materials to enhance instruction, for example, from professional organizations or through the community.
Resources for Students	Teacher is unaware of resources available to assist students who need them.	Teacher displays limited awareness of resources available through the school or district.	Teacher is fully aware of all resources available through the school or district and knows how to gain access for students.	In addition to being aware of school and district resources, teacher is aware of additional resources available through the community.

Figure B4. Planning and Preparation. Component 1d: Demonstrating Knowledge of Resources.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Learning Activities	Learning activities are not suitable to students or instructional goals. They do not follow an organized progression and do not reflect recent professional research.	Only some of the learning activities are suitable to students or instructional goals. Progression of activities in the unit is uneven, and only some activities reflect recent professional research.	Most of the learning activities are suitable to students and instructional goals. Progression of activities in the unit is fairly even, and most activities reflect recent professional research.	Learning activities are highly relevant to students and instructional goals. They progress coherently, producing a unified whole and reflecting recent professional research.
Instructional Materials and Resources	Materials and resources do not support the instructional goals or engage students in meaningful learning.	Some of the materials and resources support the instructional goals, and some engage students in meaningful learning.	All materials and resources support the instructional goals, and most engage students in meaningful learning.	All materials and resources support the instructional goals, and most engage students in meaningful learning. There is evidence of student of student participation in selecting or adapting materials.
Instructional Groups	Instructional groups do not support the instructional goals and offer no variety.	Instructional groups are inconsistent in suitability to the instructional goals and offer minimal variety.	Instructional groups are varied, as appropriate to the different instructional goals.	Instructional groups are varied, as appropriate to the different instructional goals. There is evidence of student choice in selecting different patterns of instructional groups.
Lesson and Unit Structure	The lesson or unit has no clearly defined structure, or the structure is chaotic. Time allocations are unrealistic.	The lesson or unit has a recognizable structure, although the structure is not uniformly maintained throughout. Most time allocations are reasonable.	The lesson or unit has a clearly defined structure that activities are organized around. Time allocations are reasonable.	The lesson's or unit's structure is clear and allows for different pathways according to student needs.

Figure B5. Planning and Preparation. Component 1e: Designing Coherent Instruction.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Congruence with Instructional Goals	Contents and methods of assessment lack congruence with instructional goals	Some of the instructional goals are assessed through the proposed approach, but many are not.	All the instructional goals are nominally assessed through the proposed plan, but the approach is more suitable to some goals than to others.	The proposed approach to assessment is completely congruent with the instructional goals, both in content and process.
Criteria and Standards	The proposed approach contains no clear criteria or standards.	Assessment criteria and standards have been developed, but they are either not clear or not have not been clearly communicated to students.	Assessment criteria and standards are clear and have been clearly communicated to students.	Assessment criteria and standards are clear and have been clearly communicated to students. There is evidence that students contributed to the development of the criteria and standards.
Use for Planning	The assessment results affect planning for these students only minimal.	Teacher uses assessment results to plan for the class as a whole.	Teacher uses assessment results to plan for individuals and groups of students.	Students are aware of how they are meeting the established standards and participate in planning the next steps.

Figure B6. Planning and Preparation. Component 1f: Assessing Student Learning.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Teacher Interaction with Students	Teacher interaction with at least some students is negative, demeaning, sarcastic, or inappropriate to the age or culture of the students. Students exhibit disrespect for teacher.	Teacher-student interactions are generally appropriate but may reflect occasional inconsistencies, favoritism, or disregard for students' cultures. Students exhibit only minimal respect for teacher.	Teacher-student interactions are friendly and demonstrate general warmth, caring, and respect. Such interactions are appropriate to developmental and cultural norms. Students exhibit respect for teacher.	Teacher exhibits genuine caring and respect for individual students. Students exhibit respect for teacher as an individual, beyond that for the role.
Student Interaction	Student interactions are characterized by conflict, sarcasm, or put-downs.	Students do not demonstrate negative behavior toward one another.	Student interactions are generally politer and respectful.	Students demonstrate genuine caring for one another as individuals and as students.

Figure B7. The Classroom Environment. Component 2a: Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Importance of the Content	Teacher or students convey a negative attitude toward the content, suggesting that the content is not important or is mandated by others.	Teacher communicates importance of the work but with little conviction and only minimal buy-in by the students.	Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject, and students demonstrate consistent commitment to its value.	Students demonstrate through their active participation, curiosity, and attention to detail that they value the content's importance.
Student Pride in Work	Students demonstrate little or no pride in their work. They seem to be motivated by the desire to complete a task rather than do high-quality work.	Students minimally accept the responsibility to "do good work" but invest little of their energy in the quality of the work.	Students accept teacher insistence on work of high quality and demonstrate pride in that work.	Students take obvious pride in their work and initiate improvements in it, for example, by revising drafts on their own initiative, helping peers, and ensuring that high-quality work is displayed.
Expectations for Learning and Achievement	Instructional goals and activities, interactions, the classroom environment conveys only modest expectations for student achievement.	Instructional goals and activities, interactions, and the classroom environment convey inconsistent expectations for student achievement.	Instructional goals and activities, interactions, and the classroom environment convey high expectations for student achievement.	Both students and teachers establish and maintain through planning of learning activities, interactions, and the classroom environment high expectations for the learning of all students.

Figure B8. The Classroom Environment. Component 2b: Establishing a Culture for Learning.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Management of Instructional Groups	Students not working with the teacher are not productively engaged in learning.	Tasks for group work are partially organized, resulting in some off-task behavior when teacher is involved with one group.	Tasks for group work are organized, and groups are managed so most students are engaged at all times.	Groups working independently are productively engaged at all times, with students assuming responsibility for productivity.
Management of Transitions	Much time is lost during transitions	Transitions are sporadically efficient, resulting in some loss of instructional time.	Transitions occur smoothly, with little loss of instructional time.	Transitions are seamless, with students assuming some responsibility for efficient operation.
Management of Materials and Supplies	Materials are handled ineffectively, resulting in loss of instructional time.	Routines for handling materials and supplies function moderately well.	Routines for handling materials and supplies occur smoothly, with little loss of instructional time.	Routines for handling materials and supplies are seamless, with students assuming some responsibility for efficient operation.
Performance of Non-instructional Duties	Considerable instructional time is lost in performing noninstructional duties.	Systems for performing noninstructional duties are fairly efficient, resulting in little loss of instructional time.	Efficient systems for performing noninstructional duties are in place, resulting in minimal loss of instructional time.	Systems for performing noninstructional duties are well established, with students assuming considerable responsibility for efficient operation.
Supervision of Volunteers and Paraprofessionals	Volunteers and paraprofessionals have no clearly defined duties or do nothing most of the time.	Volunteers and paraprofessionals are productively engaged during portions of class time but require frequent supervision.	Volunteers and paraprofessionals are productively and independently engaged during the entire class.	Volunteers and paraprofessionals make a substantive contribution to the classroom environment.

Figure B9. The Classroom Environment. Component 2c: Managing Classroom Procedures.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Expectations	No standards of conduct appear to have been established, or students are confused as to what the standards are	Standards of conduct appear to have been established for most situations, and most students seem to understand them.	Standards of conduct are clear to all students.	Standards of conduct are clear to all students and appear to have been developed with student participation.
Monitoring of Student Behavior	Student behavior is not monitored, and teacher is unaware of what students are doing.	Teacher is generally aware of student behavior but miss the activities of some students.	Teacher is alert to student behavior at all times.	Monitoring by teacher is subtle and preventive. Students monitor their own and their peers' behavior, correcting one another respectfully.
Response to Student Misbehavior	Teacher does not respond to misbehavior, or the response is inconsistent	Teacher attempts to respond to student misbehavior but with uneven results, or no serious disruptive behavior occurs.	Teacher response to misbehavior is appropriate and successful and respects the student's dignity, or student behavior is generally appropriate.	Teacher response to misbehavior is highly effective and sensitive to students' individual needs, or student behavior is entirely appropriate.

Figure B10. The Classroom Environment. Component 2d: Managing Classroom Procedures.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Safety and Arrangement of Furniture	The classroom is unsafe, or the furniture arrangement is not suited to the lesson activities, or both.	The classroom is safe, and classroom furniture is adjusted for a lesson, or if necessary, a lesson is adjusted to the furniture, but with limited effectiveness.	The classroom is safe, and the furniture arrangement is a resource for learning activities.	The classroom is safe, and students adjust the furniture to advance their own purposes in learning.
Accessibility to Learning and Use of Physical Resources	Teacher uses physical resources poorly, or learning is not accessible to some students.	Teacher uses physical resources adequately, and at least essential learning is accessible to all students.	Teacher uses physical resources skillfully, and all learning is equally accessible to all students.	Both teacher and students use physical resources optimally, and students ensure that all learning is equally accessible to all students.

Figure B11. The Classroom Environment. Component 2e: Organizing Physical Space.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Directions and Procedures	Teacher directions and procedures are confusing to students.	Teacher directions and procedures are clarified after initial student confusion or are excessively detailed.	Teacher directions and procedures are clear to students and contain an appropriate level of detail.	Teacher directions and procedures are clear to students and anticipate possible student misunderstanding.
Oral and Written Language	Teacher's spoken language is inaudible, or written language is illegible. Spoken or written language may contain many grammar and sentence structure errors.	Teacher's spoken language is audible, and written language is legible. Both are used correctly. Vocabulary is correct but limited or is not appropriate to students' ages or backgrounds.	Teacher's spoken and written language is clear and correct. Vocabulary is appropriate to students' age and interests.	Teacher's spoken and written language is correct and expressive, with well-chosen vocabulary that enriches the lesson.

Figure B12. Instruction. Component 3a: Communicating Clearly and Accurately.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Quality of Questions	Teacher's questions are virtually all of poor quality.	Teacher's questions are a combination of low and high quality. Only some invite a response.	Most of teacher's questions are of high quality. Adequate time is available for students to respond.	Teacher's questions are of uniformly high quality with adequate time for students to respond. Students formulate many questions.
Discussion Techniques	Interaction between teacher and students is predominantly recitation style, with teacher mediating all questions and answers.	Teacher makes some attempts to engage students in a true discussion, with uneven results.	Classroom interaction represents true discussion, with teacher stepping, when appropriate, to the side.	Students assume considerable responsibility for the success of discussion, initiating topics and making unsolicited contributions.
Student Participation	Only a few students participate in the discussion.	Teacher attempts to engage all students in the discussion, but with only limited success.	Teachers successfully engages all students in the discussion.	Students themselves ensure that all voices are heard in the discussion.

Figure B13. Instruction. Component 3b: Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Representation of Content	Representation of content is inappropriate and unclear or uses poor examples and analogies.	Representation of content is inconsistent in quality. Some is done skillfully, with good examples; other portions are difficult to follow.	Representation of content is appropriate and links well with students' knowledge and experience.	Representation of content is appropriate and links well with students' knowledge and experience. Students contribute to representation of content.
Activities and Assignments	Activities and assignments are inappropriate for students in terms of their age or backgrounds. Students are not engaged mentally.	Some activities and assignments are appropriate to students and engage them mentally, but others do not.	Most activities and assignments are appropriate to students. Almost all students are cognitively engaged in them.	All students are cognitively engaged in the activities and assignments in their exploration of content. Students initiate or adapt activities and projects to enhance understanding.
Grouping of Students	Instructional groups are inappropriate to the students or to the instructional goals.	Instructional groups are only partially appropriate to the students or only moderately successful in advancing the instructional goals of a lesson.	Instructional groups are productive and fully appropriate to the students or to the instructional goals of a lesson.	Instructional groups are productive and fully appropriate to the instructional goals of a lesson. Students take the initiative to influence instructional groups to advance their understanding.
Instructional Materials and Resources	Instructional materials and resources are unsuitable to the instructional goals or do not engage students mentally.	Instructional materials and resources are partially suitable to the instructional goals, or students' level of mental engagement is moderate.	Instructional resources and materials are suitable to the instructional goals and engage students mentally.	Instructional materials and resources are suitable to the instructional goals and engage students mentally. Students initiate the choice, adaptation, or creation of materials to enhance their own purposes.
Structure and Pacing	The lesson has no clearly defined structure, or the pacing of the lesson is too slow or rushed, or both.	The lesson has a recognizable structure, although it is not uniformly maintained throughout the lesson. Pacing of the lesson is inconsistent.	The lesson has a clearly defined structure around which the activities are organized. Pacing of the lesson is consistent.	The lesson's structure is highly coherent, allowing for reflection and closure as appropriate. Pacing of the lesson is appropriate for all students.

Figure B14. Instruction. Component 3c: Engaging Students in Learning.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Quality: Accurate, Substantive, Constructive, and Specific	Feedback is either not provided or is of uniformly poor quality	Feedback is inconsistent in quality: Some elements of high quality are present; others are not.	Feedback is consistently high quality.	Feedback is consistently high quality. Provision is made for students to use feedback in their learning.
Timeliness	Feedback is not provided in a timely manner.	Timeliness of feedback is inconsistent.	Feedback is consistently provided in a timely manner.	Feedback is consistently provided in a timely manner. Students make prompt use of the feedback in their learning.

Figure B15. Instruction. Component 3d: Providing Feedback to Students.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Learning Adjustments	Teacher adheres rigidly to an instructional plan, even when a change will clearly improve a lesson.	Teacher attempts to adjust a lesson with mixed results.	Teacher makes a minor adjustment to a lesson, and the adjustment occurs smoothly.	Teacher successfully makes a major adjustment to a lesson.
Response to Students	Teacher ignores or brushes aside students' questions or interests.	Teacher attempts to accommodate students' questions or interests. The effects on the coherence of a lesson are uneven.	Teacher successfully accommodates students' questions or interests.	Teacher seizes a major opportunity to enhance learning, building on a spontaneous even.
Persistence	When a student has difficulty learning, the teacher either gives up or blames the student or the environment for the student's lack of success.	Teacher accepts full responsibility for the success of all students but has only a limited repertoire of instructional strategies to use.	Teacher persists in seeking approaches for students who have difficulty learning, possessing a moderate repertoire of strategies.	Teacher persists in seeking effective approaches for students who need help, using an extensive repertoire of strategies and soliciting additional resources from the school.

Figure B16. Instruction. Component 3e: Demonstrating Flexibility and Responsiveness.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Accuracy	Teacher does not know if a lesson was effective or achieved its goals, or profoundly misjudges the success of a lesson.	Teacher has a generally accurate impression of a lesson's effectiveness and the extent to which instructional goals were met.	Teacher makes an accurate assessment of a lesson's effectiveness and the extent to which it achieved its goals and can cite general references to support the judgment.	Teacher makes a thoughtful and accurate assessment of a lesson's effectiveness and the extent to which it achieved its goals, citing many specific examples from the lesson and weighing the relative strength of each.
Use in future Teaching	Teacher has no suggestion for how a lesson may be improved another time.	Teacher makes general suggestions about how a lesson may be improved.	Teacher makes a few specific suggestions of what he may try another time.	Drawing on an extensive repertoire of skills, the teacher offers specific alternative actions, complete with probable successes of different approaches.

Figure B17. Professional Responsibilities. Component 4a: Reflecting on Teaching.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Student Completion of Assignments	Teacher's system for maintaining information on student completion of assignments is in disarray.	Teacher's system for maintaining information on student completion of assignments is rudimentary and only partially effective.	Teacher's system for maintaining information on student completion of assignments is fully effective.	Teacher's system for maintaining information on student completion of assignments is fully effective. Students participation the maintenance of records.
	Teacher has no system for maintaining information on student progress in learning, or the system is in disarray.	Teacher has no system for maintaining information on student progress in learning is rudimentary and partially effective.	Teacher has no system for maintaining information on student progress in learning is effective.	Teacher has no system for maintaining information on student progress in learning is fully effective, and students contribute to its maintenance.
Non-instructional Records	Teacher's records for noninstructional activities are in disarray, resulting in errors and confusion.	Teacher's records for noninstructional activities are adequate, but they require frequent monitoring to avoid error.	Teacher's system for maintaining information on noninstructional activities is fully effective.	Teacher's system for maintaining information on noninstructional activities is highly effective, and students contribute to its maintenance.

Figure B18. Professional Responsibilities. Component 4b: Maintaining Accurate Records.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Information About the Instructional Program	Teacher provides little information about the instructional program to families.	Teacher participates in the school's activities for parent communication but offers little additional information.	Teacher provides frequent information to parents, as appropriate, about the instructional program.	Teacher provides frequent information to parents, as appropriate, about the instructional program. Students participate in preparing materials for their families.
Information About Individual Students	Teacher provides minimal information to parents and does not respond or responds insensitively to parent concerns about students.	Teacher adheres to the school's required procedures for communicating to parents. Responses to parent concerns are minimal.	Teacher communicates with parents about students' progress on a regular basis and is available as needed to respond to parent concerns.	Teacher provides information to parents frequently on both positive and negative aspects of student progress. Response to parent concerns is handled with great sensitivity.
Engagement of Families in the Instructional Program	Teacher makes no attempt to engage families in the instructional program, or such attempts are inappropriate.	Teacher makes modest and inconsistently successful attempts to engage families in the instructional program.	Teacher's efforts to engage families in the instructional program are frequent and successful.	Teacher efforts to engage families in the instructional program are frequent and successful. Students contribute ideas for projects that will be enhanced by family participation.

Figure B19. Professional Responsibilities. Component 4c: Communicating with Families.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Relationships with Colleagues	Teacher's relationships with colleagues are negative or self-serving.	Teacher maintains cordial relationships with colleagues to fulfill the duties that the school or district requires.	Support and cooperation characterize relationships with colleagues.	Support and cooperation characterize relationships with colleagues. Teacher takes initiative in assuming leadership among the faculty.
Service to the School	Teacher avoids becoming involved in school events.	Teacher participates in school events when specifically asked.	Teacher volunteers to participate in school events, making a substantial contribution.	Teacher volunteers to participate in school events, making a substantial contribution and assumes a leadership role in at least some aspect of school life.
Participation in School and District Projects	Teacher avoids becoming involved in school and district projects.	Teacher participates in school and district projects when specifically asked.	Teacher volunteers to participate in school and district projects, making a substantial contribution.	Teacher volunteers to participate in school and district projects, making a substantial contribution, and assumes a leadership role in a major school or district project.

Figure B20. Professional Responsibilities. Component 4d: Contributing to the School and District.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Enhancement of Content Knowledge and Pedagogical Skill	Teacher engages in no professional development activities to enhance knowledge or skill.	Teacher participates in professional activities to a limited extent when they are convenient.	Teacher seeks out opportunities for professional development to enhance content knowledge and pedagogical skill.	Teacher seeks out opportunities for professional development and makes a systematic attempt to conduct action research in this classroom.
Service to the Profession	Teacher makes no effort to share knowledge with others or to assume professional responsibilities.	Teacher finds limited ways to contribute to the profession.	Teacher participates actively in assisting other educators.	Teacher initiates important activities to contribute to the profession, such as mentoring new teachers, writing articles for publication, and making presentations.

Figure B21. Professional Responsibilities. Component 4e: Growing and Developing Professionally.

ELEMENT	LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE			
	Unsatisfactory	Basic	Proficient	Distinguished
Service to Students	Teacher is not alert to students' needs.	Teacher's attempts to serve students are inconsistent.	Teacher is moderately active in serving students.	Teacher is highly proactive in serving students, seeking out resources when necessary.
Advocacy	Teacher contributes to school practices that result in some students being ill served by the school.	Teacher does not knowingly contribute to some students being ill served by the school.	Teacher works within the context of a particular team or department to ensure that all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed.	Teacher makes a particular effort to challenge negative attitudes and helps ensure that all students, particularly those traditionally underserved, are honored in the school.
Decision Making	Teacher makes decisions based on self-serving interests.	Teacher's decisions are based on limited though genuinely professional considerations.	Teacher maintains an open mind and participates in team or departmental decision making.	Teacher takes a leadership role in team or departmental decision making and helps ensure that such decisions are based on the highest professional standards.

Figure B22. Professional Responsibilities. Component 4f: Showing Professionalism.

APPENDIX C

Table 1

PBS and Non-PBS Schools Faculty and Principal's Perceptions of Teacher Professional Practices

Variables	PBS			Non-PBS		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Knowledge of Teaching						
Understand relationships among topics and concepts	89	3.75	.049	75	3.52	.064
Teaching reflect research on best practices	88	3.32	.068	74	3.67	.058
Make connections between content and other disciplines	89	3.41	.062	74	3.45	.069
Knowledge of Students						
Understanding the need for different learning approaches	91	3.71	.055	74	3.67	.066
Understand developmental characteristics of age	91	3.64	.058	74	3.50	.067
Planning displays knowledge of each students skills	88	3.38	.067	74	3.36	.075
Display knowledge of each student cultural interest	90	3.06	.084	74	3.08	.093
Selecting Instructional Goals						
Goals are suitable for most students	90	3.56	.066	75	3.45	.069
Goals are valuable to expectations and understanding	89	3.56	.064	74	3.49	.070
Goals permit practical methods of assessment	89	3.51	.068	74	3.64	.088
Goals reflect several types of learning	89	3.47	.076	75	3.47	.077
Knowledge of Resources						
Understand how to gain access to available resources	87	3.26	.070	74	3.36	.073
Demonstrate awareness of all available resources	89	3.20	.070	74	3.33	.072
Designing Sound Instruction						
Learning activities are suitable to students	89	3.56	.060	73	3.54	.064
Lesson structure organized around the activity	89	3.56	.070	73	3.56	.075
Instructional materials that engages students in learning	89	3.45	.068	73	3.58	.069
Instructional groups that support instructional goals	89	3.32	.071	73	3.36	.090
Assess Student Learning						
Assessment criteria are clear	88	3.51	.067	74	3.62	.062
Assessment approach corresponds with each goal	88	3.46	.067		3.54	.067
Assessment results are used to plan for all students	87	3.32	.080	74	3.43	.077
View Respect and Rapport						
Teacher-student interactions are friendly	90	3.71	.048	73	3.83	.047
Students exhibit respect for the teacher	91	3.48	.062	73	3.61	.066
Students interactions are respectful towards one another	90	3.29	.068	72	3.34	.084
Culture of Learning						
Teacher conveys genuine enthusiasm for the subject	89	3.78	.046	74	3.79	.083
Classroom environment conveys high expectations for student achievement	88	3.56	.070	74	3.60	.060
Students demonstrate pride in their work	89	3.03	.069	74	3.12	.079

Table 1 (continued)

Variables	PBS			Non-PBS		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Manage Classroom Procedures						
Organize task to engage all students at all times	88	3.57	.057	74	3.63	0.63
Handling of materials and supplies occur with little loss of instructional time	89	3.48	.060	74	3.56	.061
Transitions are smooth with little loss of instructional time	89	3.42	.064	75	3.51	.061
Systems for performing non-instructional duties are in place to prevent little loss of instructional time	89	3.41	.069	73	3.46	.067
Manage Student Behavior						
Standards of student conduct are clear to all students	90	3.79	.043	74	3.85	.045
Alert to student behavior at all times	90	3.76	.045	74	3.79	.047
Response to misbehavior respects student's dignity	90	3.68	.052	74	3.71	.068
Organize Physical Space						
The classroom is safe	88	3.82	.052	74	3.79	.060
All learning is equally assessable to all students	89	3.71	.060	74	3.78	.051
Furniture arrangement is a resource for learning activities	88	3.45	.076	74	3.59	.081
Display skillful use of physical space	88	3.44	.075	74	3.54	.079
Communicate Clearly and Accurately						
Directions contain appropriate level of detail	89	3.71	.048	72	3.70	.053
Spoken and written language is appropriate to all students' age and interest	89	3.68	.049	73	3.60	.060
Questioning and Discussion Techniques						
Provide adequate time for students to respond	90	3.62	.059	74	3.71	.070
Classroom interaction represents true discussion	89	3.27	.062	74	3.25	.086
All students are engaged in the discussions	88	3.01	.069	72	2.93	.089
Engage Students in the Learning						
Activities and assignments are appropriate to students	89	3.66	.055	74	3.68	.060
Instructional resources and materials are suitable to the instructional goals	89	3.56	.064	74	3.64	.059
Pacing of the lesson is consistent	89	3.47	.072	74	3.51	.070
Instructional groups are appropriate to all students	89	3.45	.067	74	3.43	.072
Content is appropriate with students' knowledge and experience	89	3.44	.062	74	3.56	.069
Provide Feedback to Students						
Feedback is consistently high quality	86	3.28	.070	73	3.48	.073
Feedback is consistently provided in a timely manner	86	3.27	.071	72	3.44	.076
Demonstrate Flexibility and Responsiveness						
Successfully accommodates students' questions and interests	89	3.62	.057	73	3.57	.061
Minor adjustments occur smoothly	89	3.60	.055	73	3.65	.059
Seek approaches for students who have difficulty learning	89	3.55	.060	73	3.52	.075

Table 1 (continued)

Variables	PBS			PBS		
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Demonstrate Reflection on Teaching						
Make a few suggestions for future alternative actions	88	3.54	.063	72	3.51	.070
Accurately assesses a lesson to verify goal achievements	89	3.40	.066	72	3.70	.056
Maintain Accurate Records						
System for maintaining information on student assignment completion is effective	89	3.59	.055	74	3.70	.056
System for maintaining information on student progress in learning is effective	88	3.54	.063	74	3.51	.070
System for maintaining information on non-instructional activities is effective	89	3.18	.080	74	3.16	.096
Communicate with Families						
Provide frequent and appropriate information to parents	88	3.38	.068	74	3.35	.077
Communicate students' progress to parents on a regular basis	89	3.33	.069	74	3.39	.087
Efforts to engage families in the instructional process are frequent and successful	88	2.97	.077	74	3.16	.096
Contribute to the School District						
Cooperation and support characterize relationships with colleagues	90	3.62	.065	74	3.51	.079
Volunteer to participate in school events	89	3.18	.093	73	2.79	.010
Volunteer to participate in school and district projects	91	3.02	.102	74	2.55	.115
Grow and Develop Professionally						
Seek opportunities for professional development to enhance teaching and knowledge	89	3.48	.071	74	3.52	.069
Participate actively in assisting other educators	88	3.44	.076	74	3.55	.074
Display Professionalism						
Active in serving students	89	3.77	.053	75	3.82	.044
Maintain an open mind during departmental decision making	89	3.73	.052	74	3.70	.068
Work with others to ensure all students receive a fair opportunity to succeed	89	3.70	.049	75	3.70	.068

