Teacher Support of Student Autonomy in Comprehensive School Reform Classrooms

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Background/Context: *Research in the self-determination theoretical (SDT) tradition indicates that teachers' autonomy-supportive behaviors result in students' greater perceived academic competence, better academic performance, and increased achievement. This study describes autonomy-supportive teacher behaviors in schools participating in Comprehensive School Reform (CSR).*

Research Question: *In a 2006 pilot study to determine if autonomous opportunities occurred in CSR classroom contexts, Bozack, McCaslin, and Good identified the presence or absence of autonomy-supporting teaching in their written narratives of classroom practices. The current study moves that pilot research forward by asking, Are autonomy-supportive teaching practices present? And if so, what is the nature of the teacher-student interactions in these classrooms?*

Population: *The sample consisted of 696 intervals of field notes from 106 classroom observations in five CSR schools in Grades 3, 4, and 5.*

Research Design: *Comprehensive School Reform Classroom Observation System (CSRCOS) observation field notes were analyzed using the Autonomy Supportive Behavior Instrument (ASBI). The scale was developed based on previous SDT research suggestions about how teachers can foster autonomy in the classroom.*

Conclusions: *Results indicated that all eight teaching practices suggested by SDT were present in our field notes; however, their frequency and form varied considerably from SDT expectations. Students had many opportunities to manipulate objects, but in half of the*

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codes, we found that students were using the same objects for the same tasks in the same way, suggesting that there was little opportunity for students to choose how they wanted to work with objects. Students had many opportunities to talk. Teachers prompted and guided student learning most of the time, yet rarely helped students to relate ideas and concepts from one topic to another or from one lesson to another. Opportunities for student choice were infrequent, and when our field notes included verbal exchange, we found that teachers consistently responded to student questions and student-initiated dialogue. We rarely identified explicit instances of encouragement or teachers engaging the experiences, expertise, or perspective of students.

Elsewhere in this special issue, Wiley, Good, and McCaslin (2008) present the results of observations of practices in the Comprehensive School Reform (CSR) classrooms we studied, organized by instructional opportunity, student activity, and teacher-student relationships across two semesters within a school year. In part, their findings indicated few opportunities for students to make social or academic choices in CSR classrooms (see also McCaslin et al., 2006). This was troubling because choice opportunities are important for the development of personal responsibility, a precursor to self-regulation (McCombs, 2001) and the development of autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1987). Wiley et al. conceptualized choice as an exemplar of instructional opportunity; in this article, we explore other classroom practices that may promote student responsibility and autonomy. Specifically, we apply self-determination theory (SDT) to field note data to capture teacher-student relationships and consider their potential to support and promote student autonomy.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

SDT AND THE PROMOTION OF AUTONOMY

SDT defines autonomy as the "psychological need to experience one's behavior as emanating from or endorsed by the self rather than being initiated by forces or events that feel alien or with which they do not identify" (Reeve, Deci, & Ryan, 2004, p. 34). SDT asserts first that the psychological structures of autonomy, competence, and relatedness determine the extent to which actions are intrinsically motivated and self-regulated (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1987; Reeve, et al., 2004). Second, behaviors that are autonomous are (1) perceived to have an internal locus of causality (perceived to be caused by factors internal to the person; DeCharms, 1968), (2) experienced as volitional, and (3) executed based on personal interest and importance (Black & Deci, 2000). In contrast, controlling

behaviors are (1) perceived to have an external locus of causality (perceived to be caused by factors outside the person) and (2) performed because of the pressures of external demands. SDT allows that behaviors vary in the extent to which they are internally or externally motivated; however, the assumption is that only when a behavior has been completely internalized will a person perceive his or her behavior as autonomous (Deci & Ryan, 1991).

Previous research indicates that classroom environments that support student autonomy have several benefits for academic development. Students are more likely to show greater perceived academic competence (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981), a preference for optimal challenge (Shapira, 1976), better academic performance (Boggiano, Flink, Shields, Seelbach, & Barrett, 1993; DeCharms, 1976), increased achievement levels (DeCharms, 1976) and self-regulation, and positive coping behaviors (Turner, Meyer, Midgley, & Patrick, 2003). SDT explains these benefits as the result of self-determined motivation in students that occurs when teachers provide autonomy support (Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999).

SDT research also has found that autonomy-supportive teachers are more likely to listen to students, allow students to manipulate instructional materials, ask for student opinions, respond to student-generated dialogue, and take students' emotional perspectives (Reeve et al., 2004; Reeve & Jang, 2006). The amounts of student choice and positive feedback, in particular, have been shown to increase student perceptions of self-control (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991).

ELABORATIONS ON CHOICE OPPORTUNITIES

Recent research suggests that the practical application of autonomy support in classrooms has been too narrowly defined. Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio, and Turner (2004) described this dilemma in the following way:

> When translated into teaching practices, it seems that autonomy support has become synonymous merely with choice. Worse yet, in practice, meaningless choice is often embraced while opportunities for academically significant choice are limited. For example, autonomy support is most often embodied in the classroom through offers for students to negotiate assignments regarding organization or procedure . . . although theory embraces the importance of self-determination, the recommendations for implementing autonomy support seem to invariably

> resort to surface types of strategies, such as the choice of a partner with whom to work. (p. 100)

Similarly, Assor, Kaplan, and Roth (2002) contend that

> The teacher who provides choice, avoids intrusion or tolerates criticism may intend to create a space that allows students to realize their personal goals and interests. However, it appears that many students do not feel that this open space contributes to their autonomy because they do not see any connection between any kind of schoolwork and their personal goals and interests . . . the essence of autonomy enhancement is not minimization of the educator's presence, but making the educator's presence useful for the student who strives to formulate and realize personal goals and interests. (p. 273)

Stefanou et al. examined student autonomy in terms of organizational, procedural, and cognitive support. Assor et al. examined the importance of perceived relevance in enhancing perceived autonomy. Both research programs highlight the need for researchers to conceptualize autonomy as more than choice alone.

ELABORATIONS ON SOCIAL BELONGING

The relatedness component of self-determination theory is the interconnection between the learning environment, interpersonal relationships, and community culture in the classroom. It is through participation in the classroom—as individuals and as social beings—that students begin to learn their roles within the classroom community (Rogoff, 1994). A sense of community is created through teacher-student relationships and peer relationships and through the formal and informal curricula (McCaslin & Good, 1996) that define the structure of the community within and across school years.

The community culture of a classroom, which includes both social and academic peer interactions, is highly dependent on teacher leadership. For example, a teacher might tell students that they need to ask questions when they are confused, but if students who then ask questions are chastised for not paying attention or are simply given the same already unhelpful explanation, students may learn that question-asking elicits unintended negative consequences. Alternately, classrooms in which teachers model respectful interactions, focus on the success of every student, and engage students in help-giving and help-seeking behaviors, can

provide the safety net that students need to engage in autonomous, self-regulated behaviors. It is within these exchanges that students learn the informal, implicit, or "hidden" curriculum of education (McCaslin & Good, 1996) and develop beliefs about what it means to be a learner in a social context.

Students experience multiple classroom contexts, and the implications of these differences are not straightforward. For example, Midgley, Feldlaufer, and Eccles (1989) studied the motivation to learn math among students transitioning from elementary school to junior high. They found that transitioning students with elementary teachers whom they believed to be "low" in support moved to junior high teachers whom they believed to be "high" in support showed an increase in the perceived intrinsic value and usefulness of math. In contrast, students who moved from an elementary teacher they believed to be highly supportive to a junior high teacher they believed to be unsupportive or less supportive showed a sharp decrease in the perceived intrinsic value and usefulness of math. Other researchers have reported similar findings (Fraser & Fisher, 1982; Hartmut, 1978; Hawkins & Berndt, 1988). In sum, the literature suggests that student autonomy does not exist in isolation, but is a component of the relationship between self and classroom contexts.

In a pilot study to determine if autonomous opportunities occurred in CSR classroom contexts, Bozack, McCaslin, and Good (2006) identified the presence or absence of autonomy-supporting teaching in their written narratives of classroom practices. They found that roughly 70% of the narratives they wrote based on classroom observation contained no evidence of teaching practices that contribute to student autonomy as SDT suggests. The current study moves that pilot research forward by asking, Are autonomy-supportive teaching practices present? And if so, what is the *nature* of the teacher-student interactions in these classrooms?

METHOD

Data for this study were collected from five elementary schools that were a subset of our larger CSR sample. Data were collected in Grades 3, 4, and 5 during the fall and spring of the 2003–2004 school year. The Comprehensive School Reform Classroom Observation System (CSRCOS; see Wiley et al., 2008) was the observation system used in these observations; however, it was not designed to capture teacher behaviors that could affect student autonomy. CSRCOS procedures did call for taking field notes that were written for 5 minutes during each 10-minute coding cycle. Observers watched and recorded classroom events for 5 minutes, followed by a 2-minute rest and 3 minutes of CSRCOS checklist

completion. This process was repeated throughout the observation, and the number of intervals (2–12) was dependent on the activity and the amount of time the observer was able to spend in one classroom. These field notes comprise the data for this analysis.

The field notes, evaluated with a coding system described next, were conceptualized as a way to develop a more complete picture of classroom life that might enhance the checklist and rating scale approaches of the CSRCOS. There were no restrictions on how observers wrote their notes; rather, recorded information consisted of events salient to the observer, which presents analysis challenges. Field notes from each of the observers tended to follow slightly different formats. An example of a typical field note interval is provided here:

> Start/End time: 8:35/8:40
> Primary setting: Whole class
> Primary activity: Math
>
> Students are sitting in a big circle in their chairs.
> Teacher is handing papers back to students. She says she didn't mark them because she thinks some students might have had some problems with them.
> A student asks to get a drink of water. Another student asks if they can mark it themselves. Teacher says yes to both.
> Teacher has a warm manner about her.
> Teacher asks class: "Who remembers what a polygon is?" (They talked about it yesterday.)
> A student says, "It has straight lines."
> Teacher: "What else?" Students raise their hands and the teacher calls on them.
> Teacher: "If it has six points, how many sides does it have?"
> Student: "Six."
> Teacher: "What if it has three points? How many sides?" Students raise hands and answer.
> The teacher reviews in summary what the characteristics of a polygon are. Students are quiet and attentive.

The lack of uniform writing, in conjunction with the fact that the CSRCOS was not designed to capture autonomy-supporting teaching practices, created the need to design a coding system to identify and record indicators of autonomy in CSR classrooms.

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

Reeve et al. (2004) identified eight ways in which teachers can foster a sense of autonomy in the classroom: (1) listening carefully, (2) creating opportunities for students to work in their own way, (3) creating opportunities for students to talk, (4) arranging learning materials and seating patterns so that students manipulate objects rather than passively watch and listen, (5) offering encouragement when students show effort and persistence, (6) giving hints and praising mastery and progress, (7) replying to student-generated questions in a contingent, satisfying way, and (8) acknowledging students' perspectives. These characteristics were the foundation for instrument development.

The Autonomy Supportive Behavior Instrument (ASBI) used in the present study evolved from the Bozack et al. (2006) pilot study in which the presence and absence of autonomy characteristics were recorded from field notes. In the ASBI, codes were reworded from a presence-absence characteristic format into a question-answer format to create a more detailed picture of teachers' autonomy-supportive behavior in the classroom (see Table 1). Response options were developed based on the themes that emerged from the field notes during instrument develop-

Table 1. Specific autonomy-supportive behaviors

*Self-Determination Theory	ASBI Questions
Listening carefully; replying to student-generated questions in a contingent, satisfying way	How does the teacher respond to student-initiated questions or dialogue?
Creating opportunities for students to work in their own ways	What choice opportunities does the teacher provide?
Creating opportunities for students to talk	What kinds of opportunities does the teacher provide for student talk?
Arranging learning materials so students manipulate objects rather than passively watch and listen	How does the teacher allow students to manipulate objects?
Offering encouragement when students show effort & persistence	What kind of encouragement is offered around learning?
Giving hints & praising mastery and progress	How does the teacher engage students during the process of learning?
Acknowledging students' perspectives	How does the teacher make information relevant to students?

* "Self-Determination Theory: A Dialectical Framework for Understanding Sociocultural Influences on Student Motivation," by J. M. Reeve, E. L. Deci, & R. M. Ryan, 2004, in *Big Theories Revisited*, D. M. McInerney & S. Van Etten (Eds.), pp. 31–60. Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
Note: ASBI = Autonomy Supportive Behavior Instrument.

ment. For example, the characteristic "Teacher responds to student-initiated dialogue or questions" with a presence-absence response option was changed to "How does the teacher respond to student-initiated dialogue or questions?" Coding response options were: 0 = *can't tell from the narrative*; 1 = *teacher dismisses dialogue or questions*; 2 = *teacher ignores student dialogue or questions*; 3 = *teacher acknowledges and answers dialogue or questions*; and 4 = *teacher elaborates or expands on a question or comment.*

In addition to the eight characteristics proposed by Reeve et al. (2004), we included four descriptive items that would help us better identify the classroom contexts in which autonomy-supportive behaviors may or may not exist. Three items reflected safety and feelings of belonging: (1) What are the classroom dynamics around helping behavior? (2) What information about the teacher-student relationship does the narrative convey? (3) What information about student-student relationships does the narrative convey? The three safety and belonging items were added to identify the teacher's ability to foster a safe and personally meaningful learning environment for students. The fourth item, What information does the narrative convey about the teacher's use of classroom management? emerged from reading the field notes. Adding this item allowed coders to account for information that was present in the field notes but not necessarily captured with the CSRCOS (see the appendix for the ASBI). Together, these four items helped us contextualize the social context of the classrooms. We were able to identify instances of students helping each other with work (or not), witty exchanges between the teacher and students, moments of frustration, and the revelation of personal information.

INTERRATER AGREEMENT

Once the structure of the instrument was identified, an initial coding manual was created to outline the coding process. The instrument and manual were refined over several months using field notes collected from a previous semester. Coders scored field notes independently, and any discrepancies with the coding system were discussed and resolved. When necessary, item descriptions, responses, and coding rules were revised. Once a final version of the instrument was completed, interrater agreement was established using two sets of classroom narratives that were coded for a total of 20 intervals. Scoring was done independently, and any conceptual discrepancies were resolved.

Final overall interrater agreement was 84%. Five items had 90% or more reliability (How does the teacher respond to student initiated dialogue or questions? What kinds of opportunities does the teacher provide

for student talk? How does the teacher evaluate student learning? How does the teacher evaluate student behavior? What information about student-student relationships does the narrative convey?). Two items displayed problematic interrater agreement coefficients: What kind of choice opportunities does the teacher provide? (67%) and How does the teacher allow students to manipulate objects? (58%).

Choice opportunities were difficult to code in part because of the lack of opportunities recorded, and the ambiguity of the opportunities when they were (i.e., lack of distinction between social and academic choice). Student opportunity to manipulate objects was difficult to code because, in adhering to SDT language, the code involved only the manipulation of physical objects and not the purpose for which objects were being used (e.g., counting blocks, reference books). Agreement was confounded further on this item because sometimes it was difficult to discern what was happening in the classroom from the field notes.

Because the authors felt that the difficulty in scoring these items lay beyond an improved coding system, an alternate solution to independent coding was used for these two items throughout the actual coding process. Namely, if a coder was unsure of which code to assign, the interval was noted and left unscored. Subsequently, coders met and dual-coded all items for which there was some difficulty or question. Dual codes had 100% interrater agreement.

SAMPLE

The sample consisted of 696 intervals of field notes from 106 classroom observations in five CSR schools in Grades 3, 4, and 5 (see Table 2).

Table 2. Five-school data subset

	Whole sample	3rd	4th	5th
Number of observations	106*	24	52	28
Number of coding intervals	696*	152	365	168

* Data from two observations were included in the whole sample but not in grade-level analyses because they included a mix of Grades 4–6.

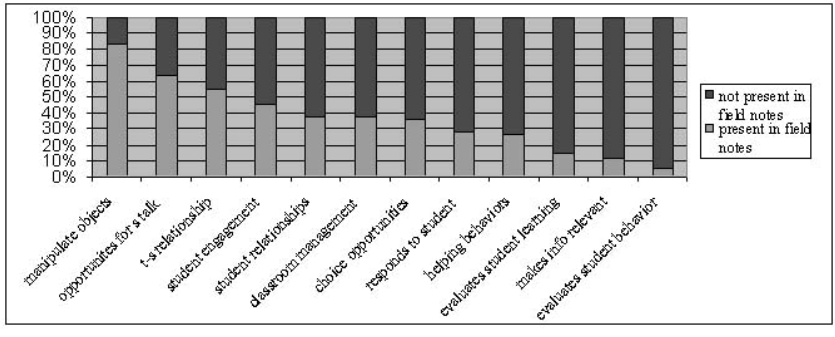
RESULTS

OPPORTUNITIES TO CODE

Information provided in each field note interval varied within and between observations, creating a "missing data" problem to which codes

could not be applied. Figure 1 shows the percentage of times we coded each individual variable. We suspect that frequency differences are not random; for example, it is probable that the frequency of the codes describing how students manipulate objects (84%) and the kinds of opportunities student have to talk (64%) were a function of observers trying to describe what was happening in the classroom (e.g., students read books to their partners). The use of other codes was potentially more selective and could have been a function of salience (e.g., was the teacher-student conversation close enough to hear and interesting enough to record?). As noted in Table 2, the number of field notes available to code also varied across grade levels. Our analyses suggest some variation relative to grade; however, these differences were relatively minor, with a few exceptions (e.g., type of opportunities for students to talk), and are not presented here.

Figure 1. Presence of Autonomy-Supportive Behaviors in Field Notes



AUTONOMY-SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIORS

Using data from all grades, we found that students had many opportunities to manipulate objects such as books, rulers, and pencils and paper. Only 10% of our codes indicated that the teacher presented while students sat passively listening. However, we believe that the context of how students use objects is as important as their use per se. In 50% of the codes, we found that students were using the same objects for the same tasks in the same way (e.g., following along in their reading book or doing the same worksheet). How students are allowed to manipulate objects is one indicator of academic choice. The frequency of students working in a uniform manner suggests that there was little opportunity for students to choose how they wanted to work with objects.

Students had many opportunities to talk. They were able to talk in the whole-class setting, by sharing a comment, asking a question, or answering a question in 62% of the codes. Opportunities for students to talk to each other either in partners or small groups, with either explicit direction to do so or through indications that this was acceptable behavior in the classroom, occurred in a quarter of the student-talk codes.

The self-determination literature combines "giving hints" and "praising mastery and progress" as one way that teachers can support student autonomy. We examined these characteristics by noting how teachers engaged students in the process of learning. We were able to code this item in 46% of the field notes, and when we did, we found that teachers prompted and guided student learning 96% of the time. They asked questions to engage students in the task (e.g., "Why did the character go back to help?") and helped students solve practice problems (e.g., "Now that you've carried the 3, what's next?"). Evidence of teachers helping students to relate ideas and concepts from one topic to another, or from one lesson to another, however, was only found in 2% of our codes. This may indicate that for students in CSR schools, learning is focused on the task at hand rather than situated within a broader context.

Opportunities for student choice were infrequent. In 75% of the field notes, students did not have a choice; classrooms were described as teacher centered, teacher directed, and teacher controlled. When choice *was* recorded, it was more often academic than social (59% and 41%, respectively). Academic choice was often contingent on completion of an assigned task; social choice frequently involved students' choice of social configuration for work (e.g., group, partner, alone) or help-seeking from a classmate. These findings are consistent with previous analyses based on the CSRCOS instrument (McCaslin et al., 2006; Wiley et al., 2008).

When our field notes included verbal exchange, we found that teachers consistently responded to student questions and student-initiated dialogue. However, teachers only took the opportunity to elaborate or expand on student questions or dialogue 7% of the time. It seems that if students asked, they would get their basic needs met; however, there was no evidence that teachers expanded the discussion in ways to validate the importance of question-asking in the first place or to encourage higher order thinking. It is unclear if this is because the student dialogue and questions did not merit further elaboration, or if teachers did not capitalize on the opportunity for other reasons, such as time constraints, curriculum requirements, or lack of understanding of how to do so constructively.

Opportunities to code encouragement occurred in only 15% of the notes. In most classrooms, however, teachers continually gave feedback to

students. We suspect that encouragement was so embedded in the fabric of classroom life in these schools that it was less salient in observation and for recording than were other events. When encouragement was recorded, 58% of the codes indicated specific encouragement that provided students with feedback about their learning. The remaining 36% concerned global encouragement that was more ambiguous and open to students' interpretation of what was good or on the right track.

Finally, we only identified teachers engaging the experiences, expertise, or perspective of students in 12% of the codes. When we did see it, the exchanges between the teacher and students were appropriate and meaningful. Observer comments about the teacher-student camaraderie and warmth of the class often appeared with these examples.

DISCUSSION

LIMITATIONS

There are at least three limitations to consider when interpreting results of this study. First, the sample was restricted to five schools engaged in comprehensive school reform. Although we did have a substantial number of observational intervals, it is possible that a larger variety of schools would affect the findings and their generalizability. Second, the variation in field notes, in part due to the instructions to "note the noteworthy" and in part due to observer narrative skill and persistence, restricts our confidence in comparing school or grade-level differences in students' exposure with autonomy-supportive behaviors. Third, our data are based on the observations and interpretations of outsiders—graduate students in educational psychology—that may have differed from the perceptions of teachers and among students. Despite these limitations, we feel that our findings are instructive and have useful implications for teachers and students in CSR schools.

IMPLICATIONS

Our data provided an alternate way to capture how teachers and students interacted in CSR classrooms. All eight teacher characteristics suggested by SDT were present in our field notes, although their prevalence and the nature in which they were evident differed. Our findings suggest that teachers in these settings could extend their autonomy-supporting behaviors by scaffolding relationships among concepts and ideas across lessons and subjects. When learning is focused only on the task at hand rather than on how the task also relates to broader constructs, students may miss

the opportunity to learn how to make connections. Without understanding how to relate concepts and ideas, students may also struggle or be unable to learn and engage in higher order thinking (Pogrow, 2005), a skill that is greatly valued in higher education and in the workforce.

Teachers could further extend their autonomy-supportive behaviors by not only responding to, but also elaborating on, the things their students say and by engaging students' own experiences, expertise, and perspectives in the learning process. To reiterate, we were unclear in our analyses as to whether such elaboration and engagement were unwarranted, or if teachers did not capitalize on the opportunity for other reasons, such as curriculum requirements or lack of understanding of how to do so constructively. It is important to know why this is normative behavior in these classrooms. Understanding the reasons for so little teacher elaboration of what students say or engagement of their knowledge would be helpful to determine if and how changes are feasible. We suspect that small changes, such as including student voices in discussion, could yield meaningful dividends. Our data showed that most classrooms provided opportunities for students to talk in front of the whole class, with partners, and in groups. Recent research has shown that the time teachers allow for students to talk contributes unique variance in explaining students' perceived autonomy (Reeve & Jang, 2006). Teachers could build on the already existing social interactions that they afford students by encouraging students to build connections together, to help each other, and to use the experiences and expertise that each other brings into the classroom.

Previous research has indicated that choice opportunities play an important role in contributing to a sense of student autonomy. Wiley et al. (2008), using the CSRCOS instrument, found very few academic or social choices for students; our field notes further support those findings. Researchers such as Stefanou et al. (2004) and Assor et al. (2002) have encouraged educators to look beyond choice to develop student autonomy; however, our findings suggest that we should not dismiss its importance. Small increases in the opportunity to make, learn how to make, and follow through on choices may have a considerable impact on students' perceptions of themselves as autonomous individuals and learners, particularly in the context of CSR classrooms.

Finally, these data, like those reported by Wiley et al. (2008), suggest that students in CSR classrooms are encouraged to do assigned work, and teachers actively support them as they complete academic tasks. However, students do not have opportunities that might help them to become more reflective about what they learn and why they learn, and how their learning relates to what they already know, which may be a precursor to

autonomy. Opportunities for student reflection seem a promising start to enhancing student desire for, and sense of, autonomy.

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APPENDIX

AUTONOMY-SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIOR-INSTRUMENT (ASBI)

How does the teacher respond to student-initiated dialogue or questions?

Can't tell from narrative
Dismisses dialogue or questions
Ignores dialogue or questions
Acknowledges dialogue or questions
Elaborates or expands on a question or comment

What choice opportunities does the teacher provide?

Can't tell from narrative
Teacher does not provide opportunities for students to make academic or social choices (teacher makes all the decisions)
Teacher provides opportunities for students to work in their own ways socially
Teacher provides opportunities for students to work in their own ways academically

What are the classroom dynamics around helping behavior?

Can't tell from narrative
Students ask for help but don't get it
Help is offered
Students ask for help
Students ask for help and get it

What kinds of opportunities does the teacher provide for student talk?

Can't tell from narrative
Teacher actively discourages talking
Students have the opportunity to talk to the whole class (class discussion, answering teacher questions)
Students have the opportunity to talk to each other (partners, groups)

How does the teacher allow students to manipulate objects?

Can't tell from narrative
Teacher holds/uses materials
Students use the same object for the same task in the same way (e.g., reading lesson)
Students use different objects for the same task
Students use the same objects for different tasks (e.g., whiteboards)
Students use different objects for different tasks (e.g., centers)

How does the teacher evaluate students' learning?

Can't tell from narrative
Global encouragement
Specific encouragement

How does the teacher evaluate students' behavior?

Can't tell from narrative
Global encouragement
Specific encouragement

How does the teacher engage students during the process of learning?

Can't tell from narrative
Teacher's sanctions prevent student participation in learning (e.g., sends student out of the room, does not allow participation)
Teacher corrects students without explanation
Teacher prompts and guides students in learning
Teacher asks students to relate concepts and ideas

How does the teacher make information relevant to students?

Can't tell from narrative
Teacher does not engage students' experiences/expertise/perspectives
Teacher relates material to students' experiences/expertise/perspectives

What information about the teacher-student relationship does the narrative convey?

Can't tell from narrative
Teacher sarcasm and ridicule are present
There is evidence of teacher-student conflict
There is a sense of teacher-student camaraderie
Teacher creates a sense of belongingness and safety
The classroom is a fun place for the teacher to be

What information about student-student relationships does the narrative convey?

Can't tell from narrative
Students direct sarcasm and ridicule toward each other
There is evidence of student-student conflict
There is a sense of student-student camaraderie
Students contribute to a sense of belongingness and safety
The classroom is a fun place for students to be

What information does the narrative convey about the teacher's use of classroom management techniques?

Can't tell from narrative
Reactive/ineffective—management is used unsuccessfully
Reactive/effective—management is used successfully
Proactive—no management needed

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