THESIS

TEACHER-STUDENT RAPPORT IN THE SECONDARY INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC ENSEMBLE: EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND TEACHER DISPOSITION STANDARDS

Submitted by

Sebastian Phillip Adams

Department of Music, Theatre and Dance

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Master's Committee:

Advisor: Erik Johnson
Co-Advisor: Rebecca Phillips

Heidi Frederiksen
Abigail Shupe

ABSTRACT

TEACHER-STUDENT RAPPORT IN THE SECONDARY INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC ENSEMBLE: EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND TEACHER DISPOSITION STANDARDS

Critical topics of teaching music continue to undergo philosophical evolution as unique concepts and perspectives are introduced by a variety of experts both in and out of the field. One concern among many is the role of the secondary music educator in the ideal classroom for student learning, part of which is impacted by teacher-student rapport. Teacher-student rapport is defined in this paper by the author as an adaptation of the general definition of rapport by Carey et al. (1986a): the quality of relationship between teacher and student that is characterized by communication and mutual, emotional understanding. The following questions were explored through content analysis of an education practitioner journal as well as literary analysis: how are teacher-student rapport-building strategies informed by the behaviorist, cognitivist, constructivist, and humanist schools of psychology; how can the information garnered from a literary analysis guide the transformation of teacher disposition policy; what are best practice techniques for teachers to build rapport in the secondary instrumental ensemble as implied by the data? It is with the data and discussion of this study that the author hopes to support teachers' positive rapport-building efforts with students in the secondary instrumental classroom through the avenues of immediate classroom application, and policy transformation.

Data reveals that articles in the *Journal of Educational Psychology* examining positive rapport-building elements most comprehensively cite principles of the constructivist school, and

the top three cited psychologists are Albert Bandura, Abraham Maslow, and Jean Piaget. Recommendations for teacher disposition policy transformation are suggested to help preservice teachers cultivate positive rapport-building practice, and they include standards for promoting socio-cultural investment, positive expression, student discourse recognition, reflective practice, empathy, and effective communication. Examples of potential applications in the secondary instrumental music classroom include, but are not limited to, engaging in students' referential (Reimer, 2010) connections to rehearsed repertoire and permitting exploration of expressive interpretation of said connections; consistently raising standards of musicianship and community in response to achievement through promotion of reflective processes and demonstrations of exemplary performance; recognizing and utilizing students' abilities to think critically and abstractly about the expression and artistic merit of class repertoire. Other implications of best practice are refined from Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy, Maslow's (1943 & 1971) hierarchy of needs, and Piaget's (1952) schema and genetic epistemology theories. Finally, potential operations in chamber music are presented in relation to constructivist principles.

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THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC TEACHER

Observed in today's secondary instrumental music classroom is a variety of demeanors assumed by its teachers. Johnson (2013) presented a historical review of the American concert band conductor role as a five-step, chronological transformation: "professional showman, competitive disciplinarian, artist conductor, teacher-conductor, and servant leader" (p. 4), the philosophies of which respectively described as audience-dazzling, domineering and regimented, committed to music's intrinsic value and performance craft, music comprehensive-focused, and ensemble member-inspiring. Such a transformation represents a general shift in the philosophical climate of directing concert band in the United States; however, an array of the five approaches and hybrids of two or more are presently adopted by teachers in the secondary music classroom (Johnson, 2013; Lancaster, 2017; Reimer, 2010). Researchers connected some of the aforementioned roles and philosophies or similar teacher characteristics to the teacher-centered vs. student-centered paradigm (Bazan, 2011; Kelley, 2009; Royston, 2017), stating that the teacher-centered approach is notably prominent.

Educators promoting a teacher-centered environment in the music classroom predominantly provide the content and instruction to be absorbed by the students (Banzan, 2007; Russell, 2006) while personifying the *expert* role. Other elements of a teacher-centered music classroom include conductor/podium focal point, ensemble performance perfection, majority feedback from teacher, emphasis on discipline, and uniform student behavior. Shively (2008 & 2004), Freer (2006), and others explained that certain elements of the teacher-centered approach used in today's secondary instrumental classrooms can negatively impact the relationship between teacher and student. Esquivel (1995) commented on the link between student

experiences in the artistic classroom and their relationship with their teacher, “Teachers may play a significant role in fostering the development of creative abilities in all students through their philosophical outlook and attitudes...and their relationships and behavioral interaction with students.” (p. 198).

Teacher-Student Relationship

Humans learn and operate through relationships. Leaders in educational psychology, such as Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky (Johnson, 2013), Albert Bandura, (Bandura, 1977), John Dewey and Jerome Bruner (Fedyszyn, 2014), Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers (Noddings, 2006), have explored and supported the concept of learning through social interaction. A broad array of researchers have found that the relationship between teacher and student in the classroom has a profound impact on student learning in scholastic contexts (Anderson, 1979; Bernieri, 1988; Brooks et al., 2008; Broom, 2016; Catt, Miller, & Schallenkamp, 2007; Konishi et al., 2010; Cornelius-White, 2007; Estepp, 2012; Frisby & Martin, 2010; Frymier, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Hargreaves, 1998; LaFrance & Marianne, 1979; Lammers & Gillaspy Jr., 2013; Nguyen, 2007; Noddings, 2006 & 2012; Mabin, 2016; Perkins et al., 1995; Rabin, 2008; Rosenthal, 1987; Ryans 1961; Webb & Barrett, 2014; Wentzel, 2009; Wetzel, 1998; Wilson, Ryan, & Pugh, 2010; Wilson & Ryan, 2013; Wittler, 2002). Such conclusions are also drawn specifically in music education (Busch, 2013; Davis, 2008; Fedyszyn, 2014; Goff, 2016; Holsberg, 2010; Lalama, 2014; Royston, 2017; Scruggs, 2008). Outcomes that are impacted by teacher-student relationship include academic achievement (Cornelius-White, 2007), motivation or agency (Wentzel, 2007), engagement (Wilson & Ryan, 2013), and behavior (Ryans, 1961) among several others.

The increasing popularity and practice of learner-centered and constructivist principles in education (Fedyszyn, 2010; Holsberg, 2010; Royston, 2017) has sparked deliberation over the teacher-student relationship and its role in education (Cornelius-White, 2007). Other conversations regarding the absence of said relationship and its hindrance of students' learning experiences have surfaced. Hargreaves (1998) argued that the prominence of educational reform has made it difficult for teachers to be concerned with fostering teacher-student relationships. Noddings (2006) and Cornelius-White (2007) expressed concern that the traditional, dominant culture of human-emotional separation is "seen as the primary source of suffering and developmental problems [in students]." (p. 115). Weinberger & McCombs (2001) revealed a widespread phenomenon of generation Y youth ("millennials") reporting feelings of loneliness and being out of place due to a lack of perceived adult valuation or care.

The substantial amount of research and literature exploring the subject provides many implications regarding the role of the teacher-student relationship in students' educational experiences, but what conclusions can be drawn relating to specific qualities of that relationship? How might those conclusions inform best teaching practice, and what educational policies are already in place that relate to this topic? These are broad questions that would be difficult to answer even with a large body of literature, but they are the interests that drive this discussion.

Teaching Disposition and Assessment

Discussions in education literature suggest that effective teaching is a multifaceted practice that is inclusive of but not solely determined by the educator's content knowledge. John Dewey (1904) explained that teachers must develop teaching dispositions toward ethical values, reflection, and sensitivity of unique needs of students and their cognitive processes. A teaching disposition is a set of values, beliefs, and attitudes that dictates the teacher's application of

knowledge and skills (Wilkerson & Lang, 2007) in that in that they encompass the affect of teaching practice (Bloom & Krathwohl, 1956). Johnson & Reiman (2007) specified further that dispositions are attributes of a teacher that are connected to her judgements and actions. Even the most content- and pedagogically-informed teachers can fail to foster cognitive and emotional growth in students if they lack the dispositions to address the intricate nature of K-12 education (Dewey, 1964; Harrison, Smithey, McAffee, & Weiner, 2012; Johnson & Reiman, 2007; NCATE, 2002 & 2008; Wilkerson & Lang 2007).

The topic of teacher dispositions permeated scholarly discussion in education especially following the establishment of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2002 (Harrison et al., 2012). Part of the NCLB required that all K-12 teachers be "highly qualified" before the end of the 2015-16 school year. Then Secretary of Education Rod Paige (2002) indicated that teachers must have a degree in their respective discipline and might need to pass an assessment measuring knowledge of content in order to be considered "highly qualified". John Dewey's (1964) stance regarding effective teaching might suggest that Paige's view is inadequate, having said that ''to depend wholly, or even chiefly, upon the knowledge and use of 'methods', is an error fatal to the best interests of education'' (p. 198). Paige's outlined standards of a "highly qualified" teacher gave little to no regard to the pedagogical and affective characteristics of teaching which has encouraged national organizations of education to continue refining disposition standards to be established in teacher education (Harrison et al., 2012).

Current Standards and Applications

Disposition standards outlined by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) are intended and designed to inform assessment of preservice teachers in teacher preparation

programs, and they can inform assessment criteria of teachers in the field (see Appendices A1 and A2). NCATE (2002) defines teacher dispositions as "The values, commitments, and professional ethics that influence behaviors towards students, families, colleagues, and communities, and affect student learning, motivation, and development as well as the educator's own professional development. Dispositions are guided by beliefs and attitudes related to values such as caring, fairness, honesty, responsibility and social justice" (p. 53). NCATE (2008) requires "fairness" and "the belief that all students can learn" as two professional disposition standards to be established by institutions. Such disposition standards should be applied through assessment of observable behaviors in educational settings. Teacher education programs may otherwise design and assess their own teacher disposition standards and also determine the method of application of said standards (Welch et al., 2010). InTASC (2011) provides ten Core Teaching Standards organized in four categories: The Learner and Learning, Content Knowledge, Instructional Practice, and Professional Responsibility. Each standard is explained by several descriptive components of teacher performances, knowledge, and critical dispositions, a process that has yielded 43 desired dispositions. The presented standards are intended to inform both teacher education programs and assessment of teachers in the field.

Criticisms of teacher disposition standards have also been present in contemporary dialogue. InTASC (2011) and NCATE (2008) have been critiqued specifically in the room allowed for personal interpretation of teacher disposition, which raises concerns of validity and ethical ambiguity regarding how preservice teachers are assessed. Murray (2007) suggested that the InTASC disposition standards lack the specificity to be useful in the assessment of preservice teachers. However, while the InTASC (2011) standards address some of these concerns, Murray's report indicated the need for a more comprehensive approach to allow for contextual flexibility.

Need for the Study

Popular discussion regarding the relationship between teacher and student continues to emerge in literature informing teacher practice. Teacher disposition standards as outlined by InTASC and NCATE are the leading, policy-driven forces that shape how the multifaceted competencies of teaching are cultivated in preservice teachers. Current disposition standards of NCATE that might concern the teacher-student relationship are: "[Teachers] are able to create learning environments [that] encourag[e] positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation" (under Standard 1), and "Early childhood professionals integrate their understanding of and relationships with children and families" (under Early Childhood Education Program Standards). Otherwise, NCATE does indicate the importance of fostering relationships with school colleagues, parents, families, and organizations in the local community, but not specifically with students. Current disposition standards of InTASC that might concern the teacher-student relationship are: "2(n) The teacher makes learners feel valued and helps them learn to value each other" (Under Standard 2: Learning Differences), and "3(q) The teacher seeks to foster respectful communication among all members of the learning community; 3(r) The teacher is a thoughtful and responsive listener and observer" (Under Standard 3: Learning Environments). These components of NCATE and InTASC disposition standards might encourage preservice teachers to cultivate values and beliefs that would eventually build positive teacher-student relationships, but there is much more room for exploration and identification of dispositions that are explicitly designed to facilitate such an outcome.

An example of a teacher disposition assessment rubric used by teacher education institutions is the CEPTC Dispositions document (see Appendix A3). Standards in this document that could concern teacher-student relationship are: "Demonstrates sensitivity to other's feelings

and opinions while articulating own opinions, feelings and needs" (under Tact and Judgement), "Demonstrates the belief that all students can learn and are welcome in the classroom", (under Cultural Responsiveness), and "Expresses passion and enthusiasm for teaching" (under Commitment to Profession). Documents such as this provide more specification regarding teacher disposition standards, some of which might impact teacher-student relationship; however, the topic itself is still not addressed directly.

"Teacher-student relationship" is an ambiguous subject in education literature (Cornelius-White, 2007; Hargreaves, 1998) and may not be a suitable term to dissect and compartmentalize. A word that captures the concept of teacher-student relationship while being widely explored and measured in education literature is *rapport*, and it will be the guiding term for this discussion. Therefore, before exploring suggestions for reformation of disposition standards and for best teaching practice, investigating *rapport* as an educational construct and identifying its elements is necessary.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this review is to examine scholarship related to teacher-student rapport and how it is linked with student outcomes. Definitions and factors of rapport are synthesized in the context of teaching practice broadly construed. Theoretical principles of human learning and the seminal work of four psychological schools: behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and humanism will also be explored to further elucidate the phenomenon of the teacher-student relationship as it relates to student impact.

Rapport

Rapport in the classroom has proven to impact student achievement and outcomes (Broom, 2016; Catt, Miller, & Schallenkamp, 2007; Estepp, 2012; Frisby & Martin, 2010; Lammers & Gillaspy Jr., 2013; Nguyen, 2007; Webb & Barrett, 2014; Wentzel, 2009; Wilson, Ryan, & Pugh, 2010; Wilson & Ryan, 2013; Wittler, 2002). Student achievement and outcomes are considered to be any of the following items: grades, agency, resilience, interest in subject matter, behavior, cognitive development, class participation, moral development, and engagement in content. Early examinations defined rapport in education as "sharing a common viewpoint" (LaFrance et al., 1976 & 1979), a smooth and harmonious interaction (Bernieri, 1988), and a classroom climate that promotes teacher-student interaction through valuation of students' feelings and opinions (Perkins et al., 1995). The concept of rapport continues to be in flux as its definition slightly alters across discussions in education, measurement (of rapport), etymology, and other contexts.

Definitions and Characteristics in Education

Wentzel (2007) highlighted the growing popularity of discussion regarding the impact of positive teacher-student interaction on student achievement and social accomplishments. Three theories connect to the reason behind this correlation: attachment theory (secure relationships support children's concept of self-worth, motivation to explore and learn, and effective coping skills), social support models (emotionally supportive relationships, consistent or inconsistent, foster child's acclimation to school), and self-determination theory (teacher's observable commitment to students' autonomous, competence, and relational needs result in positive engagement and participation in the classroom). The majority of K-12 educators in this study believe that the establishment of positive rapport in the classroom is associated with feelings of trust and mutual respect, and such feelings of students are supported by teachers' willingness to engage in positive social interaction (Wentzel, 2007).

Frisby & Martin (2010) explained that student-perceived instructor-student rapport consistently predicts student participation, affective learning, and cognitive learning. Rapport, in this context, is reflective of the interpersonal relationship between teacher and student that is fostered by a prosocial bond. However, levels of rapport and the three predictors were measured through student perception, and the sample size of this study was small (n = 30). Such conditions of the study do not promote a generalizable approach to effective interpersonal practice of teachers. Despite this, results indicate that instructors must enter the classroom with relational goals if they wish to build positive rapport, and achievement of such goals requires the following qualities of communication competence: promotion of warmth, ability to relate, use of humor, fostering of comfort, and expression of personal interest. Frisby and Martin (2010) indicated that

future studies need to account for individual differences in students regarding motivation to communicate with the instructor and how they impact teacher-student rapport.

Webb and Barrett (2014) provided a collection of college instructor behaviors that build rapport generated by student self-report measures, defining rapport as a: "...relationship built on mutual trust and harmony...[and]...positive mutual attention marked by affinity and harmony" (p. 16). Qualitative data results indicate 514 behaviors within the following contexts that impact student perceived level of rapport: uncommonly attentive, connecting, information sharing, courteous, common grounding, and rapport hindering behaviors. Results also suggest a relationship between rapport and interpersonal communication in that teachers who socially connect with students are more likely to promote positive rapport with students.

Measurement

A number of surveys designed to measure rapport have been created and examined. Wilson et al. (2010) conducted a study on the perceptions of 246 undergraduate students to determine correlative elements of rapport which, in this case, was defined as "a relationship of mutual trust and understanding". Perception of instructor behavior was not considered because it was "likely influenced by [students'] general impressions" (p. 247) and may not have provided reliable data. Results generated a 34-item list of student experiences that positively or negatively correlated with perception of rapport. After questions of reliability of the list arose, Wilson and Ryan (2013) conducted an analysis indicating that teachers can focus on maximum 6 items at a time before sacrificing predictive power of the scale, ultimately concluding that it is too cumbersome for practical use. Broom (2016) used exploratory factor analysis with a sample of >300 students and their perceptions to synthesize the Wilson et al. (2010) scale. The synthesis resulted in two primary factors that construct professor-student rapport: "Professor cares about

students" and "Professor creates an engaging and constructive atmosphere". The following professor behaviors were discussed as contributors to the first factor, that is, the communication of genuine investment in the students' academic and personal well-being and of willingness to collaborate and connect with them: listening to students, expressing personal and professional experiences, being approachable, relating to students, and knowing their names. Broom explained that the second factor is not as relevant to rapport, as it concerns the climate of the classroom more so than the interpersonal relationship between professor and student.

Wittler (2002) developed an instrument entitled the "Relationship Rapport Scale" (RRS) with 277 agricultural students. A single construct of the RRS named "Interpersonal Closeness" emerged through both exploratory factor analysis and qualitative analysis, and it provides the most important teacher characteristics that help define teacher-student rapport, namely: warmth, sincerity, honesty, respect, kindness, and being genuine, caring, comfortable, accepting, and communicative. Wittler's review suggested rapport is a combination of caring and the teacher-student relationship setting.

Lammers (2013) tested the internal consistency, concurrent validity, and predictive validity of the Student-Instructor-Rapport-Scale-9 (SIRS-9) through self-report measures of 262 undergraduate and graduate students at a medium-sized state university. Examples of the nine items include: "Your instructor understands you", "Your instructor communicates effectively with you", and "Your instructor respects you". Results of the study confirm the three assessment criteria of the SIRS-9 and its effectiveness in measuring teacher-student rapport in online classes.

A deductive approach to seeking the theorized, overarching influences of rapport reveals the following trends in defining teacher-student rapport: it concerns the relationship between teacher and student, it is impacted by teacher behavior towards and understanding of the student,

and it can influence academic or student outcome goals. It should be noted that a significant amount of the literature defines and measures rapport through the perception of the student. A review of the history of "rapport" as well as its scrutiny in other contexts of scholarly work may provide a more comprehensive interpretation of the construct.

Etymology and Other Subjects

The history of *Rapport* can be traced back to *rapporter*, from French etymology, meaning "bring back or refer to"**.** *Rapport* is a back-formation of *rapporter*, and it evolved to mean "producing harmony, agreement, or intercourse" (Hindley, Alan, Langley & Levy, 2000). *Rapport* was used in English dialect, stemming from French etymology, as "reference, relation, or relationship" by the 1660s (Earnest, 1971). Merriam-Webster currently defines rapport as, "a friendly, harmonious relationship; a relationship characterized by agreement, mutual understanding, or empathy that makes communication possible or easy". The presented etymology of *Rapport* concerns the condition of interconnection between people.

The exact meaning and principles of rapport change depending on the context of scholarly discussions (Tickle-Dengen and Rosenthal, 1987; Gremler & Gwinner, 2000) despite the accessible definition. Gremler and Gwinner (2000) presented a table outlining descriptions of rapport in the following contexts: roommate relationship, interview, psychotherapy, general interaction, sales relationships, service, and education. Such descriptions of rapport fall under two dimensions of human relationship: enjoyable interaction and personal connection.

Carey et al. (1986a) develops the Roommate Rapport Scale (RRS) by synthesizing items of the Anderson (1962) Interview Rating Scale and its utilization in measuring counselor-client rapport in (Carey et. al, 1986b). The RRS 28-item Likert scale yields .95-.97 internal consistency

and .973 reliability. Carey et al. (1986a & 1988) define rapport as the quality of relationship characterized by satisfactory communication and mutual understanding.

Defining Rapport

The term *rapport* has been deductively explored upon review of literature in education, etymology, and other contexts. A trend connected to rapport that emerges from all lenses of presented discussion is that it concerns the relationship between people. Valid and reliable measurements of rapport as determined by student perception reveal that the presence of rapport is impacted by communication and emotional understanding between teacher and student. Therefore, the guiding definition of rapport in the classroom for this discussion will be an adaptation of Carey et al. (1986a & 1988): *The quality of relationship between teacher and student that is characterized by communication and mutual, emotional understanding*. It is important to recognize rapport as a *quality*, not an *amount*, in this case. There is always rapport between the teacher and the student; whether it is of high or low *quality* depends on how communication and emotional understanding are facilitated, if at all, in that relationship. An inductive approach to describe the principles of communication and emotion that build positive rapport in the classroom can yield a collection of teacher dispositions to be prescribed under disposition policy.

Categories of Teacher Dispositions that Impact Rapport

Teacher disposition standards to be applied to teacher education institutions must be specific and clear to promote consistency and validity of preservice teacher assessment (Murray, 2007; Welch et al., 2010). Rapport in the classroom is characterized by *communication* and mutual, *emotion*al understanding (adaptation of Carey et al., 1986a & 1988). An exploration of communicative and emotional values, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers (Wilkerson & Lang,

2007) that build positive rapport in the classroom can provide information that is useful to inform educational policy and teaching practice. Teacher communication dispositions will be discussed through the following lenses: immediacy, care ethics, affective teacher-student relationship, and empathy. Teacher emotion dispositions will be discussed through the following lenses: tact and emotional intelligence.

Communication

Immediacy

Albert Mehrabian (1969) conceptualized immediacy as a communication behavior that fosters interaction with and closeness to another. A positive correlation has been calculated between perceived teacher immediacy and rapport primarily through student perception interviews and surveys (Estepp, 2012; Frymier & Houser, 2000; Rodriguez et al, 1996; Wilson et al., 2010; Witt et al. 2004). Immediacy is commonly organized into two separate categories: nonverbal and verbal (Valez & Cano, 2008). Witt et al. (2004) connected nonverbal immediacy to approach-avoidance theory, which highlights the phenomenon of people tending to physically gravitate towards others they like, and verbal immediacy to speech accommodation theory, which examines the tendency of people to adapt their verbal communication to what they believe to be the social appetite of the listener (Witt et al. 2004).

Velez and Cano (2008) described teacher characteristics or dispositions of immediacy and their outcomes: nonverbal immediacy involves the teacher using imitative body movement, proximity, eye contact, and positive facial expression to promote feelings of warmth and belonging; verbal immediacy involves the teacher using praise, humor, openness to interaction, self-disclosure, and interest in student conversation to foster increased students' interest in the subject, course, and teacher's instruction. Application of immediacy in the classroom must be

done step by step, or one behavior at a time, for an abundance of immediacy goals can be unreliable and be perceived as unnatural to the students (Messman & Jones-Corley, 2001). Mottet et al. (2006) explained that use of immediacy during summative feedback, discipline feedback, and project assigning may reduce students' perception of credibility, which can impact student agency in academic and behavioral growth.

Care Ethics

To care for students is an ethical behavior of teachers (Rabin, 2008). The discussion of care as an ethical behavior in education began in the 1980s (Gilligan, 1982; Noddings, 1984) as a means to increase implementation and cultivation of morality in students. "Thus, the condition—the expressed need—of the other moves us. It is this capacity to be moved by the affective condition of the other that teachers try to develop in students as part of their moral education" (Noddings, 2012, p. 773). Concern for care ethics in the classroom continues to increase in response to the widespread presence of dry, regimented, and teacher-centered practice along with its negative impacts on student outcomes (Cornelius-White, 2007; Fedyszyn, 2014; Noddings, 2006; Ryans, 1961; Weinberger & McCombs, 2001). Care ethics fundamentally begins with a caring relation that is informed by reception of the carer and expression of the cared-for (Buber, 1965; Noddings, 2014). Noddings illuminated the importance of caring as a relation as opposed to an action. A teacher may exhibit the virtuous act of care for her students, but without a sustained caring relationship, that act may be in vain or even a step backwards because it is not informed with an open line of communication. It is also important to recognize this concept of care as a relation instead of an action when considering its role in fostering rapport.

The expressed need > assumed need ideal is supported by committing to the following actions in the classroom: listening and thinking (Noddings, 2012). Listening requires the teacher

to foster a setting that allows the student to "think out loud", which sends the message to the student that his voice will be respected and heard. Thinking requires attentiveness of the teacher that allows her to move beyond the expressed need and prescribed help by answering the questions, "Does this student really need what he is expressing, and is the current delivery of instruction appropriate for him?" A teacher must demonstrate empathetic understanding based on observable expression and behavior of students in order to answer those questions. Latitudinal knowledge reflects a disposition of a teacher that supports a teacher's effectiveness as a carer:

> "Competent teachers who, as carers, want to respond to the voiced and unvoiced needs of their students must have what might be called latitudinal knowledge. They should be able to draw on literature, history, politics, religion, philosophy, and the arts in ways that enrich their daily teaching and offer multiple possibilities for students to make connections with the great existential questions as well as questions of current social life. (Noddings, 1999, p. 215)"

Rabin (2008) also argued for the importance of listening and thinking, as such actions supplement the teacher with knowledge of student in a way that fosters mutual understanding.

Affective Student-Teacher Relationships

Affective Student-Teacher Relationships (ATSR), or favorable relationships perceived by the student, are positively correlated with class participation and communication improvement of students (Cornelius-White, 2007) and negatively correlated with students' external behavior problems (Lei et al., 2016). Rodriguez et al. (1996) used the Affective Learning Model (ALM) to propose that desired instructor behavior is the bedrock of fostering relationships between instructor and student. Gremler and Gwinner (2008) reported five categories of behavior resulting in positive employee-customer rapport, and Webb and Barrett (2014) connected those categories to ALM principles and determined relative, specific teacher behaviors of teachers through student perception in the context of the classroom. The absence of ATSR with students who have recently transitioned from elementary school to middle school or middle school to high

school has negatively correlated with their academic performance (Cataldi & Kewalramani, 2009).

Behaviors of teachers that promote ATSR include excitement for the job, enthusiasm for student success, friendly interaction, use of humor, positive interest in student conversation, and willingness to listen (Webb & Barrett, 2014). Other contributing teacher behaviors are closeness, support, sensitivity, warmth, and genuine involvement (Roorda et al., 2011). More recent studies have explored the role of ATSR in the academic and emotional development of elementary school students; however, similar research in middle and high school-aged students are dated (Gallagher, 2013) and must be continued to address changes in the student population and education system.

Empathy

Empathy is regarded as a skill that is crucial in the teacher's development of effective relationships with students (Brooks & Goldstein, 2008). It has been discussed in Carl Rogers' (1969) commentary on classical education as "...the attitude of standing in the other's shoes [and] of viewing the world through the student's eyes" (p. 112). Teachers' efforts of empathizing with their students have been connected to positively impacting student agency, resilience, and academic achievement (Brooks & Goldstein, 2008; Cornelius-White, 2007; Royston, 2017; Terrance et al., 1964).

Empathy has been identified as an emotional aptitude (Holsberg, 2010), one that is associated with the ability to experience a wide variety of human feeling. Scholars have debated over what it truly means to "empathize" with another person (Freshbach, 1997; Hogan, 1969) and suggest it involves one of two abilities: the ability to *experience* the emotions of others (affective empathy), and the ability to *comprehend* the emotions of others (cognitive empathy).

Goleman (1995) supports both arguments, stating that empathy can involve sharing feelings with or understanding the perspectives of another. Empathetic behaviors of teachers have positively correlated with rapport-building (Carrie et al., 1986a; Juvonen, 2006; Kritzer, 1990; Lammers & Gillaspy Jr., 2013; Webb & Barrett, 2014).

Teachers who exhibit affective or cognitive empathy honor students' voices (Brooks & Goldstein, 2008), work to live and understand the roles and lives of people in a variety of circumstances (Aspy, 1969), create a safe space that welcomes the uniqueness of each student, and embody a cognitively and emotionally attentive demeanor (Royston, 2017). Brooks and Goldstein (2008) explained that teachers must be able to recall personal experiences and how they were impacted as students by said experiences while they are engaging in empathic practice with their own students. This reflective practice must be supplemented by ongoing feedback from their students that is encouraged and fostered by promoting their thoughts and feelings during instruction. It should be noted that empathy is identified as a behavior or disposition that supports other communicative and emotional attributes that facilitate rapport explored in this discussion (Cornelius-White, 2007; Estepp, 2012; Goleman, 2002; Gremler & Gwinner, 2000; Noddings, 1984 & 2006; Rabin, 2008; Rodriguez et al., 1996; Royston, 2017; Valez & Cano, 2008; Van Manen, 1991; Webb & Barrett, 2014; Wilson & Ryan, 2013; Witt et al, 2004); recognizing it as its own construct of teaching practice is important given its abundant presence in the literature. Whether empathy is considered to be a communicative or emotional attribute in the context of this discussion is unclear (Denzin, 1984).

Emotion of Teaching

Hargreaves (1998) argued that "emotions are at the heart of teaching" (p. 835), and he believed that effective teaching requires passion for and connecting with students in addition to demonstration of content competency, organization, and scaffolding techniques. Emotion is defined by Denzin (1984) as, "...self-feeling [and] temporally embodied, situated self-feelings that arise from emotional and cognitive social acts that people direct to self or have directed toward them by others" (49) following his descriptive analysis of related theories and models by James-Lange, Scheff, Sartre, Freud, and Lacan. Emotion in education has been discussed as a teacher competency in the following contexts: tact, affective teacher-student relationships, and emotional intelligence.

Tact

Tact is being able to understand the reality of experiencing strong feelings such as frustration, shyness, grief, and joy, and it "...implies sensitivity [and] a mindful, aesthetic perception" (p. 125), which contributes to the personal connection and understanding between teacher and student (van Manen, 1991). The teacher's use of tact supports a social bond with a student that encourages vulnerability, commitment, and creativity in the classroom (Thomas, 2010). Reidler & Eryaman (2016) explained that tact as a model of behavior can foster students' understanding of large- and small-scale social and political issues such that they are able to develop and be critical of related arguments and ideas.

Tact requires the teacher to immediately recognize observable student actions like body language, demeanor, and expression as clues in deciphering unobservable thoughts, feelings, and understandings. Tact also requires teachers to demonstrate heightened awareness of variables such as social environment and student personality that should inform their differentiation of

appropriate social action (van Manen, 1991; Corcoran & Tormey, 2013). A teacher who demonstrates tact in the classroom is able to draw accurate conclusions from witnessing indirect student behavior and how it relates or does not relate to the students' current environments (Van Manen, 1991). Tact is supported by the ability to be diplomatic, which involves managing negotiations in ways that give all parties a chance to contribute to a conversation or decision and that result in fair and appropriate compromise (van Manen, 1991). Tact is effectively executed with a demeanor that models and fosters kindness through encouragement, listening, and desire to help (Reidler & Eryaman, 2016). Tact as a pedagogical construct is otherwise relatively unexplored in the literature as little empirical evidence informs practice and student outcomes.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence is a psychological theory that explains "...the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth."" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Goleman (2002) would later expand on emotional intelligence as a result of the demonstration of four emotional skills that respectively follow a linear fashion of cause and effect: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Teacher emotional intelligence has been connected to the influence of student behavior, engagement, academic performance, and attachment to content (Corcoran & Tormey, (2013).

The application of personal and social dispositions needed to foster said skills are as follows: self-awareness requires emotional and accurate knowledge of self; self-management requires trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, initiative, and motivation; social awareness requires socio-environmental understanding; and relationship management requires

inspirational leadership, developing others, influence, strengthening bonds, and collaboration. Emotional intelligence can be understood as a collection of five categories of distinct, measurable competencies and behaviors represented in the table below (Wakeman, 2006).

Intrapersonal	*Interpersonal*	*Stress management*	*Adaptability*	*General mood scale*
Self-regard	Empathy	Stress tolerance	Reality testing	Optimism
Emotional self-awareness	Social responsibility	Impulse control	Flexibility	Happiness
Assertiveness	Interpersonal relationships		Problem solving	
Independence				
Self-actualisation				

Figure 1. Wakeman's (2006) five competencies of emotional intelligence.

Scholars comment that carelessness in emotional practice can negatively impact others. Denzin (1984) explains that emotional practice can hinder relationships with others if not monitored and reflected upon. Also, knowing what distance to keep in relational engagement is essential in the classroom (Hargreaves, 1998; Noddings, 2006; Royston, 2017). It is the teacher's ability to demonstrate each emotional skill nested beneath the five unique categories of emotional intelligence that determines the outcome of emotional practice.

It is important to recognize rapport as a vehicle for instruction. Teachers cannot solely rely on the embodiment of kind, likeable qualities and expect student engagement and learning (Wilson & Ryan, 2013); effective teaching is oriented around content. Nguyen (2007) supports arguments suggesting that rapport cannot be discussed and effectively established in the classroom as an isolated concept – it is the symbiotic combination of interpersonal and instructional roles that fosters positive student outcomes. Nguyen also argues that there is not enough research concerning the balance and interaction between rapport-building

communication and instruction. There is abundant information revealing the elements and teacher behaviors that build good rapport with students, but little attention is given to how those elements and behaviors are appropriately applied (e.g. use of humor is commonly associated with building positive rapport, but there is a time and place for it in the context of instruction). Such developments in research would be necessary to influence policy on a national level.

Educational Psychology

Presented are descriptions of principles of the behaviorist, cognitivist, constructivist, and humanist schools of psychology followed by background information about representing psychologists of prominent scholarly influence. Additionally, their arguments related to the relationship between teacher and student in the learning process will also be discussed.

Behaviorism

John Watson declared that theories of human learning can only be validated by observation of behavior via prediction and control in controlled environments (Watson & Walter, 1994). A guiding principle of behaviorism is that human learning can only be determined through observable behavior and interaction with the environment (Alexander & Winne, 2006). Bower and Hilgard (1998) commented that behaviorism is a product of associationism, which contends that mental processing is dictated by association with previous mental states, and hedonism, which argues that humans are motivated to avoid deprivation and pain and to seek pleasure and comfort. Examples of behavioral psychologists' positions on how humans learn are: 1) by association with positive and negative reinforcement; 2) through recognition of associations between stimuli and response; 3) by extrinsic motivation (Ertuğrul & Tağluk, 2017). Three behavioral psychologists that have been prominently discussed in educational literature are John Broadus Watson, Edward Thorndike, and Burrhus Frederic Skinner.

John B. Watson (1878-1958) championed physiologist Ivan Pavlov's classical conditioning by arguing that human behavior is a result of environmental stimuli and that associations between stimulus and response are reinforced through repetition (Watson and Walter, 1994). Watson dismissed the examination of human consciousness as he believed it was not possible to reach notable conclusions in that context. He assumed three theoretical principles to elucidate human learning: humans initially know nothing, human learning can only be measured by change in behavior, and humans understand reality through realization of stimulus and response associations (Ertuğrul & Tağluk, 2017). An example of Watson's commentary on the interaction between humans is his book *Psychological Care of Infant and Child* (1928) on child-rearing. Criticisms of the book have been widely established (Bigelow & Morris, 2001), and some specifically targeted Watson's suggestion of almost complete emotional detachment from the child (Houk, 2000). Watson (1928) did advise against parents' displays of most forms of love and affection claiming that such actions can result in the child's need to be "coddled" (p. 48); however, he also recommended against parents expressing negative emotional reactions to their children, for he believed maintaining a safe, positive environment in the home was crucial to the child's development.

Edward Thorndike (1874-1949) had a significant presence in educational psychology and has been regarded as the father of modern educational psychology (Haggbloom et. al, 2002). Thorndike is known for being one of the first psychologists to conduct research in his field by observing animal behavior in controlled settings (Hergenhahn, 2003). One study that involved cats in prepared escape puzzles was instrumental in his conception of connectionism (Schunk, 2012) and its three underlying laws. The law of effect claims that a response to a stimulus increases in frequency if met with a positive environmental change (Herenstein, 1970). The law

of readiness explains that the will to behave in certain ways is impacted by external environment (Thorndike, 1932). The laws of use and disuse argue that association strengthens with consistent practice and weakens with suspended practice (Cooper, 2009). Thorndike observed his laws of connectionism in the human context and determined that humans learn more effectively in positive reward environments in comparison to negative. Thorndike suggested, based on his research in the educational setting, that praise is a motivating reinforcer of ideal student behavior (Beatty, 1998), and he later connected his findings to his exploration of social intelligence in that praise and rewards in the form of human interaction is linked to human learning (Woodworth, 1950).

B. F. Skinner (1904-1990) was a prolific writer in the fields of psychology, philosophy, and linguistics, and he explored and conceived the operant conditioning theory, which was regarded as a continuation of Thorndike's (1898, 1911) discussions of reinforcers and punishers in his law of effect. Skinner claimed in his theory that the likelihood of organisms to repeat certain behaviors is impacted by consequences experienced in the past (Ertuğrul & Tağluk, 2017). Skinner's operant conditioning seems to be almost identical to Thorndike's law of effect, but the primary difference is that the psychologists' arguments are stated in the contexts of conscious behaviors and unconscious behaviors, respectively. He self-described as a radical behaviorist (Alexander & Winne, 2006; Haggbloom et. al, 2002) through his allegiance to natural science methods while conducting behavior analyses; however, he recognized that the natural sciences cannot reveal how humans learn in social contexts (Skinner, 1953). Certain developments of mankind, such as government, economy, and cultural practices, would not have been possible without humans gathering together and interacting. Skinner (1965) responded in kind to Thorndike's realization of the connection between human interaction and human learning

by providing examples of effective social stimuli that reinforce behavior (friendliness, smiling) and discourage behavior (ridicule, guilting, embarrassing). He went further to highlight that human behavior changes depending on who else is present, the perceived social profiles of which are determined by past interactions.

Cognitivism

Cognitive learning theorists and psychologists responded to the growing popularity of behaviorism (Lilienfeld et al., 2010) by stating that learning cannot be understood by observing behavior alone; rather, they believed that research of human learning should address the mental process (Slavin, 2006). Cognitive psychologists are primarily concerned with human thinking, or how learners form knowledge, whereas behavioral psychologists consider behavioral, emotional, and social learning via observation (Borich & Tombari, 1997). Ulric Neisser (1928-2012), psychologist and writer of *Cognitive Psychology*, is considered to be the father of cognitive psychology through his revolutionary studies of human memory and perception (Haggbloom et al., 2002). Cognitive principles of human learning include: humans produce knowledge and skills through processing environmental stimuli, new information must be connected to prior knowledge or experiences in order to be learned, and an individual's understanding can be observed by her ability to use language, reasoning, and problem solving (Wallace, 2007). Jean Piaget, Albert Bandura, and Jerome Bruner are three significant scholars in the field of cognitive psychology that will be discussed in this review.

Albert Bandura (b. 1925), Professor Emeritus of Social Science at Stanford University, is a prolific researcher, writer, and educator in the fields of psychology and philosophy (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2010). Bandura set in motion the social learning theory in which he contended that humans learn from each other through the linear processes of observation,

retention, imitation, and motivation (Bandura, 1969 & 1977). He was regarded as a *bridge* between the behaviorist and cognitivist schools (Haggbloom et al., 2002) because his conception of social learning theory was inspired by Skinner's investigation of the operant theory (Grusec, 1992). Bandura later renamed his theory to social cognitive theory, and he continued advocating that humans learn by observing each other's actions and the consequences of those actions (Bandura, 1986). He posited that an individual's level of self-efficacy is positively correlated with chances of learning from observing others, and teachers play a crucial role in fostering student self-efficacy through encouragement and verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1992).

Jerome Bruner (1915-2016) was a significant contributor to the fields of cognitive and developmental psychology (Greenfield, 2016). Bruner was regarded as a pioneer of cognitive psychology following the publication of his book *A Study of Thinking*, and he was among the first in his field to suggest that perception and sensation play active roles in human learning and must be examined in research (Buner, 1956). Bruner would later focus his interests on developmental psychology with a guiding principle he coined as *scaffolding* (Bruner, 1966) in which he suggests that humans can learn by building on previously mastered knowledge. He highlighted the importance of teaching structure in the context of scaffolding, "The more fundamental or basic is the idea he has learned...the greater will be its breadth of applicability to new problems." (p. 18). It should be noted that the term *scaffolding* is also used to label a teaching practice in which the teacher guides the student through the learning process at varying degrees depending on the student's cognitive abilities and mastery of the task. Bruner (1966) proposed a framework of representation to help understand "how the child gets free of present stimuli and conserves past experience in a model [or of a way of understanding the world], and the rules that govern storage and retrieval of information from this model." (p. 10). He describes

the three levels of representation as enactive (learning through action or kinesthesia), iconic (learning through perceived patterns or imagery), and symbolic (learning through words, symbols, numbers, etc.). Humans who learn via symbolic representation engage in methods of understanding through structure, form, and rules, which can support metacognitive and hypothetical processing.

Robert Sternberg (b. 1949) is a cognitive psychologist who takes interest in studying thinking styles, Feuerstein's (1990) cognitive modifiability, and intelligence, among others. He expressed critique of standardized processes and assumptions of measuring intelligence similar to Howard Gardner (1999) in that said methods concern only a fraction of human intellect. Sternberg (2003) suggested a three-part framework, known as the Triarchic Theory of Intelligence, of what he believes to be a more comprehensive approach to understanding levels of intelligence: componential (ability to analyze and solve problems that usually have one correct answer), experiential (creative ability to utilize prior knowledge or skills to solve problems in unique ways), and practical (adaptive ability to determine and execute actions ideal to the current situation or context). Sternberg (1988) proposed that current and past forms of political government can reflect human cognitive style. For example, he suggests that the existence of a judicial system is linked to humans' impulse to evaluate and change structure or rules, and levels hierarchy are linked to humans' inclination to prioritize objectives. Sternberg (2004) believed that fostering intrapersonal, interpersonal, and extrapersonal interactions in the classroom are fundamental components of developing wisdom, or "the use of one's intelligence and experience as mediated by values toward the achievement of a common good" (p. 164). He championed concepts such as empathy, interdependence, and sensitivity.

Constructivism

Psychologists who explored constructivist theory and research argued that humans acquire knowledge by actively constructing it in response to their experiences (Steffe & Gale, 1995). Constructivist theorists might argue that reality, or *truth*, is the subject's perception of the external environment, not the external environment itself, therefore implying that there are as many valid realities as there are subjects. Von Glaserfeld (1984, 1990) explained that individuals cogitate in ways that allow them to acclimate to the current situation in which they find themselves, ultimately impacting their behavior. Later developments (Larochell et al.; Maturna & Varela, 1992) encouraged that knowledge is constructed both biologically and socially. Three prominent scholars of the constructivist school will be discussed: John Dewey, Jean Piaget, and Lev Vygotsky.

John Dewey (1859-1952) studied psychology and philosophy, and he engaged in educational reform through his publications and research (Haggbloom et al., 2002). Dewey took part in the development of functional psychology (Dewey et al., 1896) where he became among the first to investigate mental processing and its relationship to social environmental adaptation (Brody 2003). Dewey championed the principles and philosophy of democracy, the bedrocks of his arguments in several contexts (Ayers & Schubert, 2004), including education. He (1916 & 1927) criticized schools for traditionally teaching its students preset skills and content knowledge without "preparing them for the future life...[by giving] them command of themselves," (1927, p. 77). Dewey (1902) discussed an optimal balance between guiding the student through the lesson and allowing him to take full control of his learning, which includes supporting his own awareness of his full potential. Dewey (1904, 1926, & 1960) expressed the importance of passion, drive, and positivity of a teacher's disposition in the moral and intellectual growth of her

students, for any lacking or opposite of such or similar teacher qualities can inhibit the students' learning experiences.

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) studied psychology and epistemology notably in the context of child development (Alexander & Winne, 2006). He suggested in his theory of genetic epistemology that human cognition can be understood to operate in four biological stages governed by age (Piaget, 1972): sensorimotor (children are egocentric and perceive the world solely through their perception and movement), preoperational (children can symbolically conceptualize and mentally reason based on intuition, but logical thinking is not completely developed), concrete operational (children become less egocentric, consider external realities, and begin empathizing with others' feelings), and formal operational (children are capable of hypothetical thought and can grapple with abstract concepts, or perceptions removed from the *here and now*). Another contribution to educational psychology of Piaget's is his discussion of schema. Schema, introduced by philosopher Immanuel Kant (Nevid, 2007), was discussed by Piaget (1958) as the natural framework of human cognition that is sculpted by past experiences, memories, and knowledge. Piaget believed that people absorb new information in their schemata though either assimilation, where the information is *fit* into the current schema through realizing relationships or connections with prior knowledge, or accommodation, where the current schema is altered or new schema is created to accept the information. Piaget would later inspire discussions among educational psychologists about cognitive conflict, the first step of accommodation, which he called "disequilibrium" (39) and indicated as a crucial component of human learning (Piaget, 1963). Piaget (1997) favored a collaborative context between teacher and students in the learning process as opposed to the teacher establishing an authoritative role,

for he believed an even distribution of leadership and control in the classroom provides students freedom of constructing ideas and solutions, ultimately promoting deeper learning.

Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) was a constructive psychologist who invested his time and research in developmental psychology (Haggbloom, 2002). Vygotsky (1978) believed that society and environment play a significant role in human cognitive development, notably through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1987), in which he claimed that the surroundings in which humans grow up shape how they perceive reality and think. He explained the link between social interaction and learning with the concept he coined as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which is, "the difference between the level of individual achievement determined through individual problem solving and the level or potential achievement with adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers." (Vygotsky, 1978, pg. 86). Vygotsky highlighted social activity between people with different backgrounds and knowledge as a primary source of the cultivation of knowledge in an individual, which emphasized the impact adults can have on the learning process of a child. The teacher, or expert, should facilitate a collaborative environment between her and the student by guiding and encouraging him through exploring higher mental processes while solving problems (Vygotsky, 1978).

Humanism

Humanistic psychologists examine human mental functioning through a phenomenological lens in that they are concerned with the personal, subjective experience of an individual (Alexander, 2006). Educators concerned with humanistic principles may be encouraged by this lens to teach the *student* instead of the *content* by considering his behaviors, thoughts, and feelings during the learning process. Goldstein (1939) introduced the concept known as self-actualization, which he described as an organism's drive to realize its full potential

and capacity. Humanistic psychologists later explored the concept in the context of their field, arguing that humans strive for fulfillment, individuality, creativity, and transcendence (Aanstoos et al., 2000) and their motivation to achieve such goals is impacted by the satisfaction of both their basic (physiological) and complex (socio-emotional) needs (Greening, 2006). Greening (2006) gave examples of complex needs: relatedness, sense of belonging, and self-worth. Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, and Clark Moustakas especially impacted the field of humanistic psychology (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2010) and will be discussed in this review.

Carl Rogers (1902-1987) was a psychologist who also influenced the fields of psychotherapy and psychopathology (Haggbloom et al., 2002). He conceived of the person-centered approach in several contexts in which he argued that supporting an individual's self-actualization involves the teacher, mentor, or therapist empathizing and communicating with unconditional positive regard and genuineness (Rogers, 1957). Rogers (1953) contended through his Nineteen Propositions (see Appendix B) the importance of contextual, cultural, and emotional relevance of content and the way it is brought forth to the individual, explaining that the mentor must contemplate the individual's self-concept during interactions. Rogers et al. (2013, 1953) applied his arguments in education by explaining that teachers must: consider the background information of the student and connect content to that information, be open-minded and encourage open-mindedness, eliminate any negative or threatening tone during instruction, and must fulfill the role of an educational guide rather than an authoritative truth-teller.

Psychologist Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) described the need for humanistic theory as the positive, or healthy, half of Freud's work in psychology (Maslow, 1968), confirming one of his research interests: links to positive mental health (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2010). Maslow (1943) proposed his theory regarding the foundations of self-actualization known as his

hierarchy of needs in which he asserted that "physiological, safety, love [/social belonging], [and] esteem" (p. 394) needs of an individual must be met, each of which he identified accompanying subcategories. He explained that a deficiency in any of the needs can either inhibit or prevent self-actualization and personal development. Maslow (1971) later amended his hierarchy by adding self-transcendence as the *last* level of the theory, for he realized that humans who only self-actualize will continue raising their potential as they discover more to be mastered. An individual who achieves self-transcendence sets his own needs aside by recognizing an entity greater than himself. Maslow called this momentary "holistic level of consciousness" (pg. 269) a surpassing of personal worries when the individual can experience profound feelings of peace, joy, and unity with the universe. Students whose hierarchical needs are met, according to Maslow, are in more optimal condition to learn and personally develop.

Clark Moustakas (1923-2012) was a psychologist who investigated principles and research of clinical psychology, phenomenology, and heuristic. He was an active contributor in the establishment and expansion of the humanistic psychology movement, humanism and clinical psychological graduate degree programs, and transcendental phenomenology (a branch of qualitative research) (Blau et al., 2013). Moustakas (1953) supported the employment of play therapy to develop problem solving skills, confidence, and identity, supporting an understanding that each child is unique in terms of inner processing and psyche. He (1990) argued that understanding the heuristic of others involves engaging in the passion or strong feelings of said others, which can provide more freedom for self-exploration. Moustakas was adamant in validating the heuristic by expounding that the self cannot be defined with words; rather, it is unequivocally "the central being of the individual person," (Moustakas, 1956, pg. 11) that can only be experienced. Authors connecting Moustakas' research and education are light in the

literature; however, perhaps one might infer that educators attempting to live the experience of students can aid in the empathetic process in the classroom.

Summary of Literature Review

Presented in the review of literature are teacher behavior variables associated with the qualities of teacher-student rapport. Also distilled in the review is a collection of principles and seminal work of four schools of educational psychology that are relevant to the teacher-student relationship in the classroom. Such information is used to guide the methodology of this study and to provide a framework of discussion and application regarding policy and best practice.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this thesis is to support effective rapport-building strategies in the secondary music classroom in two ways: by discussing how teacher disposition standards can be evolved to cultivate rapport-building values and behaviors within preservice teachers as guided by principles of educational psychology, and by offering rapport-building strategies that can be immediately applied by music teachers of the secondary large ensemble.

Research Questions

The following research questions were answered in this study: how are teacher-student rapport-building strategies informed by the behaviorist, cognitivist, constructivist, and humanist schools of psychology; how can the information garnered from a literary analysis guide the transformation of teacher disposition policy; what are best practice techniques for teachers to build rapport in the secondary instrumental ensemble as implied by the data?

Delimitations

Data collection was limited to one peer-reviewed journal and twelve scholars of educational psychology. Policy recommendations were designed to match the language and structure of InTASC (2011) disposition standards and do not include measurement of said recommendations. Best practice techniques are provided to inform teacher behavior and pedagogy both generally and specific to the music classroom, and such techniques are contextualized to teacher behavior and student participant structure.

METHODOLOGY

Teacher-student rapport is an important factor in the learning process of students in classrooms, and late and current leaders in educational psychology recognized that the social context of learning is one of great importance. The link between these two related matters in education seems to be missing. The question "how are teacher-student rapport-building strategies informed by the behaviorist, cognitivist, constructivist, and humanist schools of psychology?" was explored via content analysis of a peer-reviewed journal of educational psychology. Holsti (1969) simply explained content analysis as being, "any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specific characteristics of messages" (p. 14). Content analyses are used to generate data to determine trends, patterns, or scholarly representation and authorship in a large amount of literature (Stemler, 2001). Krippendorff (1980) listed six questions that must be answered before conducting a content analysis: Which data are analyzed? How are they defined? What is the population from which they are drawn? What is the context relative to which the data are analyzed? What are the boundaries of the analysis? What is the target of the inferences?

Data Collection

Last names of authors in the references section of scholarly literature were inspected for data collection. Two levels of citations were considered. For example, the references of a journal article were examined, and the references of those references were also examined. A total of 82 articles from the *Journal of Educational Psychology* were examined.

Coding

Scholarly literature in the sample that cite, on either level, the last name of at least one of the educational psychologists discussed in the literature review were defined as "1" for the corresponding school. Samples that did not were defined as "0". For example, an article citing Skinner and Piaget would be considered Behaviorist = 1, Cognitivist = 0, Constructivist = 1, and Humanist = 0. To establish a baseline of coding reliability, two music education scholars engaged in the aforementioned coding process with a portion of the sample. Intercoder reliability was calculated using an inter-coder percent agreement. A relatively robust percent agreement was found (.96) as .96 between two coders examining about 7% of the sample (six articles). The percent agreement meets

Sample

The data was retrieved from the reference sections of articles from the peer-reviewed *Journal of Educational Psychology*. A set of words distilled from the deductive and inductive elucidation of *rapport* in the literature (see Appendix C) was used to filter searches for articles from the *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Articles used in the sample lists at least one of the words in Appendix C in the title or keyword section as outlined by the EBSCO*host* database were included in the sample. Said articles must have been published between the years 1950 and 2017.

DATA RESULTS

Data in Figure 2 present the percentage of representation of each school of psychology by considering the first or second level of references in the sample. For example, almost 70%, or 52 articles, of publications from the *Journal of Educational Psychology* discussing elements of rapport-building behaviors (as determined by the literary analysis), or their references, cite John Dewey, Jean Piaget, or Lev Vygotsky at least once. Data in Figure 2 do not accurately indicate frequency. For example, an article citing all three names from one school generated the same data as an article citing only one name from the same school.

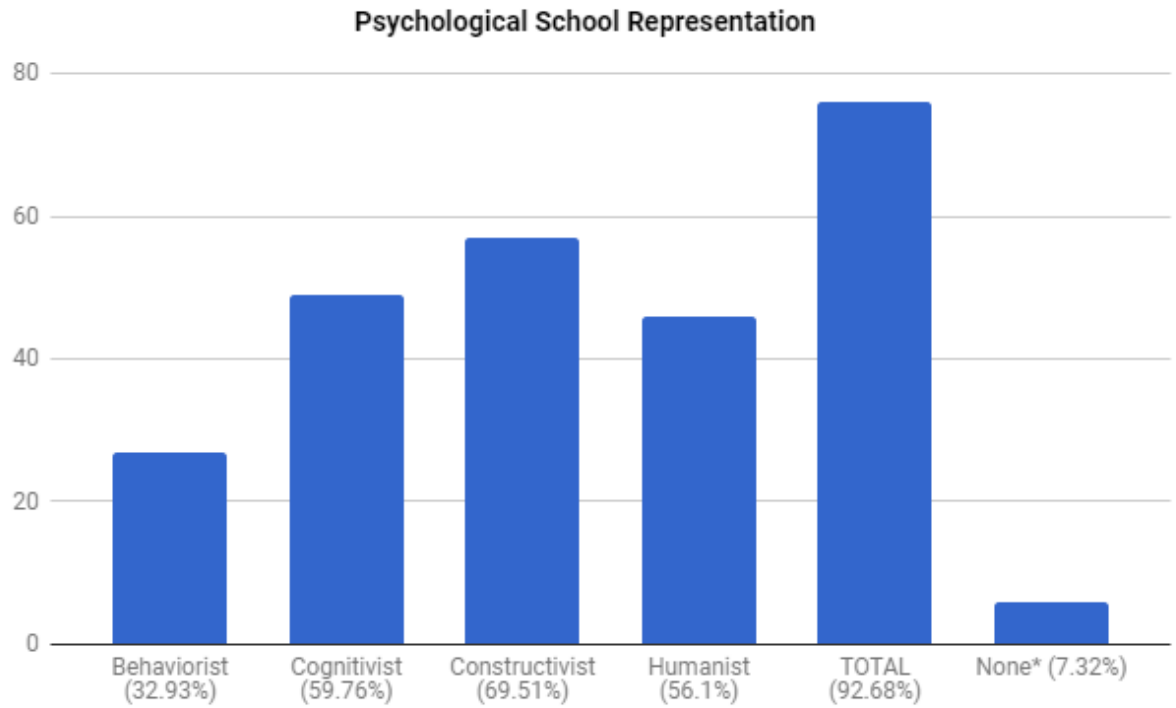

Figure 2. Percentage of sample citing each psychological school. *Amount of sample that did not cite any of the twelve scholars of educational psychology.

Data in Figure 3 present the number of articles in the sample citing each educational psychologist discussed in the literature review. For example, 32 articles from the *Journal of*

Educational Psychology, or their references, cite Jean Piaget at least once. Data in Figure 3 are a more accurate representation of frequency of citations in comparison to Figure 2; however, they are not completely accurate. For example, an article citing Lev Vygotsky once generated the same data as an article citing the same name several times.

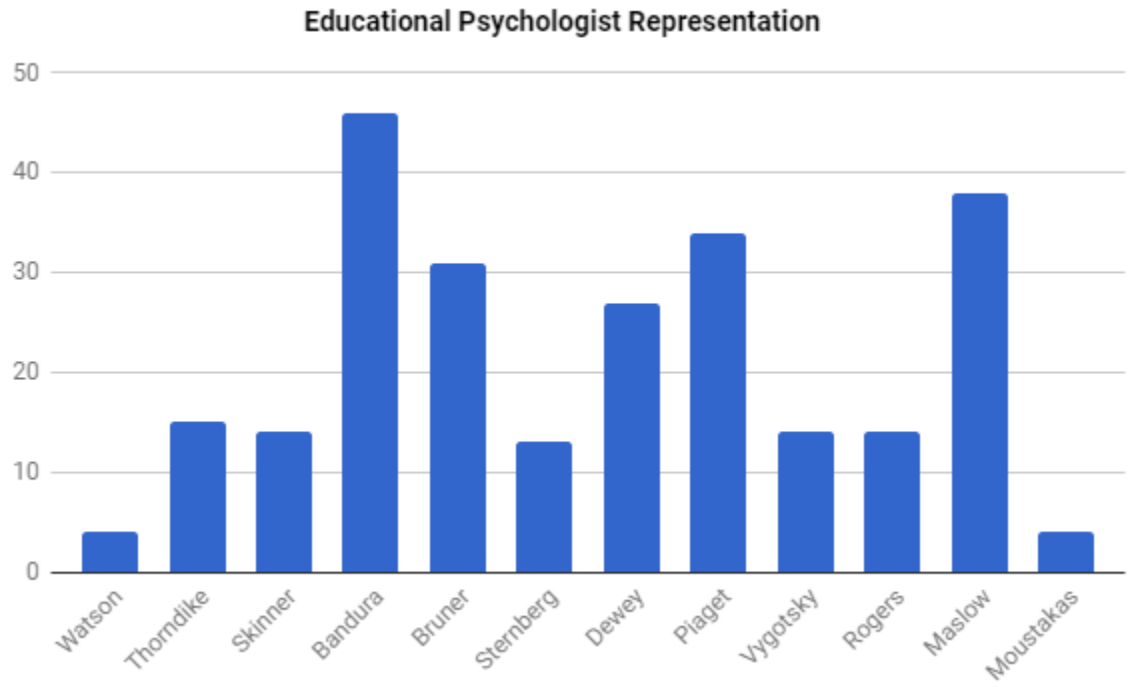

Figure 3. Number of of times each scholar of educational psychology is cited by an article the sample at least once.

DISCUSSION

Research Question 1

Data in Figure 2 suggest that principles and seminal work of the constructivist school of psychology are most comprehensively represented in one collection of discussions (the sample) examining elements of rapport-building in the classroom. Authors of the sample discussed multiple elements of rapport identified in the literature review, and constructivist psychologists are most widespread in one or two levels of citations of said sample. Certain educational psychologists representing one of the other three schools were cited more frequently in specific components of rapport-building in comparison to other components. For example, authors of the sample examining agency and motivation frequently cited Albert Bandura; however, authors examining other topics did not. Data in Figure 3 suggest that Albert Bandura, Abraham Maslow, and Jean Piaget, through their seminal work and human learning theories, are most commonly cited by authors of the sample arguing for elements impacting rapport-building identified in the literature review. Only implications can be made about the connection among principles of the constructivist school, theories of Bandura, Maslow, and Piaget, and elements of rapport-building because the data does not reveal any direct links between said theories and elements.

Research Question 2

Teacher behaviors, actions, and skills that contribute to building positive rapport with students through communication and emotional understanding have been identified and reviewed. A list of such contributions will be compiled and distilled in preparation for creating a set of "rapport disposition standards" to be suggested for implementation in teacher education programs. Dispositions are sets of values, beliefs, and attitudes that dictate the teacher's

application of knowledge and skills (Wilkerson & Lang, 2007); the final step of creating the rapport disposition standards will involve "translating" teacher behaviors, actions, and skills to values, beliefs, and attitudes.

Summary of Positive Rapport-Building Behaviors

Presented behaviors, actions, and skills were listed, compared, and reorganized into categories of similarity. For example, verbal immediacy can be demonstrated by expressing interest in student conversations, and an element of affective student-teacher relationships includes a teacher's genuine investment in student conversations. Both behaviors derive from different topics in the literature but are grouped together due to similarity. Categories of behaviors that emerge from the organizing process are: socio-cultural investment, positive expression, honoring of student voice, informative reflection, sensitivity and understanding, and nonverbal immediacy.

Socio-cultural investment guides the teacher to demonstrate active interest in conversation topics initially determined by the student so long as they are appropriate. Genuineness during this engagement is reinforced by the desire to connect with and relate to the student in the context of the conversation, and strong bonds can be made in this way through recognition of the student's cultural interests and identity. Relevance to instruction would be a concern in this area as the reigns cannot be solely given to the student, but this method of positive rapport-building is applicable both in and out of the classroom. Examples of appropriate non-classroom contexts are: after school clubs, school-wide assemblies, student assistantship, and open house, school-sponsored, community functions.

Positive expression, both verbal and nonverbal, can involve the teacher using humor, friendly interaction, optimism, praise, kindness, and positive facial expressions to establish a

warm and supportive atmosphere where a student may feel more welcome. Positivity can be used as a vehicle for instruction as well as a normative communication style in all contexts of interacting with students.

Honoring of student voice is perhaps the most crucial element of good rapport-building teacher behavior. The will to listen sends a message to students that they can open up in the classroom with new ideas, reflections on learning, and circumstantial concerns that may otherwise not be addressed. Trustworthiness is an important part of positive rapport, and it is promoted through attentive, honest, and passionate listening to students' thoughts and expressions. It is an effective tool to promote both student-teacher connection and effective instruction.

Informative reflection tasks the teacher to recall past experiences, whether they be personal, with current students and their learning, or from observation of another colleague. Critical evaluation of such experiences in the context of student socio-emotional and cognitive impact must follow the recollection in a way that informs the teacher's practice, communication, and emotional connection with each student. A continual, reflective practice in this manner is not a perfect way to address the ever-changing needs of individual students and the society they live in, but it promotes a growth mindset within teachers that will maintain positive and trustworthy connections with their students.

Sensitivity and understanding can be considered the most empathic category of teacher behavior synthesized in this discussion. It can also be connected to honoring of student voice and informative reflection as all three categories can provide valuable information to each other. Sensitivity and understanding is unique in that it requires the teacher to adapt to remote realities

and feelings such that delivery of instruction and overall communication can be executed in a manner that caters to the socio-emotional occasion of each student.

Nonverbal immediacy is a simple-sounding but truly complex craft of teaching practice. It is the only category with a name unoriginal to this discussion only because its principles are unique and almost always applicable during any interaction with students. Body language moves deeper into the primitive side of human interaction in that it is assumed to have been used long before any form of syntax developed in our species (Wade, 2006). Teachers can excel in the utilization of all other new categories of good rapport-building, yet, failure to do so with proximity, imitative body movement, and even eye contact may negatively impact the relationship between them and their students.

Proposed Items for InTASC Disposition Standards

The Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium provides 43 "Critical Dispositions" organized in ten categories of standards (InTASC, 2011). Examples of categories are: "Learning Differences", "Context Knowledge", "Application of Knowledge", and "Assessment". Presented is an 11th category to be nested beneath the macro category "The Learner and Learning" titled "Learner Relation". Within this new standard are six suggested Critical Dispositions to facilitate positive rapport with students:

4(a) The teacher is invested in the social and cultural identities and interests of learners.

4(b) The teacher values expressing and promoting positive interactions among learners.

4(c) The teacher is driven to encourage and honor each learner's voice.

4(d) The teacher engages in reflective practice in the contexts of communication, emotion, and human connection.

4(e) The teacher seeks to empathize with learners' diverse, socio-emotional and academic needs and is committed to tactful reasoning.

4(f) The teacher explores improving the craft of effective communication beyond verbal discourse.

It is recommended that policy makers of InTASC and university teacher education representatives consider elements of this model or the model in its entirety as opportunities to supplement current teacher disposition standards for the purpose of cultivating positive rapport-building attitudes and behaviors within teachers in training.

Research Question 3

As stated in the response to Research Question 1, data results can imply links between rapport-building strategies and theories of Bandura, Maslow, and Piaget as well as principles of the constructivist school. Provided in this section is a synthesis of said implications in the form of practical applications intended to be used by secondary instrumental music educators in the field who wish to build positive rapport with their students. Such applications are also designed to help facilitate deeper learning, for teachers cannot solely rely on positive rapport to promote favorable student outcomes (Nguyen, 2007; Wilson & Ryan, 2013). Implications of the data presented in Figures 2 and 3 are synthesized in the context of the large ensemble.

Large Ensemble Applications

Bandura (1986) argued through his social cognitive theory that student learning and social engagement is positively correlated with self-efficacy, or the student's perceived ability to perform a task. He (1997) explained that feelings of anxiety and fear can hinder self-efficacy, and ways to mitigate such feelings include: fostering a climate of trust and respect in the

classroom, using positive verbal persuasion, and considering students' socio-emotional needs for growth. Bandura (2001) illuminated the importance of relevance of classroom goals to students and their levels of self-efficacy in that the more connected they are to content and objectives, the more likely they are to engage in active participation. Bandura (2012) disclosed that a student's level of self-efficacy can increase when observing his peers venturing in or attempting his own ideas, whether they be actions, suggestions, or interpretations. Presented are teaching strategies and behaviors that may build positive rapport and facilitate deeper learning in the large ensemble as related to Bandura's learning theories:

The teacher…

- informs own knowledge of students' socio-emotional needs for growth through personal, connecting conversation.
- engages in students' referential (Reimer, 2010) connections to rehearsed repertoire and permits exploration of expressive interpretation of said connections.
- encourages students to participate in the music selection process in some fashion.
- encourages individual students to demonstrate interpretations of musical passages then instructs peers to attempt same interpretation.
- is consistently transparent about instructing in the best interest of the students' musical and personal development.

Maslow (1943) presented specific classifications of each need in the hierarchy that are also relevant in the education context. Students' physiological needs include health needs such as nutrition, sleep, and treatment for health problems, and their safety needs are both physical and mental. He argued that it can be difficult or unattainable for individuals to focus on needs higher

up on the hierarchy if there are deficiencies below. Teachers' efforts in building positive rapport with students may be unproductive if the students' physiological and safety needs are not met. Students' social belongingness and esteem needs are generally met when they feel accepted and valued in the surrounding environment, and if such needs are not met, it may be difficult for them to self-actualize in the academic situation. Students' self-actualization needs are met when they realize and strive for their full potentials in academic and social contexts, and their self-transcendence (Maslow, 1971) is achieved during moments of egocentric alleviation where they are able to engage in selfless thought and expression. Presented are teaching strategies and behaviors that may build positive rapport and facilitate deeper learning in the large ensemble as related to Maslow's learning theories:

The teacher:

- is cognizant of students' well-being through observations of their energy/engagement, body language, eating habits, and family/friend interactions and addresses concerns through private conversation.
- establishes a classroom environment that welcomes and values every student and expects students to adopt the same philosophies as they interact with their peers.
- articulates gratitude and relevant praise in response to students' demonstrations of expressive identities (performance) during the feedback process.
- recognize a healthy balance between students' confidence and humility as it relates to how peers are impacted by such expressions.
- consistently raises standards of musicianship and community in response to achievement through promoting reflective processes and demonstrations of exemplary performance.

- can adopt the servant-leader (Johnson, 2013) role to encourage shared altruistic moments within the ensemble.

Piaget (1952) explained a schema as, “a cohesive, repeatable action sequence possessing component actions that are tightly interconnected and governed by a core meaning.” (p. 7). to help describe the phenomenon of how humans process and store information. Teachers who approach the learning environment in a collaborative role can more effectively aid, in comparison to the autocratic role, in the student’s processes of assimilation, where he refers new content to prior experiences and knowledge, and accommodation, where he adjusts his schema to better understand the new content. Students who are unable to assimilate or accommodate new information may reject it, a possibility that can be influenced by the teacher’s instructional and affective pedagogy (Piaget, 1997). Piaget (1972) argued that, by age 11, children are capable of formal operations of cognition, meaning they can think abstractly and make logical decisions. Presented are teaching strategies and behaviors that may build positive rapport and facilitate deeper learning in the large ensemble as related to Piaget’s learning theories:

The teacher:

- is sensitive to what students perceive to be true during the acquisition stage of instruction.
- understands when students disagree with or resist new information and helps them to understand it in a different way.
- instructs with tact catered to the emotional profile of the student.
- recognizes and utilizes students’ abilities to think critically and abstractly about the expression and artistic merit of class repertoire.

Constructivist theorists assert that humans cognitively build their own understanding and knowledge in response to external stimuli. Researchers outlined seven pedagogical components of constructive principles (Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Larochelle et al., 1998; Steffe & Gale, 1995). Secondary music educators can effectively pursue these pedagogical components with a chamber music unit structured into their large ensemble classroom (Berg, 2008; Neidlinger, 2011). Provided below are the seven components with subsequent pedagogical relevance (a) and rapport-building relevance (b) to the chamber music context.

1. Learning should include social engagement and negotiation.

    a. chamber music rehearsals can involve collaborative efforts though verbal and performance communication among students during the rehearsal process.
    b. teacher-student ratio is increased as each chamber ensemble is coached by teacher which can promote more rapport-building opportunities.

2. Subject matter should be made relevant to students.

    a. repertoire-student ratio is increased in chamber music units allowing the teacher more flexibility in selecting repertoire that students can connect with more deeply.
    b. differentiated repertoire selections can promote individual student identity which can develop trust and esteem as a result of the teacher's decision.

3. Subject matter should be understood within the framework of students' prior knowledge.

a. students can be grouped with peers of specific, musical background and skill (either similar or complementary), promoting more opportunities of appropriate repertoire selection.
b. differentiated repertoire selections can cater to students' academic needs, a recognition as a result of the teacher's decision.

4. Students should be assessed in ways that inform the teacher about their future learning needs (formative assessment).

    a. chamber music setting can provide and expose more opportunities to evaluate students' academic needs in determining room for improvement (Gooslby, 1994).
    b. differentiated repertoire selections can effectively cater to students' academic needs, a recognition as a result of the teacher's decision.

5. Students should engage in self-regulatory, self-motivated, and self-aware experiences.

    a. chamber music ensembles can primarily be student-lead, providing opportunities for students to explore these dispositions in the music context.
    b. the teacher can supply students in chamber ensembles with reflective tasks, activities, and conversations, promoting an environment where students' voices are heard.

6. Teachers should guide the learning process instead of lecturing.

    a. students in chamber music ensembles receive coaching from teacher on occasion and otherwise lead their own progress and learning.

b. teachers can easily adopt a collaborative role with students in chamber music.

7. Teachers should offer comprehensive approaches to understanding subject matter.

    a. teachers can supply students with rehearsal strategies and facilitate dedication of time to non-paraxial analyses of the class repertoire (such as historical context and composer information
    b. students in chamber groups can be permitted more flexibility in exploring the repertoire by means that are catered to their specific interests and cognition styles.

Limitations of the Study

The *Journal of Educational Psychology* was the only peer-reviewed journal that was considered in the methodology of this study to explore any connection between positive rapport-building behaviors and principles of educational psychology. Data collected from other scholarly literature may suggest differing significance in the contexts of best practice in the secondary instrumental music ensemble and teacher disposition standards. The coding process excluded recognition of one scholar of educational psychology referenced more than once in a single article; therefore, the educational psychologists most numerically cited by the sample may differ from data represented in Figure 3. Several scholars who were frequently cited in the sample were not initially considered in the literature review. Inclusion of the arguments of said scholars may have influenced the inductive and deductive analyses of *rapport*. The data does not reveal the specific connection between positive rapport-building behaviors and principles of educational psychologists from article to article. Finally, citations in the sample that do not match one of the twelve last names of scholars of educational psychology were not considered in the coding process; therefore, comparison of representation of educational psychologists versus other

scholars was not revealed. In consideration of these limitations, only implications can be made from the discussion and results of this study.

Recommendations for Further Research

In response to both the results of this study and the limitations, suggestions for further exploration of the topic of positive teacher-student rapport-building in the music classroom are provided. Implications made from the literature review and the data results can be applied in the secondary instrumental music classroom to explore whether there are any links between such suggestions in practice and student achievement and/or quality of teacher-student rapport from the perspectives of students, teachers, and administration. A longitudinal study can be conducted to examine the effectiveness of application of the proposed disposition standards outlined by this study in cultivating positive rapport-building values and behaviors in preservice teachers. A broader content analysis can be conducted to provide more comprehensively-informed implications of connections between the effects of positive teacher-student rapport and principles of educational psychology by including more literature in the sample. A content analysis can be conducted to discover keyword trends in scholars' discussions of rapport that are more accurate than the trends outlined in the literature.

CONCLUSION

The music education profession has undergone transformation in philosophy, practice, and policy at varying levels to continue advancing its positive impact on music students. Practitioners, researchers, and policymakers must continue to explore, design, and implement such developments to address the current and future needs of students in our changing society (Jorgensen, 2003; Reimer, 2010). In classroom environments where students are consistently engaging in socially and emotionally vulnerable tasks, such as musical expression, self-evaluation, and peer collaboration, teachers should be expected to be consistently critical of their values and behaviors that impact the emotional, intersubjective experiences of said students. It is time for practitioners in the music education profession and teacher education leaders to facilitate an exhaustive approach towards supporting the quality of relationship among teachers and students in the classroom. The discussions and results of this study are intended to aid in exploring this important frontier for the sake of promoting positive student outcomes and experiences. The phenomenon of the teacher-student relationship and its relevance to student academic and personal development in the music classroom and other educational contexts should continue to be scrutinized to further inform best practice and teacher education programs.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Document A1

NCATE Unit Standards

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework[3] establishes the shared vision for a unit's efforts in preparing educators to work effectively in P–12 schools. It provides direction for programs, courses, teaching, candidate performance, scholarship, service, and unit accountability. The conceptual framework is knowledge based, articulated, shared, coherent, consistent with the unit and institutional mission, and continuously evaluated.

Standard 1: *Candidate Knowledge, Skills, and Professional Dispositions*

Candidates[4] preparing to work in schools as teachers or other school professionals know and demonstrate the content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and skills, pedagogical and professional knowledge and skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students[5] learn. Assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional[6] standards.

Standard 2: *Assessment System and Unit Evaluation*

The unit has an assessment system that collects and analyzes data on applicant qualifications, candidate and graduate performance, and unit operations to evaluate and improve the performance of candidates, the unit, and its programs.

Standard 3: *Field Experiences and Clinical Practice*

The unit and its school partners design, implement, and evaluate field experiences and clinical practice so that teacher candidates and other school professionals develop and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students learn.

Standard 4: *Diversity*

The unit designs, implements, and evaluates curriculum and provides experiences for candidates to acquire and demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students learn. Assessments indicate that candidates can demonstrate and apply proficiencies related to diversity. Experiences provided for candidates include working with diverse populations, including higher education and P–12 school faculty, candidates, and students in P–12 schools.

[3] At its discretion, the unit may operate with a single framework for all programs or a different framework for each or some of its programs.

[4] Candidates include persons preparing to teach, teachers who are continuing their professional development, and persons preparing for other professional roles in schools such as principals, school psychologists, and school library media specialists.

[5] "All students" includes students with exceptionalities and of different ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation, language, religious, socioeconomic, and regional/geographic origins.

[6] Institutional standards are reflected in the unit's conceptual framework and include candidate proficiencies.

Standard 5: *Faculty Qualifications, Performance, and Development*

Faculty are qualified and model best professional practices in scholarship, service, and teaching, including the assessment of their own effectiveness as related to candidate performance. They also collaborate with colleagues in the disciplines and schools. The unit systematically evaluates faculty performance and facilitates professional development.

Standard 6: *Unit Governance and Resources*

The unit has the leadership, authority, budget, personnel, facilities, and resources, including information technology resources, for the preparation of candidates to meet professional, state, and institutional standards.

The following pages provide the reader information about the meaning of the conceptual framework and the six NCATE standards. Rubrics that accompany each standard address the critical elements of the standard and describe different levels of performance required to meet the standard. The supporting explanations include a rationale for the standard and additional explanation of each standard's meaning.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A conceptual framework[7] establishes the shared vision for a unit's efforts in preparing educators to work in P–12 schools. It provides direction for programs, courses, teaching, candidate performance, scholarship, service, and unit accountability. The conceptual framework is knowledge-based, articulated, shared, coherent, consistent with the unit and/or institutional mission, and continuously evaluated. The conceptual framework provides the bases that describe the unit's intellectual philosophy and institutional standards, which distinguish graduates of one institution from those of another.

Faculty members in the unit are expected to collaborate with members of their professional community in developing a conceptual framework that establishes the vision for the unit and its programs. The conceptual framework provides the basis for coherence among curriculum, instruction, field experiences, clinical practice, assessment and evaluation. It makes the unit's professional commitments and professional dispositions explicit. It reflects the unit's commitment to diversity and the preparation of educators who help all students learn. It reflects the unit's commitment to the integration of technology to enhance candidate and student learning. The conceptual framework also aligns the professional and state standards with candidate proficiencies expected by the unit and programs for the preparation of educators.

The conceptual framework includes the following aligned structural elements:

- vision and mission of the institution and unit;
- philosophy, purposes, goals/institutional standards of the unit;
- knowledge bases, including theories, research, the wisdom of practice, and educational policies that drive the work of the unit;
- candidate proficiencies related to expected knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions, including proficiencies associated with diversity and technology, that are aligned with the expectations in professional, state, and institutional standards; and a
- summarized description of the unit's assessment system.

Each unit seeking accreditation for the first time is required to submit its conceptual framework as a precondition for establishing eligibility for NCATE accreditation. In addition, it will include an overview of the conceptual framework in the introductory section of the institutional report.

An institution preparing for a continuing visit will include an overview of its conceptual framework in the introductory section of the continuing report. This overview must include a description of the framework, its development, and changes since the previous

[7] At its discretion, the unit may operate with a single framework for all programs or a different framework for each or some of its programs.

visit, including the relationship of the conceptual framework revisions to updated standards and assessments of the unit, profession, or state. The unit will also report evaluations of the conceptual framework and resulting changes in the NCATE annual report.

Board of Examiners teams will look for evidence of the conceptual framework and report their findings in (1) the introductory section of the team report and (2) responses to standards throughout the team report.

Standard 1: *Candidate[8] Knowledge, Skills, and Professional Dispositions*

Candidates preparing to work in schools as teachers or other school professionals know and demonstrate the content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and skills, pedagogical and professional knowledge and skills, and professional dispositions necessary to help all students[9] learn. Assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional standards.

1a. Content Knowledge for Teacher Candidates
(Initial and Advanced Preparation of Teachers)

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Teacher candidates have inadequate knowledge of content that they plan to teach and are unable to give examples of important principles and concepts delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. Fewer than 80 percent of the unit's program completers pass the content examinations in states that require examinations for licensure. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers do not have an in-depth knowledge of the content that they teach.	Teacher candidates know the content that they plan to teach and can explain important principles and concepts delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. Eighty percent or more of the unit's program completers pass the content examinations in states that require examinations for licensure. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers have an in-depth knowledge of the content that they teach.	Teacher candidates have in-depth knowledge of the content that they plan to teach as described in professional, state, and institutional standards. They demonstrate their knowledge through inquiry, critical analysis, and synthesis of the subject. All program completers pass the content examinations in states that require examinations for licensure. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers are recognized experts in the content that they teach.

[8] Candidates include persons preparing to teach, teachers who are continuing their professional development, and persons preparing for other professional roles in schools such as principals, school psychologists, and school library media specialists.

[9] "All students" includes students with exceptionalities and of different ethnic, racial, gender, sexual orientation, language, religious, socioeconomic, and regional/geographic origins.

1b. Pedagogical Content Knowledge and Skills for Teacher Candidates

(Initial and Advanced Preparation of Teachers)

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Teacher candidates do not understand the relationship of content and content-specific pedagogy delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards in a way that helps them develop learning experiences that integrate technology and build on students' cultural backgrounds and knowledge of content so that students learn. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers have a limited understanding of the relationship between content and content-specific pedagogy; they are unable to explain the linkages between theory and practice. They are not able to select or use a broad range of instructional strategies that promote student learning.	Teacher candidates understand the relationship of content and content-specific pedagogy delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They have a broad knowledge of instructional strategies that draws upon content and pedagogical knowledge and skills delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards to help all students learn. They facilitate student learning of the content through presentation of the content in clear and meaningful ways and through the integration of technology. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers demonstrate an in-depth understanding of the content of their field and of the theories related to pedagogy and learning. They are able to select and use a broad range of instructional strategies and technologies that promote student learning and are able to clearly explain the choices they make in their practice.	Teacher candidates reflect a thorough understanding of the relationship of content and content-specific pedagogy delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They have in-depth understanding of the content that they plan to teach and are able to provide multiple explanations and instructional strategies so that all students learn. They present the content to students in challenging, clear, and compelling ways, using real-world contexts and integrating technology appropriately. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers have expertise in pedagogical content knowledge and share their expertise through leadership and mentoring roles in their schools and communities. They understand and address student preconceptions that hinder learning. They are able to critique research and theories related to pedagogy and learning. They are able to select and develop instructional strategies and technologies, based on research and experience, that help all students learn.

1c. Professional and Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills for Teacher Candidates

(Initial and Advanced Preparation of Teachers)

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Teacher candidates have not mastered professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They lack knowledge of school, family, and community contexts, and they are unable to develop learning experiences that draw on students' prior experience. They do not reflect on their work, nor do they use current research to inform their practice. They are unable to explain major schools of thought about schooling, teaching, and learning. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers do not reflect on their practice and cannot recognize their strengths and areas of needed improvement. They do not engage in professional development. They do not keep abreast of current research and policies on schooling, teaching, learning, and best practices. They are not engaged with the professional community to develop meaningful learning experiences.	Teacher candidates can apply the professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards to facilitate learning. They consider the school, family, and community contexts in which they work and the prior experience of students to develop meaningful learning experiences. They reflect on their practice. They know major schools of thought about schooling, teaching, and learning. They are able to analyze educational research findings and incorporate new information into their practice as appropriate. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers reflect on their practice and are able to identify their strengths and areas of needed improvement. They engage in professional activities. They have a thorough understanding of the school, family, and community contexts in which they work, and they collaborate with the professional community to create meaningful learning experiences for all students. They are aware of current research and policies related to schooling, teaching, learning, and best practices. They are able to analyze educational research and policies and can explain the implications for their own practice and for the profession.	Teacher candidates reflect a thorough understanding of professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They develop meaningful learning experiences to facilitate learning for all students. They reflect on their practice and make necessary adjustments to enhance student learning. They know how students learn and how to make ideas accessible to them. They consider school, family, and community contexts in connecting concepts to students' prior experience and applying the ideas to real-world issues. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers develop expertise in certain aspects of professional and pedagogical knowledge and contribute to the dialogue based on their research and experiences. They take on leadership roles in the professional community and collaborate with colleagues to contribute to school improvement and renewal.

1d. Student Learning for Teacher Candidates
(Initial and Advanced Preparation of Teachers)

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Teacher candidates cannot accurately assess student learning or develop learning experiences based on students' developmental levels or prior experience. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers have a limited understanding of the major concepts and theories related to assessing student learning. They do not use classroom performance data to make decisions about teaching strategies. They do not use community resources to support student learning.	Teacher candidates focus on student learning. Teacher candidates assess and analyze student learning, make appropriate adjustments to instruction, and monitor student progress. They are able to develop and implement meaningful learning experiences for students based on their developmental levels and prior experience. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers have a thorough understanding of the major concepts and theories related to assessing student learning and regularly apply these in their practice. They analyze student, classroom, and school performance data and make data-driven decisions about strategies for teaching and learning so that all students learn. They are aware of and utilize school and community resources that support student learning.	Teacher candidates focus on student learning and study the effects of their work. They assess and analyze student learning, make appropriate adjustments to instruction, monitor student learning, and have a positive effect on learning for all students. Candidates in advanced programs for teachers have a thorough understanding of assessment. They analyze student, classroom, and school performance data and make data-driven decisions about strategies for teaching and learning so that all students learn. They collaborate with other professionals to identify and design strategies and interventions that support student learning.

1e. Knowledge and Skills for Other School Professionals[10]

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Candidates for other professional school roles have not mastered the knowledge that undergirds their fields and is delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They are not able to use data, research or technology. They do not understand the cultural contexts of the school(s) in which they provide professional services. Fewer than 80 percent of the unit's program completers pass the academic content examinations in states that require such examinations for licensure.	Candidates for other professional school roles have an adequate understanding of the knowledge expected in their fields and delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They know their students, families, and communities; use data and current research to inform their practices; use technology in their practices; and support student learning through their professional services. Eighty percent or more of the unit's program completers pass the academic content examinations in states that require such examinations for licensure.	Candidates for other professional school roles have an in-depth understanding of knowledge in their fields as delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards and demonstrated through inquiry, critical analysis, and synthesis. They collect and analyze data related to their work, reflect on their practice, and use research and technology to support and improve student learning. All program completers pass the academic content examinations in states that require such examinations for licensure.

[10] Pedagogical knowledge for other school professionals, such as librarians and reading specialists, who teach on a regular basis can be found in the professional standards for those fields.

1f. Student Learning for Other School Professionals

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Candidates for other professional school roles cannot facilitate student learning as they carry out their specialized roles in schools. They are unable to create positive environments for student learning appropriate to their responsibilities in schools. They do not have an understanding of the diversity and policy contexts within which they work.	Candidates for other professional school roles are able to create positive environments for student learning. They understand and build upon the developmental levels of students with whom they work; the diversity of students, families, and communities; and the policy contexts within which they work.	Candidates for other professional school roles critique and are able to reflect on their work within the context of student learning. They establish educational environments that support student learning, collect and analyze data related to student learning, and apply strategies for improving student learning within their own jobs and schools.

1g. Professional Dispositions for All Candidates

UNACCEPTABLE	ACCEPTABLE	TARGET
Candidates are not familiar with professional dispositions delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. Candidates do not demonstrate classroom behaviors that are consistent with the ideal of fairness and the belief that all students can learn. They do not model these professional dispositions in their work with students, families, colleagues, and communities.	Candidates are familiar with the professional dispositions delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. Candidates demonstrate classroom behaviors that are consistent with the ideal of fairness and the belief that all students can learn. Their work with students, families, colleagues and communities reflects these professional dispositions.	Candidates work with students, families, colleagues, and communities in ways that reflect the professional dispositions expected of professional educators as delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. Candidates demonstrate classroom behaviors that create caring and supportive learning environments and encourage self-directed learning by all students. Candidates recognize when their own professional dispositions may need to be adjusted and are able to develop plans to do so.

Supporting Explanation:

The knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions outlined in this standard are based on current research in teaching and learning and on best practices in professional education. Each element reflects an important component of the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions that educators need to develop in order to help all students learn. The knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions in this standard should be reflected in the unit's conceptual framework and assessed as part of the unit's assessment system. The data from the assessment system should be used to demonstrate candidate learning of the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions stated herein.

Teachers must have sufficient knowledge of content to help all students meet standards for P–12 education. The guiding principle of the teaching profession is that student learning is the goal of teaching. NCATE's Standard 1 reinforces the importance of this goal by requiring that teacher candidates know their content or subject matter, can teach effectively, and can help all students learn. All school professionals are expected to carry out their work in ways that are supportive of student learning.

Educator licensure standards adopted by most states require that educators demonstrate knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions that enable them to address the needs of all learners. Therefore, candidates preparing to teach or work as other professional educators in P–12 schools are expected to demonstrate the candidate learning proficiencies identified in the unit's conceptual framework, in the standards of national professional organizations which should be aligned with standards for P–12 students, and in state licensing standards.

To help institutions better prepare teacher candidates to meet state licensing requirements, NCATE has aligned its unit and program standards with the principles of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC). First and foremost, NCATE and INTASC expect teacher candidates to know the content of their disciplines, including their central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures.

Teacher candidates are expected to meet professional standards for the subjects that they plan to teach as these have been defined in standards for students in P–12 schools and standards for the preparation of teachers. Candidates are expected to meet professional standards of other national accrediting organizations (e.g., the National Association of Schools of Music and the National Association of Schools of Art and Design) or NCATE's professional standards for teachers of early childhood education; elementary education; middle-level education; special education; gifted education; environmental education; and secondary education (including English/language arts, mathematics. science, social studies. computer science, technology education. health. physical education, foreign languages, and English as a second language[11]).

As part of the program review process, institutions must submit candidate assessments, scoring guides, performance data, and other program documents that respond to professional standards for national

[11] Professional standards for the programs listed and directions for preparing documentation can be downloaded from NCATE's website: *www.ncate.org*. A list of programs with professional standards can be found on page 47.

and/or state review. The program review process is an important component of NCATE accreditation. Information from the program review process should be used to address the elements in Standard 1 on content knowledge, professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills, pedagogical content knowledge, and student learning.

NCATE expects teacher candidates to demonstrate knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions[12] to provide learning opportunities supporting students' intellectual, social, and personal development. Teacher candidates are able to create instructional opportunities adapted to diverse learners. They encourage students' development of critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills. They are able to create learning environments encouraging positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation. Teacher candidates foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom. They plan instruction based upon knowledge of content, students, families, the community, and curriculum goals. Teacher candidates evaluate students' academic achievement as well as their social and physical development and use the results to maximize students' motivation and learning. They are able to reflect on and continually evaluate the effects of choices and actions on others and actively seek out opportunities to grow professionally. They also are able to foster relationships with school colleagues, parents and families, and agencies in the larger community to support students' learning and well-being.

Candidates preparing to work in schools as teachers or other school professionals need a sound professional knowledge base to understand learning and the context of schools, families, and communities. They understand and are able to apply knowledge related to the social, historical, and philosophical foundations of education,[13] professional ethics, law, and policy. They know the ways children and adolescents learn and develop, including their cognitive and affective development and the relationship of these to learning. They understand language acquisition; cultural influences on learning; exceptionalities;[14] diversity of student populations, families, and communities; and inclusion and equity in classrooms and schools. They are able to appropriately and effectively integrate technology and information literacy in instruction to support student learning. They understand the importance of using research in teaching and other professional roles and know the roles and responsibilities of the education profession.

Candidates for all professional education roles develop and model professional dispositions that are expected of educators. The unit includes as professional dispositions the ideal of fairness and the belief that all students can learn. Based on its mission, the unit may determine additional professional dispositions it wants candidates to develop. The unit articulates professional dispositions as part of its conceptual framework. The unit systematically assesses the development of appropriate professional dispositions by candidates.[15] Professional dispositions are not assessed directly; instead the unit assesses dispositions based on observable behavior in educational settings.

[12] This list is based on the standards of the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC). The complete INTASC document includes knowledge, professional dispositions, and performance related to each principle. It is available on the website of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), *www.ccsso.org/intasc.html*.

[13] Information about what candidates should understand and be able to apply related to the social, historical, and philosophical foundations of education may be obtained from the standards promulgated by the Council for Social Foundations of Education.

[14] A physical, mental, or emotional condition, including gifted/talented abilities, that requires individualized instruction and/or other educational support or services.

[15] Codes of ethics may be helpful in thinking about professional dispositions and are available from a number of professional associations, including the National Education Association (NEA) and the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC).

Candidates for all professional education roles are expected to demonstrate the ability to affect student learning. Teachers and teacher candidates have student learning as the focus of their work. They are able to develop and administer appropriate assessments and to use assessments as formative and summative tools. They are able to create meaningful learning experiences by judging prior student knowledge, planning and implementing lessons, assessing student learning, reflecting on student learning, and making adjustments to their teaching to improve learning. Other school professionals are able to create and maintain positive environments, as appropriate to their professional responsibilities, which support student learning in educational settings.

Throughout the program, teacher candidates develop the knowledge bases for analyzing student learning and practice by collecting data and assessing student learning through their work with students. Student learning should be demonstrated directly by all teacher candidates during clinical practice.

Experienced teachers in graduate programs build upon and extend their knowledge and experiences to improve their own teaching and student learning in classrooms. They further develop their knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions to meet the propositions of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) for the advanced certification of teachers. These candidates demonstrate their commitment to students, skills to manage and monitor student learning, capacity to think systematically about their practice, ability to learn from experience, and involvement as members of learning communities.[16]

Candidates preparing to work in schools in professional roles other than teaching demonstrate the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions necessary to meet professional,[17] state, and institutional standards reflected in the unit's conceptual framework. Candidates in programs for other school professionals should meet professional standards designed for programs preparing:

- educational technology specialists
- instructional technology specialists
- reading specialists/literacy coaches
- school leaders, including principals, curriculum and instruction specialists, and superintendents
- school library media specialists
- school psychologists
- special education administrators, educational diagnosticians, and special education technology specialists
- technology facilitators
- technology leaders
- other school professionals

Candidates in these graduate programs develop the ability to apply research and research methods. They also develop knowledge of learning, the social and cultural context in which learning takes place, and practices that support learning in their professional roles. Candidates might assess the school environment

[16] Additional information about the propositions and the National Board's assessments for experienced teachers can be found on NBPTS' website, *www.nbpts.org*.

[17] NCATE's professional standards for these fields and the directions for preparing documentation can be downloaded from its website, *www.ncate.org*. A list of programs with professional standards can be found on page 47.

by collecting and analyzing data on student learning as it relates to their professional roles and developing positive environments supportive of student learning. Institutions must submit program documentation, including candidate assessments, scoring guides, and performance data that responds to professional standards for national and/or state review prior to and during the on-site visit.

This standard includes expectations for the knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions of candidates in initial teacher preparation and advanced level programs. Initial teacher preparation programs include all programs that prepare individuals for their first license in teaching. These programs can be offered at the undergraduate or graduate levels. They include five-year programs, master's programs, and postbaccalaureate programs that prepare individuals for their first license in teaching.

Advanced programs include programs for licensed teachers continuing their education as well as programs for other school professionals. Advanced programs include programs for teachers who are preparing at the graduate level for a second license in a field different from the field in which they have their first license; programs for teachers who are seeking a master's degree in the field in which they teach; and programs not tied to licensure, such as programs in curriculum and instruction. In addition, advanced programs include programs for other school professionals. Examples of these are programs in school counseling, school psychology, educational administration, and reading specialization. All advanced level programs are taught at the graduate level. In instances where there is uncertainty about the program level, institutions should seek assistance from NCATE's website or contact the NCATE office for clarification.

Document A2

Standard #1: Learner Development

The teacher understands how learners grow and develop, recognizing that patterns of learning and development vary individually within and across the cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical areas, and designs and implements developmentally appropriate and challenging learning experiences.

PERFORMANCES

1(a) The teacher regularly assesses individual and group performance in order to design and modify instruction to meet learners' needs in each area of development (cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical) and scaffolds the next level of development.

1(b) The teacher creates developmentally appropriate instruction that takes into account individual learners' strengths, interests, and needs and that enables each learner to advance and accelerate his/her learning.

1(c) The teacher collaborates with families, communities, colleagues, and other professionals to promote learner growth and development.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

1(d) The teacher understands how learning occurs--how learners construct knowledge, acquire skills, and develop disciplined thinking processes--and knows how to use instructional strategies that promote student learning.

1(e) The teacher understands that each learner's cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional, and physical development influences learning and knows how to make instructional decisions that build on learners' strengths and needs.

1(f) The teacher identifies readiness for learning, and understands how development in any one area may affect performance in others.

1(g) The teacher understands the role of language and culture in learning and knows how to modify instruction to make language comprehensible and instruction relevant, accessible, and challenging.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

1(h) The teacher respects learners' differing strengths and needs and is committed to using this information to further each learner's development.

1(i) The teacher is committed to using learners' strengths as a basis for growth, and their misconceptions as opportunities for learning.

1(j) The teacher takes responsibility for promoting learners' growth and development.

1(k) The teacher values the input and contributions of families, colleagues, and other professionals in understanding and supporting each learner's development.

Standard #2: Learning Differences

The teacher uses understanding of individual differences and diverse cultures and communities to ensure inclusive learning environments that enable each learner to meet high standards.

PERFORMANCES

2(a) The teacher designs, adapts, and delivers instruction to address each student's diverse learning strengths and needs and creates opportunities for students to demonstrate their learning in different ways.

2(b) The teacher makes appropriate and timely provisions (e.g., pacing for individual rates of growth, task demands, communication, assessment, and response modes) for individual students with particular learning differences or needs.

2(c) The teacher designs instruction to build on learners' prior knowledge and experiences, allowing learners to accelerate as they demonstrate their understandings.

2(d) The teacher brings multiple perspectives to the discussion of content, including attention to learners' personal, family, and community experiences and cultural norms.

2(e) The teacher incorporates tools of language development into planning and instruction, including strategies for making content accessible to English language learners and for evaluating and supporting their development of English proficiency.

2(f) The teacher accesses resources, supports, and specialized assistance and services to meet particular learning differences or needs.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

2(g) The teacher understands and identifies differences in approaches to learning and performance and knows how to design instruction that uses each learner's strengths to promote growth.

2(h) The teacher understands students with exceptional needs, including those associated with disabilities and giftedness, and knows how to use strategies and resources to address these needs.

2(i) The teacher knows about second language acquisition processes and knows how to incorporate instructional strategies and resources to support language acquisition.

2(j) The teacher understands that learners bring assets for learning based on their individual experiences, abilities, talents, prior learning, and peer and social group interactions, as well as language, culture, family, and community values.

2(k) The teacher knows how to access information about the values of diverse cultures and communities and how to incorporate learners' experiences, cultures, and community resources into instruction.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

2(l) The teacher believes that all learners can achieve at high levels and persists in helping each learner reach his/her full potential.

2(m) The teacher respects learners as individuals with differing personal and family backgrounds and various skills, abilities, perspectives, talents, and interests.

2(n) The teacher makes learners feel valued and helps them learn to value each other.

2(o) The teacher values diverse languages and dialects and seeks to integrate them into his/her instructional practice to engage students in learning.

Standard #3: Learning Environments

The teacher works with others to create environments that support individual and collaborative learning, and that encourage positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self motivation.

PERFORMANCES

3(a) The teacher collaborates with learners, families, and colleagues to build a safe, positive learning climate of openness, mutual respect, support, and inquiry.

3(b) The teacher develops learning experiences that engage learners in collaborative and self-directed learning and that extend learner interaction with ideas and people locally and globally.

3(c) The teacher collaborates with learners and colleagues to develop shared values and expectations for respectful interactions, rigorous academic discussions, and individual and group responsibility for quality work.

3(d) The teacher manages the learning environment to actively and equitably engage learners by organizing, allocating, and coordinating the resources of time, space, and learners' attention.

3(e) The teacher uses a variety of methods to engage learners in evaluating the learning environment and collaborates with learners to make appropriate adjustments.

3(f) The teacher communicates verbally and nonverbally in ways that demonstrate respect for and responsiveness to the cultural backgrounds and differing perspectives learners bring to the learning environment.

3(g) The teacher promotes responsible learner use of interactive technologies to extend the possibilities for learning locally and globally.

3(h) The teacher intentionally builds learner capacity to collaborate in face-to-face and virtual environments through applying effective interpersonal communication skills.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

3(i) The teacher understands the relationship between motivation and engagement and knows how to design learning experiences using strategies that build learner self-direction and ownership of learning.

3(j) The teacher knows how to help learners work productively and cooperatively with each other to achieve learning goals.

3(k) The teacher knows how to collaborate with learners to establish and monitor elements of a safe and productive learning environment including norms, expectations, routines, and organizational structures.

3(l) The teacher understands how learner diversity can affect communication and knows how to communicate effectively in differing environments.

3(m) The teacher knows how to use technologies and how to guide learners to apply them in appropriate, safe, and effective ways.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

3(n) The teacher is committed to working with learners, colleagues, families, and communities to establish positive and supportive learning environments.

3(o) The teacher values the role of learners in promoting each other's learning and recognizes the importance of peer relationships in establishing a climate of learning.

3(p) The teacher is committed to supporting learners as they participate in decision making, engage in exploration and invention, work collaboratively and independently, and engage in purposeful learning.

3(q) The teacher seeks to foster respectful communication among all members of the learning community.

3(r) The teacher is a thoughtful and responsive listener and observer.

Standard #4: Content Knowledge

The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the discipline(s) he or she teaches and creates learning experiences that make these aspects of the discipline accessible and meaningful for learners to assure mastery of the content.

PERFORMANCES

4(a) The teacher effectively uses multiple representations and explanations that capture key ideas in the discipline, guide learners through learning progressions, and promote each learner's achievement of content standards.

4(b) The teacher engages students in learning experiences in the discipline(s) that encourage learners to understand, question, and analyze ideas from diverse perspectives so that they master the content.

4(c) The teacher engages learners in applying methods of inquiry and standards of evidence used in the discipline.

4(d) The teacher stimulates learner reflection on prior content knowledge, links new concepts to familiar concepts, and makes connections to learners' experiences.

4(e) The teacher recognizes learner misconceptions in a discipline that interfere with learning, and creates experiences to build accurate conceptual understanding.

4(f) The teacher evaluates and modifies instructional resources and curriculum materials for their comprehensiveness, accuracy for representing particular concepts in the discipline, and appropriateness for his/her learners.

4(g) The teacher uses supplementary resources and technologies effectively to ensure accessibility and relevance for all learners.

4(h) The teacher creates opportunities for students to learn, practice, and master academic language in their content.

4(i) The teacher accesses school and/or district-based resources to evaluate the learner's content knowledge in their primary language.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

4(j) The teacher understands major concepts, assumptions, debates, processes of inquiry, and ways of knowing that are central to the discipline(s) s/he teaches.

4(k) The teacher understands common misconceptions in learning the discipline and how to guide learners to accurate conceptual understanding.

4(l) The teacher knows and uses the academic language of the discipline and knows how to make it accessible to learners.

4(m) The teacher knows how to integrate culturally relevant content to build on learners' background knowledge.

4(n) The teacher has a deep knowledge of student content standards and learning progressions in the discipline(s) s/he teaches.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

4(o) The teacher realizes that content knowledge is not a fixed body of facts but is complex, culturally situated, and ever evolving. S/he keeps abreast of new ideas and understandings in the field.

4(p) The teacher appreciates multiple perspectives within the discipline and facilitates learners' critical analysis of these perspectives.

4(q) The teacher recognizes the potential of bias in his/her representation of the discipline and seeks to appropriately address problems of bias.

4(r) The teacher is committed to work toward each learner's mastery of disciplinary content and skills.

Standard #5: Application of Content

The teacher understands how to connect concepts and use differing perspectives to engage learners in critical thinking, creativity, and collaborative problem solving related to authentic local and global issues.

PERFORMANCES

5(a) The teacher develops and implements projects that guide learners in analyzing the complexities of an issue or question using perspectives from varied disciplines and cross-disciplinary skills (e.g., a water quality study that draws upon biology and chemistry to look at factual information and social studies to examine policy implications).

5(b) The teacher engages learners in applying content knowledge to real world problems through the lens of interdisciplinary themes (e.g., financial literacy, environmental literacy).

5(c) The teacher facilitates learners' use of current tools and resources to maximize content learning in varied contexts.

5(d) The teacher engages learners in questioning and challenging assumptions and approaches in order to foster innovation and problem solving in local and global contexts.

5(e) The teacher develops learners' communication skills in disciplinary and interdisciplinary contexts by creating meaningful opportunities to employ a variety of forms of communication that address varied audiences and purposes.

5(f) The teacher engages learners in generating and evaluating new ideas and novel approaches, seeking inventive solutions to problems, and developing original work.

5(g) The teacher facilitates learners' ability to develop diverse social and cultural perspectives that expand their understanding of local and global issues and create novel approaches to solving problems.

5(h) The teacher develops and implements supports for learner literacy development across content areas.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

5(i) The teacher understands the ways of knowing in his/her discipline, how it relates to other disciplinary approaches to inquiry, and the strengths and limitations of each approach in addressing problems, issues, and concerns.

5(j) The teacher understands how current interdisciplinary themes (e.g., civic literacy, health literacy, global awareness) connect to the core subjects and knows how to weave those themes into meaningful learning experiences.

5(k) The teacher understands the demands of accessing and managing information as well as how to evaluate issues of ethics and quality related to information and its use.

5(l) The teacher understands how to use digital and interactive technologies for efficiently and effectively achieving specific learning goals.

5(m) The teacher understands critical thinking processes and knows how to help learners develop high level questioning skills to promote their independent learning.

5(n) The teacher understands communication modes and skills as vehicles for learning (e.g., information gathering and processing) across disciplines as well as vehicles for expressing learning.

5(o) The teacher understands creative thinking processes and how to engage learners in producing original work.

5(p) The teacher knows where and how to access resources to build global awareness and understanding, and how to integrate them into the curriculum.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

5(q) The teacher is constantly exploring how to use disciplinary knowledge as a lens to address local and global issues.

5(r) The teacher values knowledge outside his/her own content area and how such knowledge enhances student learning.

5(s) The teacher values flexible learning environments that encourage learner exploration, discovery, and expression across content areas.

Standard #6: Assessment

The teacher understands and uses multiple methods of assessment to engage learners in their own growth, to monitor learner progress, and to guide the teacher's and learner's decision making.

PERFORMANCES

6(a) The teacher balances the use of formative and summative assessment as appropriate to support, verify, and document learning.

6(b) The teacher designs assessments that match learning objectives with assessment methods and minimizes sources of bias that can distort assessment results.

6(c) The teacher works independently and collaboratively to examine test and other performance data to understand each learner's progress and to guide planning.

6(d) The teacher engages learners in understanding and identifying quality work and provides them with effective descriptive feedback to guide their progress toward that work.

6(e) The teacher engages learners in multiple ways of demonstrating knowledge and skill as part of the assessment process.

6(f) The teacher models and structures processes that guide learners in examining their own thinking and learning as well as the performance of others.

6(g) The teacher effectively uses multiple and appropriate types of assessment data to identify each student's learning needs and to develop differentiated learning experiences.

6(h) The teacher prepares all learners for the demands of particular assessment formats and makes appropriate accommodations in assessments or testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

6(i) The teacher continually seeks appropriate ways to employ technology to support assessment practice both to engage learners more fully and to assess and address learner needs.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

6(j) The teacher understands the differences between formative and summative applications of assessment and knows how and when to use each.

6(k) The teacher understands the range of types and multiple purposes of assessment and how to design, adapt, or select appropriate assessments to address specific learning goals and individual differences, and to minimize sources of bias.

6(l) The teacher knows how to analyze assessment data to understand patterns and gaps in learning, to guide planning and instruction, and to provide meaningful feedback to all learners.

6(m) The teacher knows when and how to engage learners in analyzing their own assessment results and in helping to set goals for their own learning.

6(n) The teacher understands the positive impact of effective descriptive feedback for learners and knows a variety of strategies for communicating this feedback.

6(o) The teacher knows when and how to evaluate and report learner progress against standards.

6(p) The teacher understands how to prepare learners for assessments and how to make accommodations in assessments and testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

6(q) The teacher is committed to engaging learners actively in assessment processes and to developing each learner's capacity to review and communicate about their own progress and learning.

6(r) The teacher takes responsibility for aligning instruction and assessment with learning goals.

6(s) The teacher is committed to providing timely and effective descriptive feedback to learners on their progress.

6(t) The teacher is committed to using multiple types of assessment processes to support, verify, and document learning.

6(u) The teacher is committed to making accommodations in assessments and testing conditions, especially for learners with disabilities and language learning needs.

6(v) The teacher is committed to the ethical use of various assessments and assessment data to identify learner strengths and needs to promote learner growth.

Standard #7: Planning for Instruction

The teacher plans instruction that supports every student in meeting rigorous learning goals by drawing upon knowledge of content areas, curriculum, cross-disciplinary skills, and pedagogy, as well as knowledge of learners and the community context.

PERFORMANCES

7(a) The teacher individually and collaboratively selects and creates learning experiences that are appropriate for curriculum goals and content standards, and are relevant to learners.

7(b) The teacher plans how to achieve each student's learning goals, choosing appropriate strategies and accommodations, resources, and materials to differentiate instruction for individuals and groups of learners.

7(c) The teacher develops appropriate sequencing of learning experiences and provides multiple ways to demonstrate knowledge and skill.

7(d) The teacher plans for instruction based on formative and summative assessment data, prior learner knowledge, and learner interest.

7(e) The teacher plans collaboratively with professionals who have specialized expertise (e.g., special educators, related service providers, language learning specialists, librarians, media specialists) to design and jointly deliver as appropriate learning experiences to meet unique learning needs.

7(f) The teacher evaluates plans in relation to short- and long-range goals and systematically adjusts plans to meet each student's learning needs and enhance learning.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

7(g) The teacher understands content and content standards and how these are organized in the curriculum.

7(h) The teacher understands how integrating cross-disciplinary skills in instruction engages learners purposefully in applying content knowledge.

7(i) The teacher understands learning theory, human development, cultural diversity, and individual differences and how these impact ongoing planning.

7(j) The teacher understands the strengths and needs of individual learners and how to plan instruction that is responsive to these strengths and needs.

7(k) The teacher knows a range of evidence-based instructional strategies, resources, and technological tools and how to use them effectively to plan instruction that meets diverse learning needs.

7(l) The teacher knows when and how to adjust plans based on assessment information and learner responses.

7(m) The teacher knows when and how to access resources and collaborate with others to support student learning (e.g., special educators, related service providers, language learner specialists, librarians, media specialists, community organizations).

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

7(n) The teacher respects learners' diverse strengths and needs and is committed to using this information to plan effective instruction.

7(o) The teacher values planning as a collegial activity that takes into consideration the input of learners, colleagues, families, and the larger community.

7(p) The teacher takes professional responsibility to use short- and long-term planning as a means of assuring student learning.

7(q) The teacher believes that plans must always be open to adjustment and revision based on learner needs and changing circumstances.

Standard #8: Instructional Strategies

The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage learners to develop deep understanding of content areas and their connections, and to build skills to apply knowledge in meaningful ways.

PERFORMANCES

8(a) The teacher uses appropriate strategies and resources to adapt instruction to the needs of individuals and groups of learners.

8(b) The teacher continuously monitors student learning, engages learners in assessing their progress, and adjusts instruction in response to student learning needs.

8(c) The teacher collaborates with learners to design and implement relevant learning experiences, identify their strengths, and access family and community resources to develop their areas of interest.

8(d) The teacher varies his/her role in the instructional process (e.g., instructor, facilitator, coach, audience) in relation to the content and purposes of instruction and the needs of learners.

8(e) The teacher provides multiple models and representations of concepts and skills with opportunities for learners to demonstrate their knowledge through a variety of products and performances.

8(f) The teacher engages all learners in developing higher order questioning skills and metacognitive processes.

8(g) The teacher engages learners in using a range of learning skills and technology tools to access, interpret, evaluate, and apply information.

8(h) The teacher uses a variety of instructional strategies to support and expand learners' communication through speaking, listening, reading, writing, and other modes.

8(i) The teacher asks questions to stimulate discussion that serves different purposes (e.g., probing for learner understanding, helping learners articulate their ideas and thinking processes, stimulating curiosity, and helping learners to question).

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

8(j) The teacher understands the cognitive processes associated with various kinds of learning (e.g., critical and creative thinking, problem framing and problem solving, invention, memorization and recall) and how these processes can be stimulated.

8(k) The teacher knows how to apply a range of developmentally, culturally, and linguistically appropriate instructional strategies to achieve learning goals.

8(l) The teacher knows when and how to use appropriate strategies to differentiate instruction and engage all learners in complex thinking and meaningful tasks.

8(m) The teacher understands how multiple forms of communication (oral, written, nonverbal, digital, visual) convey ideas, foster self expression, and build relationships.

8(n) The teacher knows how to use a wide variety of resources, including human and technological, to engage students in learning.

8(o) The teacher understands how content and skill development can be supported by media and technology and knows how to evaluate these resources for quality, accuracy, and effectiveness.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

8(p) The teacher is committed to deepening awareness and understanding the strengths and needs of diverse learners when planning and adjusting instruction.

8(q) The teacher values the variety of ways people communicate and encourages learners to develop and use multiple forms of communication.

8(r) The teacher is committed to exploring how the use of new and emerging technologies can support and promote student learning.

8(s) The teacher values flexibility and reciprocity in the teaching process as necessary for adapting instruction to learner responses, ideas, and needs.

Standard #9: Professional Learning and Ethical Practice

The teacher engages in ongoing professional learning and uses evidence to continually evaluate his/her practice, particularly the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (learners, families, other professionals, and the community), and adapts practice to meet the needs of each learner.

PERFORMANCES

9(a) The teacher engages in ongoing learning opportunities to develop knowledge and skills in order to provide all learners with engaging curriculum and learning experiences based on local and state standards.

9(b) The teacher engages in meaningful and appropriate professional learning experiences aligned with his/her own needs and the needs of the learners, school, and system.

9(c) Independently and in collaboration with colleagues, the teacher uses a variety of data (e.g., systematic observation, information about learners, research) to evaluate the outcomes of teaching and learning and to adapt planning and practice.

9(d) The teacher actively seeks professional, community, and technological resources, within and outside the school, as supports for analysis, reflection, and problem-solving.

9(e) The teacher reflects on his/her personal biases and accesses resources to deepen his/her own understanding of cultural, ethnic, gender, and learning differences to build stronger relationships and create more relevant learning experiences.

9(f) The teacher advocates, models, and teaches safe, legal, and ethical use of information and technology including appropriate documentation of sources and respect for others in the use of social media.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

9(g) The teacher understands and knows how to use a variety of self-assessment and problem-solving strategies to analyze and reflect on his/her practice and to plan for adaptations/adjustments.

9(h) The teacher knows how to use learner data to analyze practice and differentiate instruction accordingly.

9(i) The teacher understands how personal identity, worldview, and prior experience affect perceptions and expectations, and recognizes how they may bias behaviors and interactions with others.

9(j) The teacher understands laws related to learners' rights and teacher responsibilities (e.g., for educational equity, appropriate education for learners with disabilities, confidentiality, privacy, appropriate treatment of learners, reporting in situations related to possible child abuse).

9(k) The teacher knows how to build and implement a plan for professional growth directly aligned with his/her needs as a growing professional using feedback from teacher evaluations and observations, data on learner performance, and school- and system-wide priorities.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

9(l) The teacher takes responsibility for student learning and uses ongoing analysis and reflection to improve planning and practice.

9(m) The teacher is committed to deepening understanding of his/her own frames of reference (e.g., culture, gender, language, abilities, ways of knowing), the potential biases in these frames, and their impact on expectations for and relationships with learners and their families.

9(n) The teacher sees him/herself as a learner, continuously seeking opportunities to draw upon current education policy and research as sources of analysis and reflection to improve practice.

9(o) The teacher understands the expectations of the profession including codes of ethics, professional standards of practice, and relevant law and policy.

Standard #10: Leadership and Collaboration

The teacher seeks appropriate leadership roles and opportunities to take responsibility for student learning, to collaborate with learners, families, colleagues, other school professionals, and community members to ensure learner growth, and to advance the profession.

PERFORMANCES

10(a) The teacher takes an active role on the instructional team, giving and receiving feedback on practice, examining learner work, analyzing data from multiple sources, and sharing responsibility for decision making and accountability for each student's learning.

10(b) The teacher works with other school professionals to plan and jointly facilitate learning on how to meet diverse needs of learners.

10(c) The teacher engages collaboratively in the school-wide effort to build a shared vision and supportive culture, identify common goals, and monitor and evaluate progress toward those goals.

10(d) The teacher works collaboratively with learners and their families to establish mutual expectations and ongoing communication to support learner development and achievement.

10(e) Working with school colleagues, the teacher builds ongoing connections with community resources to enhance student learning and well being.

10(f) The teacher engages in professional learning, contributes to the knowledge and skill of others, and works collaboratively to advance professional practice.

10(g) The teacher uses technological tools and a variety of communication strategies to build local and global learning communities that engage learners, families, and colleagues.

10(h) The teacher uses and generates meaningful research on education issues and policies.

10(i) The teacher seeks appropriate opportunities to model effective practice for colleagues, to lead professional learning activities, and to serve in other leadership roles.

10(j) The teacher advocates to meet the needs of learners, to strengthen the learning environment, and to enact system change.

10(k) The teacher takes on leadership roles at the school, district, state, and/or national level and advocates for learners, the school, the community, and the profession.

ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

10(l) The teacher understands schools as organizations within a historical, cultural, political, and social context and knows how to work with others across the system to support learners.

10(m) The teacher understands that alignment of family, school, and community spheres of influence enhances student learning and that discontinuity in these spheres of influence interferes with learning.

10(n) The teacher knows how to work with other adults and has developed skills in collaborative interaction appropriate for both face-to-face and virtual contexts.

10(o) The teacher knows how to contribute to a common culture that supports high expectations for student learning.

CRITICAL DISPOSITIONS

10(p) The teacher actively shares responsibility for shaping and supporting the mission of his/her school as one of advocacy for learners and accountability for their success.

10(q) The teacher respects families' beliefs, norms, and expectations and seeks to work collaboratively with learners and families in setting and meeting challenging goals.

10(r) The teacher takes initiative to grow and develop with colleagues through interactions that enhance practice and support student learning.

10(s) The teacher takes responsibility for contributing to and advancing the profession.

10(t) The teacher embraces the challenge of continuous improvement and change.

CEPTC Dispositions:

Teachers exhibit dispositions required for effective teaching and professional practice

Professional Behaviors	Feedback:
☐ Excellence in attendance	Total for this disposition: _____/4
☐ Excellence in promptness	
☐ Dresses to convey professionalism appropriate to site and content	
☐ Understands and uses professional language in all public settings	
Initiative and Dependability	
☐ Demonstrates creativity and resourcefulness	Total for this disposition: _____/6
☐ Seeks opportunities to further own learning	
☐ Works effectively with limited supervision	
☐ Identifies problems and is able to prioritize, propose solutions, options and resources	
☐ Advocates for self, takes responsibility for own actions, and is responsive	
☐ Completes responsibilities with quality, without excuses or prompting	
Tact and Judgment	
☐ Demonstrates sensitivity to other's feelings and opinions while articulating own opinions, feelings and needs	Total for this disposition: _____/4
☐ Approaches situations with an open mind	
☐ Appropriately uses verbal and nonverbal language and cues to remain positive and respectful	
☐ Perceives what to do or say in order to maintain professional relations with all stakeholders	
Ethical Behavior and Integrity	
☐ Consistently honest and worthy of trust	Total for this disposition: _____/4
☐ Honors confidentiality	
☐ Assesses information critically – fact from opinion, right from wrong – and responds honestly and respectfully	
☐ Consistently models professional standards of conduct	
Collegiality and Responsiveness	
☐ Is collaborative: willing to share resources, seek advice and work towards common goals	Total for this disposition: _____/6
☐ Demonstrates ability to compromise and negotiate	
☐ Is respectful of all and works effectively in teams	
☐ Is open to constructive criticism	
☐ Keeps an open mind: is receptive and reflective concerning perceptions of others	
☐ Proactively addresses feedback through an adjustment in performance	
Effective Communicator	
☐ Professional oral expression: expressive, articulate, respectful, effective for purpose, appropriate to situation	Total for this disposition: _____/4
☐ Professional written expression: organized, clear, effective for purpose, appropriate to situation, free of grammatical errors and misspellings	
☐ Demonstrates understanding of audience and purpose, body language and eye contact during communication situations	
☐ Uses digital media in a professional manner	

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Desire to Improve Own Performance	
☐ Demonstrates a responsibility for own professional performance	Total for this disposition: /3
☐ Actively pursues new and better ways of teaching	
☐ Expresses sincere interest in personal and professional growth	
Cultural Responsiveness	
☐ Demonstrates the belief that all students can learn and are welcome in the classroom	Total for this disposition: /5
☐ Demonstrates commitment to culturally responsive teaching	
☐ Demonstrates the desire and ability to plan, assess, and implement instruction to address, engage and nurture the learning of every student	
☐ Demonstrates a commitment to the growth and development of each student by taking into account issues of class, gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientations, language and special needs	
☐ Demonstrates an understanding of how families and communities impact student learning	
Commitment to Profession	
☐ Demonstrates a deep commitment to life-long learning	Total for this disposition: /4
☐ Expresses passion and enthusiasm for teaching	
☐ Models democratic ideals personally and professionally	
☐ Demonstrates awareness of program policies and professional practices	

Please check the box below that most closely describes the candidate's overall dispositions:

Please clarify areas of concern:	☐ Emergent	☐ Developing	☐ Proficient	☐ Accomplished
	< 20 points The candidate's displayed dispositions ***are inconsistent to weak***. General interactions ***fall significantly short of those expected of a professional educator***. The candidate's dispositions, as demonstrated by daily interactions ***are sufficiently weak so as to call into questions his/her fitness to become a successful teacher***	21-30 points The candidate's displayed dispositions are ***not consistently strong and positive***. General interactions ***do not always meet professional expectations***. The candidate's dispositions, as demonstrated by daily interactions ***could be strengthened to improve the candidate's ability to become a successful teacher.***	31-35 points The candidate's displayed dispositions are ***consistent with those of a successful beginning teacher***. The candidate's dispositions, as demonstrated by daily interactions ***contribute to a positive learning climate in the classroom and school.***	36-40 points The candidate's displayed dispositions are consistent with the ***highest degree of professionalism*** expected of a successful teacher. The candidate's dispositions, as demonstrated by daily interactions are ***consistently positive and productive***

STUDENT SIGNATURE DATE ASSESSOR'S SIGNATURE DATE

Appendix B

rapport	teacher(-)student/student(-)teacher relationship/communication/understanding, relationship
immediacy	closeness, nonverbal/verbal immediacy, approach-avoidance theory, speech accommodation theory, imitative, proximity, eye contact, positive facial expression, warmth, praise, humor, self-disclosure,
care ethics	care, morality, teacher(-)student/student(-)teacher communication, student need, listening, thinking
affective teacher-student relationship	favorable relationship, teacher enthusiasm, sensitivity, genuine, interpersonal relationship, teacher(-)student/student(-)teacher interest
empathy	classical education, safe space, reflective (practice), cognitive/emotional understanding/sharing
tact	frustration/shyness/grief/joy/{body language}/demeanor/expression understanding, social bond, vulnerability, {social environment}/{(student) personality} awareness, diplomatic, kindness, encouragement,
emotional intelligence	emotion perception, emotional knowledge, emotion(al) regulation, self(-)awareness, self(-)management, social(-)awareness, relationship(-)management, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability/flexibility, motivation, socio-environmental understanding, inspirational leadership, teacher(-)student/student(-)teacher bond, stress tolerance
related words too general to use	communication, collaboration, connection

Appendix C

1. All individuals (organisms) exist in a continually changing world of experience (phenomenal field) of which they are the center.
2. The organism reacts to the field as it is experienced and perceived. This perceptual field is "reality" for the individual.
3. The organism reacts as an organized whole to this phenomenal field.
4. A portion of the total perceptual field gradually becomes differentiated as the self.
5. As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of the self is formed—an organized, fluid but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "me", together with values attached to these concepts.
6. The organism has one basic tendency and striving—to actualize, maintain and enhance the experiencing organism.
7. The best vantage point for understanding behavior is from the internal frame of reference of the individual.
8. Behavior is basically the goal-directed attempt of the organism to satisfy its needs as experienced, in the field as perceived.
9. Emotion accompanies, and in general facilitates, such goal directed behavior, the kind of emotion being related to the perceived significance of the behavior for the maintenance and enhancement of the organism.
10. The values attached to experiences, and the values that are a part of the self-structure, in some instances, are values experienced directly by the organism, and in some instances are values introjected or taken over from others, but perceived in distorted fashion, as if they had been experienced directly.
11. As experiences occur in the life of the individual, they are either, a) symbolized, perceived and organized into some relation to the self, b) ignored because there is no perceived relationship to the self structure, c) denied symbolization or given distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self.

12. Most of the ways of behaving that are adopted by the organism are those that are consistent with the concept of self.
13. In some instances, behavior may be brought about by organic experiences and needs which have not been symbolized. Such behavior may be inconsistent with the structure of the self but in such instances the behavior is not "owned" by the individual.
14. Psychological adjustment exists when the concept of the self is such that all the sensory and visceral experiences of the organism are, or may be, assimilated on a symbolic level into a consistent relationship with the concept of self.
15. Psychological maladjustment exists when the organism denies awareness of significant sensory and visceral experiences, which consequently are not symbolized and organized into the gestalt of the self structure. When this situation exists, there is a basic or potential psychological tension.
16. Any experience which is inconsistent with the organization of the structure of the self may be perceived as a threat, and the more of these perceptions there are, the more rigidly the self structure is organized to maintain itself.
17. Under certain conditions, involving primarily complete absence of threat to the self structure, experiences which are inconsistent with it may be perceived and examined, and the structure of self revised to assimilate and include such experiences.
18. When the individual perceives and accepts into one consistent and integrated system all her sensory and visceral experiences, then she is necessarily more understanding of others and is more accepting of others as separate individuals.
19. As the individual perceives and accepts into his self structure more of his organic experiences, he finds that he is replacing his present value system—based extensively on introjections which have been distortedly symbolized—with a continuing organismic valuing process.