European Journal of Education Studies
ISSN: 2501 - 1111
ISSN-L: 2501 - 1111
Available on-line at: www.oapub.org/edu

doi: 10.5281/zenodo.1160656 Volume 4 | Issue 1 | 2018

APPLICATION OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY FOR POSITIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE: GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

Vera Arhin[i],
John Ekow Laryea
University of Cape Coast,
College of Distance Education,
Cape Coast, Ghana

Abstract:
Social psychology principles have been important strategies for helping students gain a better life in school because it promotes supportive, safe and empowering learning environment that enhance learners' outcomes. Relevant evidence-based interventions using social psychology principles have proven improvements in school climate and also increased educational opportunities for students. Drawing on theoretical and empirical literature, the authors reviewed studies on the role of social psychology in promoting academic success in schools. In particular, the authors first defined social psychology, its importance to teachers and then examined four social psychological domains relevant to classroom management. Two themes which are prevalent in this paper: the importance of social psychology to teachers, and how teachers can incorporate social psychology theories into teaching and learning activities to promote a healthier school climate. In conclusion, the writers argued that classroom teachers need to employ social psychology principles in their teaching activities to help the school achieve its broader educational objectives.

Keywords: attribution, aggression, interpersonal relationships, social psychology, school climate, stereotype

1. Introduction

The aim of every educator is to have a positive school climate of high learners' achievement. Positive school climate is perceived by all standards as an important target for schools because it has been associated to improve students' behaviour, lower dropout rates, increase graduation rates, reduce mental health issues (Thapa, Cohen, Guffey & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2013) and increase job satisfaction and teacher retention (Kaiser, 2011).

Correspondence: email varhin@ucc.edu.gh

Positive school climate is linked to reduce students' exposure to risk factors and promote positive development and learning for productivity (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention as cited in Kane et al., 2016). It has also been connected to promote higher psychological well-being of students (Ruus et al., 2007); decrease student absenteeism (Gottfredson, Gottfredson, Payne, & Gottfredson, 2005) and decrease harassment and bullying (Attar-Schwartz, 2009; Van-Ryzin, 2014).

Further, schools with positive climate tend to have less students' indiscipline issues (Lee, Cornell, Gregory, & Fan, 2011; Thapa et al., 2013) and improve academic achievement across grade levels (Stewart, 2008). Given the importance of positive school climate, it is essential for teachers to monitor and identify issues in the classroom that will endanger a school from the benefits of a positive climate for immediate intervention.

Although there is no universally accepted set of core domains or features of a positive school climate, research has established some evidence-based core domains that can promote positive school climate. Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2013) identified social and emotional learning framework for developing social and emotional competencies in students based on the understanding that learning is maximized in the context of supportive relationships. Bradshaw, Waasdorp, and Leaf (2012) also identified school staff working together to create a school-wide programme that clearly articulates positive behavioural expectations and decreases indiscipline problems (such bullying and aggressive behaviours). Research evidence from a study conducted by Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, and Easton (2010) revealed that schools with high relational trust are more likely to make changes that are essential to effective school climate improvement.

Choy, Chen and Bugarin (2006) opine that although some teachers may have basic knowledge in social psychology, there is no evidence that most of them understand the core ideas in this area in relation to their pedagogical applications. Lampert (as cited in Grossman, Hammerness & McDonald, 2009) believe that teacher education is built around a collection of methods in which prospective teachers learn methods that exist for teaching particular subjects but not grounded in educational theories relevant for application in the classroom. Dwelling on this assertion this article clarifies how teachers can fuse social psychology principles and theories into their day-to-day teaching activities to help shape the school climate for students' success.

2. What is social psychology?

Social psychology is a study that deals with a variety of captivating questions about people and their social world. According to Allport (as cited in Worchel, Cooper, Goethals & Olson, 2000) social psychology is "*a discipline that uses scientific methods to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others*" (p. 4). Cialdini (2012) defines social psychology as social influence and persuasion of others. Myers (2007) defines psychology as *"the scientific study of how people think about, influence and relate to one*

another" (p.4). Further, Kassin, Fein and Markus (2013) define social psychology as the scientific study of how individuals think, feel and behave in social contexts. Since the school is a social environment and has social interaction characteristics, these definitions show that within the school individuals we think about themselves and others and are likely to be influenced by others.

2.1 Importance of social psychology to the teacher

Teaching applies social psychology principles because wherever a group of people is brought together for the purpose of learning, teachers deem it as obligatory to professionally apply social psychology principles to promote educational goals. Gehlbach (2010) affirms that teachers' roles in the classroom are social: explaining concepts, keeping students on task, communicating with fellow faculty members and parents. Gehlbach further indicates that although less obvious, planning classes and grading papers, exchanging gestures and facial expressions, setting up seating arrangements and developing classroom norms are all anticipatory social activities that require teachers' social experience.

Further, knowledge in this discipline exposes teachers to how beliefs, emotions and behaviours are affected by others within the school environment. It also helps teachers to find answers to questions such as: Why are the social context, interpersonal relationships and emotional well-being important to students' learning? What reasons do students give to success and failure in a test or examinations? How to deal with indiscipline issues in the classroom? How to communicate meaningful feedback to students?

Furthermore, applying fundamental principles of social psychology in the teaching and learning process, teachers can successfully modify basic anti-social behaviours found in the classrooms. Knowledge in social psychology discipline therefore has great untapped potentials to help teachers understand and manage most of the social aspects of the classroom. Thus, in-depth knowledge of core concepts in social psychology can promote positive behaviour in the classroom which is tremendous benefit for teachers. Four social psychological domains (attribution, prejudice and stereotypes, aggressive behaviours and interpersonal relations) relevant to teachers in the classroom are deliberated upon in this paper.

2.2 Attribution

Attribution is the process by which individuals examine the reasons underlying causes of behaviour and other events (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Malle and Korman (2013) assert that the term attribution in social psychology has two primary meanings: first, causal attrition which refers to explanations of behaviour (that is, answers to "why" questions) and second, dispositional attribution which refers to inferences of traits from behaviour (judgments people make about others).

Accordingly, Kassin et al. (2013) assert that there are two types of attribution: explanatory attribution and interpersonal attribution. People make explanatory attribution to understand the world around them and to seek reasons for a particular

event. This is characterised by judgments as to what is the cause of certain event. Interpersonal attribution on the other hand occurs, when one's action or motive for an action is questioned and one needs to explain the reasons for that action.

Further, Heider as cited in Malle (2011) opine that people try to explain behaviour by using either internal or external attribution. Whereas internal attribution describes one's personal characteristic which is within him or her, external attribution on the other hand deals with the idea that the issue is not about the personal characteristics of the person but it is about the situation. For instance, if a student is made to question her behaviour "*Why did l not perform well in a text?"* and she produce an external attribution "Because the teacher was unfair", what kind of behavior should we expect? Kelley (1976) posits that, "i*n all explanations, the choice is between external attribution and internal attribution*" (p. 194). Attribution theory is therefore important for teachers because it helps them to understand some of the causes of students' behaviours on one hand and on the other assist students to understand their thinking about their own behaviours.

Malle and Korman (2013) believe that there is no one attribution theory, because different theories have been offered for attribution as explanation and attribution as trait inference. Nevertheless, Weiner (2006) theory of attribution on success and failure is applicable for students' academic motivation in the school system. The theory incorporates behaviour modification, cognitive and self-efficacy theories that emphasis learners' self-perceptions which strongly influence the way students interpret their success or failure to efforts.

Weiner (2006) gave three sets of characteristics that explain how people determine success or failure. First, the cause of success or failure may be internal or external. That is, one may succeed or fail because of innate factors believed to have originated from within, or because of factors that originates from the environment. Further, the cause of success or failure may be either stable or unstable. If the person believes that the cause is stable, then the outcome is likely to be the same if the same behaviour is repeated on a different occasion. However, if the person believes that the cause is unstable, the outcome is likely to differ on a different occasion. Finally, the cause of success or failure could be either controllable or uncontrollable. A controllable cause occurs when the person believes behaviour can be altered or modified if he or she wishes to do so. It is uncontrollable if one does not believe behaviour can be altered.

Weiner (2006) again emphasises that students should be motivated to answer questions like: "*why did l fail?"*, "*why did l succeed?"* and "*why didn't l do better than expected*?" The answers given to these questions will help the teacher to be aware of the best characteristics that explain the student's success or failure. Again, in search of answers to these questions, Weiner argues that teachers should engage individuals in implicit analysis of reason(s) of their performance/outcome. Attribution therefore helps to shape students behaviours, whether they respond to setbacks vulnerably or resiliently. Thus, if teachers want students to persist on academic tasks, they should help them establish reasons for success as against failure. Reyna (2008) suggests that

teachers should be constantly called upon to make assumptions about the causes of students' behavioural and academic outcomes.

Attribution theory therefore provides an important means for examining and understanding motivation in academic settings. It helps to examine individuals' beliefs about why certain events occur and correlate those beliefs to subsequent motivation. In the classroom or the school environment, the understanding students have about the causes of past events influence their ability to control what happens to them in the future (Wilson, as cited in Yeager & Walton, 2011). Social psychologists believe that people's explanation to causes of events and experiences shape their responses to those events and subsequent behaviours.

2.3 How teachers can communicate attributional information to learners

Attributional information can be communicated to learners in a variety of ways. Three of these include: teachers to communicate important information to their students through feedback or comments on written class work or assignments; teachers to be sure of what really caused a student to fail and the use of attributional retraining interventions to clarify information to students.

Teachers need to communicate important information to their students through feedback or comments on written class work or assignments. During, classroom instructions and when grading examinations teachers should not use general feedback remarks, such as *"Excellent"*, *"Good work"*, *"Satisfactory"* or *"Fair"*. Research evidence indicates that specific feedback is more useful to students because it assists them in developing adaptive attributional beliefs (Hattie & Timperley, 2007) and provides information on how they can become more competent (Brookhart, 2008). It is therefore effective to write a more specific comment, like, "*I know you can do better; you need to spend more time studying ahead of test"* than to write *"Satisfactory*".

Second, it is also important for teachers to be sure of what really caused a student to fail. For example, "*Did lack of preparation or efforts really account for the failure?*" When teachers communicate to students that their failures were due to the use of inappropriate methods or inadequate preparations, students are most likely to be motivated by that and then make modifications in their study habits for better academic performance. A student's perception on the causes of failure may influence the degree to which the student will come to expect to fail again in the future. Helping students to be aware of their shortcomings and interpreting them meaningfully, serves as an opportunity for growth rather than evidence of incompetence (Walton & Cohen 2011).

Finally, teachers need to use attributional retraining interventions to clarify information to students. This can be done using elaborative learning strategies as part of the consolidation process for all students. This will help facilitate comprehension of the premises of attributional retraining. Specifically, individualized consolidation exercises could be used to allow students to clarify the information presented during attributional retraining interventions in a personal and meaningful way. The principle of attributional retraining states that, the more students begin to attribute outcomes to factors that they can control and are unstable; they are then expected to be able to

control future actions to achieve academic success (Hall, Hladkyj, Perry, & Ruthig, 2004). Further, Hall et al., believe that individuals may assigned many reasons for failure, but the ones that are most influential in changing future behaviours are those reasons that the individual perceives to be unstable and controllable. Given this information, teachers can design classroom tasks and provide classroom environments that supply students with sufficient opportunities to succeed and assist them to understand that the effort to succeed lies in their own hands.

2.4 Prejudice and Stereotypes

Another area of concern in schools that needs social psychology principle application and intervention is the persistence differences between different social groups which include: male and female students, different ethnic groups and students from urban and rural communities (Walton & Spencer, 2009). Worchel et al. (2000) define prejudice as an attitude, usually negative towards a group. Its evaluation is solely based on the person's race, gender, religion or membership of a group (Worchel et al.). Stereotypes on the other hand are specifically-perceived beliefs that members of a group share particular characteristics. Stereotypes make cognitive processing about complex social worlds easier and more efficient, whereas prejudice incorporates emotional feelings (Worchel et al.). The negative consequences in stereotyping are the significant biases in judgments about other people.

Usually, the first process that leads to stereotyping is the simple perceptual act of categorization (Worchel et al., 2000). According to the social identity theory by Tajfel and Turner (1986), people are categorized into social groups and locate themselves within that category. They then evaluate the value or worth of that social identity by comparing the group with other groups. The basic premise of social identity theory is that we are motivated to maintain a positively valued social identity and we do so by creating or taking advantage through comparisons with other groups. These groups tend to interact, influence each member and share a common social identity. The shared social identity of individuals within a group influences intergroup behaviour. These perceptions and behaviours in turn define the social identity of individuals within the interacting groups.

The tendency to define oneself by membership in a group may lead to intergroup discrimination which involves favourable behaviours directed towards the in-group and negative behaviours directed towards the out-group. This intergroup discrimination leads to prejudice and stereotyping. Studies have shown that stereotype influences our perceptions unawares (Walton & Spencer, 2009). Devine (as cited Worchel et al., 2000) shows that sometimes a stereotype that we do not even believe is true can affect our perceptions of an individual without our knowledge. Stereotypes are undesirable behaviours because they result in faulty reasoning processes. The biasing effect is that ambiguous behaviours will often be interpreted in terms of the stereotyped.

Steele (2010) argues that the stress that one could undergo with regard to stereotype in school can undermine academic performance even if no one openly

expresses this believe. For example, the stereotype that females are more skillful in qualitative field than males and males more skillful in quantitative field than females causes anxiety and undermines academic performance in these fields by both males and females. Cohen, Purdie-Vauges, Apfel and Bizustoski (2009) believe that helping to reduce the stress and anxiety caused by stereotyped threats, can boost academic performance of the negatively stereotyped students. Since, it is obvious that, stereotype negatively affects students' intellectual ability; teachers need to eliminate this behaviour in the classroom.

2.5 How teachers can diminish prejudice and stereotype behaviours in the classroom

Teachers can help students overcome this by challenging stereotypical statements and prejudiced ideology in the classroom and the school environment in general. Teachers can dispel negative ideologies among students by helping each student feel respected and valued. Further, teachers should make conscious efforts to establish an atmosphere in which every student will feel comfortable to voice out his or her opinion when discussing stereotypical beliefs and prejudiced ideologies in schools. Furthermore, teachers need to work hard in other to minimise the conditions that lead to stereotype threats in the classroom before it escalates. Some techniques that teachers can use include: cooperative learning, de-categorization and cognitive approaches.

Jigsaw method is one of the cooperative learning techniques. This technique was initiated by social psychologist, Elliot Aronson in 1972. With this method, students are put into various groups of five or six and assigned to complete a given task. Each group is given a unique role to play to complete the task. In order to complete the task, team members have to work together with one another especially in a way of sharing their unique information among themselves. The jigsaw method has been proved to be effective in reducing prejudice towards members of a stereotyped group (Aronson & Patnoe, 1997; Slavin, Hurley, & Chamberlain, 2003).

De-categorization involves teaching people from different social groups to focus on an individual's unique characteristics. This is known as individuation and helps to draw attention away from group differences but towards individual differences. De-categorization often causes in-group members to perceive fewer similarities among themselves and the out-group member (Blair, 2002).

Cognitive approaches are of different methods, however two of these approaches include: reduced thought awareness and suppression; and attitude reconditioning. Reduced thought awareness and suppression is used to increase a person's awareness of his or her prejudiced thoughts and train that person to actively suppress those thoughts. Stewart, Latu, Kawakami & Myer (2010) believe that if this technique is not used tactfully, instead of suppressing or reducing prejudice, it will rather have the opposite effect of increasing it. Teachers who wished to use this technique should adopt systematic desensitization techniques. Attitude reconditioning also known as 'situational attribution training' on the other hand can be used by teachers to reduce learners' implicit prejudice by getting them to focus on situational explanations for negative behaviours exhibited by members of the stereotyped groups.

2.6 Aggressive Behaviours

Students' aggression presents a chronic hindrance to teaching and learning. Thus, the ability of teachers to organize classroom and manage behaviours of students is critical to achieve positive educational outcomes. Aggressive behaviour has been defined as a persistent pattern of behaviour that threatens or causes harm to other people (Fraser, Nash, Galinsky & Darwin, 2002). Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer and Sears (as cited Worchel et al., 2000) define aggression as "*a behaviour whose goal is the injury of the person towards whom it is directed*" (p. 309). Aggressive behaviour can be physical or verbal. It is physical when it involves contact with another person and directly causes pain to the body (for example kicking and bullying). On the other hand, it is verbal when it involves the use of words (for example insults, making derogatory remarks or nicknaming).

Aggressive behaviours can also be referred to as antisocial behaviours. According to Worchel et al. (2000), aggressive behaviours and antisocial behaviours are often used interchangeable because research on aggressive behaviours is mainly conducted on behaviours which are socially undesirable. Aggressive behaviours thus violate the fundamental rights of others, violate societal norms and cause impairment in social and academic functioning.

2.7 Causes of aggressive behaviours

Bandura (1977) emphasises that children learn to be aggressive and to whom they become aggressive through observation of parents, teachers, peers and pictures of mass-media. In an experiment known as "bobo doll", Bandura and his associates demonstrated one of the ways in which children learn to be aggressive (Bandura as cited in Ferguson, 2010). Social learning theorists also believe that aggression is acquired through direct or vicarious means. Direct experiences may include childhood pushing objects and adolescent fighting others while vicarious experiences may be through adult rebellions (Corvo & Williams 2000). Swanson (2015) asserts that if a person is exposed to violence, that person is more likely to catch it. Thus, once the aggressive behaviour is acquired, the individual automatically learns how to execute such acts openly and also how to maintain it. This presumes that people who live in an environment that is characterised by assaults are prone to lead an aggressive lifestyle which can result them in frustration.

Frustration is also an important trigger of aggressive behaviour. The frustration-aggression theory postulates that "*aggression is always a consequences of frustration and that frustration always leads to some form of aggression*" (Worchel et al., 2000, p. 308). According to this theory, the instigation to aggress increases as the strength of frustration also increases. The scapegoat theory of discrimination holds that a variety of frustrations in everyday life in school, home, workplace and with friends can lead to displace aggressions (Worchel et al., 2000). Social psychologists look at an aggressive person with the view that he or she can be pushed by some external forces that cause one to aggress.

2.8 Elements of aggressive behaviours that can be found in schools

Elements of aggressive behaviours that can be found in schools may include: verbal threats, physical tantrums (such as throwing and fighting), reactive (such as unplanned retaliation) and proactive (such as bullying and provocations). Others may include: covert (lying, cheating, stealing, drug and substance abuse) and social manipulations (Fraser et al., 2002). Aggressive learners may also be socially incompetent and unable to elicit positive social responses. They may rather indulge in negative responses in various social contexts even when not obviously fierce. This may inhibit teaching and learning process and consequently create interpersonal problems in the school.

Szyndrowski (2005) believes that maltreated boys are 1000 times more likely to commit violent acts against an adult compared with their non-maltreated peers. Szyndrowski further asserts that children subjected to laisez-faire discipline are most likely to be lawless, indiscipline and become social misfit. Carter (2002) believes that teachers, who terrorize learners into compliance for any reason, incite intolerance and fear in them, which hardens their attitudes towards authority. Additionally, Smith and Smith (2006) believe that the classroom context plays a significant role in the emergence and persistence of aggressive behaviour. Smith and Smith advice that teachers, who want to deal with aggressive behaviours, must first identify the forces or seat of aggression.

2.9 How teachers can deal with aggressive behaviours in the classroom

Many behavioural disorders begin with or are made worse through behavioural processes such as modeling, reinforcement, extinction and punishment in the classroom (Kauffman, 2005). Teachers must therefore know when and how to appropriately use these behavioural processes. French, Conrad and Turner (1995) also believe that aggressive and disruptive behaviours are related to rejection in the classroom. Effective classroom management is thus needed to boost prevention efforts in dealing with aggressive behaviours.

Other strategies include: identification of students who are at-risk of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (EBD) for early intervention and treatment (Kauffman, 2005). Further, teachers must know how to control their temper and be very selective in choice of words, when dealing with students to avoid being aggressive. It is also appropriate for teachers to reduce behaviours such as fighting, name-calling, bullying and general intimidation that can create a negative school climate and lead to more serious violence. When these are not controlled, aggression becomes a sort of defense mechanism. In conclusion, when dealing with such behaviours, teachers need to examine the external forces that push the individual to aggress. Identifying both the environmental and social conditions that instigate the aggression will help to extinguish the motivation to aggress from students.

2.10 Interpersonal Relationships

The foundation for learning and human development in any school environment is interpersonal relationship. As such, a great deal of information in teaching and learning process is relevant to how teachers understand this relationship. Kim (2014) believes that when teachers are able to handle this relationship judiciously, it will help shape their goals and actualize these goals in the classroom.

According to Kim (2014), there are three critical aspects of interpersonal relationships in the school environment. These include respect for diversity, social support from adults and social support from students. Kim refers to respect for diversity as an aspect of relational life in school community which to some extent is the degree of mutual respect for individual differences such as: gender, race and culture at all levels of the school (i.e. adult-student; student-student and adult-adult) and overall norms for tolerance.

Social support from adults' is the relational life in school community which refers to the pattern of supportive and caring adult relationships for students. This includes the kind of expectations for students' success, willingness to listen to students and to get to know them as individuals with their personal concerns (Kim, 2014). Social support from students' also explains the relational life in the school community which refers to patterns of supportive peer relationships for students such as: friendships for socializing, friendship for problems and friendship for academic (Kim).

It is worth noting that good relationship with school staff strengthens students' educational values. Students who have consistent relationships with school personnel value the educational process and are often committed to the activities of the school (Wetzel, 2004). Clearly, a positive teacher-student relationship strongly contributes to student learning processes. Wentzel view the affective quality of teacher-student relationships as the central and critical motivator of student adjustment.

In the same vein, when young people are surrounded by friends who are academically oriented it increases their ability to attain success. A high level of respect for students' families, communities and culture is one of the most effective means to tighten personal bonds among students, teachers and parents (Cammarota, Moll, Gonzalez & Cannella, 2012). Teacher-students relationships should be understood in terms of the general interpretations that teachers and students attach to their interactions with each other.

Educational effectiveness research has shown that interpersonal relationships in the classroom level provide more significant educational outcomes than those at the school level (Cammarota et al., 2012). In view of the fact that students spent most of their time in classrooms with teachers, it is logic to conclude that teachers serve as a primary source of support for academic development in schools.

2.11 How teachers' can establish interpersonal relationships in the school

Nieto (2005, p. 7) opines that "*highly qualified teachers beyond acquiring subject matter knowledge, teaching and management skills, must acquire the skills of forming relations of trust with students*", especially when these students are vastly different from them in terms of

background and experiences. These types of trusting social relations may be established in a variety of ways, but should include teachers to respect and show interest in their students, connect their teaching to students' live experiences and establish high expectations to academic learning (Rosebery & Warren, 2008).

Other strategies that can be used to foster interpersonal relationships in school may include: building relationships and engaging students. Teachers need to take time to build relationships with students and other school personnel. In doing so, opportunities for fun can be incorporated into daily activities in the classroom for the purpose of making class instruction interesting. Further, teachers can engage their colleagues in meaningful conversation to enhance activities that promote social interaction in the school. Furthermore, teachers need to include students in goal-settings and decision-making processes whenever feasible, and develop good communication skills with students to avoid mistrust. Lastly, teachers need to engage students to inform their parents or guardians about their work in the classroom. This can be done through newsletters, family interviews, teacher-family conferences and through take home assignments.

3. Conclusion

In conclusion, social psychology for positive school climate holds a significant promise for promoting a lasting change in any educational settings especially at the basic schools. It is worth noting that, once healthier classroom practices are in place, the extension of that to the larger school community becomes easier. There is no doubt that the school will become a better place for good academic outcomes when a positive school climate is identified as an essential target for school improvement. The paper recommends that heads of schools periodically should provide in-service training for teachers on how to fuse social psychology principles to their-day-to-day activities in the classroom.

References

1. Attar-Schwartz, S. (2009). Peer sexual harassment victimization at school: The roles of student characteristics, cultural affiliation, and school factors. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 79,* 407-420. doi:10.1037/a0016553
2. Aronson, E., & Patnoe, S. (1997). *The jigsaw classroom: Building cooperation in the classroom (2nd ed.).* New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
3. Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
4. Blair, I. V. (2002). The malleability of automatic stereotypes and prejudice. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 6*(3), 242-261.
5. Bradshaw, C. P., Waasdorp, T. E. & Leaf, P. J. (2012). Effects of school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports on child behavior problems. *Pediatrics, 130*(5), e1136-e1145

6. Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to give effective feedback to your students.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
7. Bryk, A. S., Sebring, P. B., Allensworth, E., Luppescu, S., & Easton, J. Q. (2010). *Organizing schools for improvement: Lessons from Chicago.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
8. Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning. (2013). *CASEL schoolkit: A guide for implementing schoolwide academic, social, and emotional learning.* Chicago, IL: Author.
9. Cammarota, J., Moll, L., Gonzalez, M., & Cannella, C. (2012). Sociocultural perspective on interpersonal relationships in association with Mexican-American schools. *Education Journal, 3*(6), 12-16.
10. Carter, C. (2002). School ethos and construction of masculine identity: Do schools create, condone and sustain aggression? *Educational Review*, *54*(1), 28-36.
11. Cialdini, R. B. (2012). *Influence: Science and practice* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
12. Cohen, G. L., Garcia, J., Purdie-Vaughns, V., Apfel, N., & Brzustoski, P. (2009). Recursive processes in self-affirmation: Intervening to close the minority achievement gap. *Science, 324*, 400–403. doi:10.1126/science.1170769
13. Choy, S. P., Chen, X., & Bugarin, R. (2006). *Teacher professional development in 1999- 2000: What teachers, principals, and district staff report.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
14. Corvo, K. & Williams, K. (2000). Substance abuse, parenting styles and aggression: An exploratory study of weapon carrying students. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*, *44*(1), 13-27.
15. Durlak, J. A., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D, & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal interventions. *Child Development, 82*(1), 405-432.
16. Ferguson, C. J. (2010). Blazing angels or resident evil? Can violent video games be a force for good? *Review of General Psychology, 14*, 68-81.
17. Fraser, M., Nash, J., Galinsky, M., & Darwin, M., K. (2002). *The making choices program: Social problem-solving skills for children*. Washington, D.C: NASW Press.
18. French, D, Conrad, J. & Turner, T. 1995. Adjustment of antisocial and non-antisocial adolescents. *Development and Psychotherapy*, *7*, 857-874.
19. Gehlbach, H. (2010). The social side of school: Why teachers need social psychology. *Educational Psychology Review*, *22*(3), 349-362. doi:10.1007/s10648-010-9138-3
20. Gottfredson, G. D., Gottfredson, D. C., Payne, A., & Gottfredson, N. C. (2005). School climate predictors of school disorder: Results from national delinquency prevention in school. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, 42*, 421- 444.
21. Grossman, P., Hammerness, K., & McDonald, M. (2009.) Redefining teaching, re-imagining teacher education, *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 15*(2), 273-289. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13540600902875340

22. Hall, N., Hladkyj, S., Perry, R., & Ruthig, J. (2004). The role of attributional retraining and elaborative learning in college students' academic development. *Journal of Social Psychology, 144*(6), 591-612. Retrieved from Academic Search Complete database
23. Hattie, J. & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 81-113.
24. Kaiser, A. (2011). *Beginning teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the first through third waves of the 2007– 08 Beginning Teacher Longitudinal Study.* U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2011/2011318.pdf
25. Kane, L., Hoff, N., Cathcart, A., Heifner, A., Palmon, S. & Peterson, R.L. (2016). *School climate & culture. Strategy brief.* Lincoln, NE: Student Engagement Project, University of Nebraska-Lincoln and the Nebraska Department of Education Retrieved from http://www.k12engagement.unl.edu/school-climate-and-culture
26. Kassin, S., Fein, S., & Markus, R. H. (2013). *Social psychology*. Wadswortth: Cengage Learning.
27. Kauffman, J. M. (2005). *Characteristics of emotional and behavioral disorders of children and youth* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.
28. Kelley, H. H. (1967). Attribution theory in social psychol-ogy. In D. Levine (Ed.), Nebraska *symposium on motivation* (15th ed., pp. 129-238). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
29. Kim, H. (2014). Enacted social support on social media and subjective well-being. *International Journal of Communication, 8*, 2340–2342.
30. Lee, T., Cornell, D., Gregory, A., & Fan, X. (2011). High suspension schools and dropout rates for black and white students. *Education and Treatment of Children, 34*, 167-192.
31. Malle, B. F. (2011). *Attribution theories:* How people make sense of behaviour. In D. Charles (Eds.), *Theories in social psychology* (pp.72-95). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
32. Malle, B. F. & Korman, J. (2013). Attribution theory. In D. S. Dunn (Ed.), *Oxford Bibliographies in Psychology.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.. Retrieved from http://bit.ly/attribution_theory
33. Myers, D. G. (2007). *Exploring social psychology* (4th ed.). New York, NJ: McGraw-Hill.
34. Nieto, S. (2005). *Why we teach.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
35. Rosebery, A. S., & Warren, B. (2008). *Teaching science to English language learners: Building on students' strengths*. Arlington, VA: NSTA Press.
36. Ruus, V., Veisson, M., Leino, M., Ots, L., Pallas, L., Sarv, E., & Veisson, A. (2007). Students' well-being, coping, academic success, and school climate. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal, 35*, 919-936.
37. National School Climate Council. (2007). The school climate challenge: Narrowing the gap between school climate research and school climate policy, practice guidelines and teacher education policy. Retrieved from

https://www.schoolclimate.org/themes/schoolclimate/assets/pdf/policy/school-climate-challenge-web.pdf

38. Schunk, D. H., Pintrich, P. R., & Meece, J. L. (2008). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
39. Slavin, R. E., Hurley, E. A., & Chamberlain, A. (2003). Cooperative learning and achievement: Theory and research. In W. M. Reynolds & G. E. Miller (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Educational psychology* (7th ed., pp. 93-111). New York, NY: Wiley.
40. Smith, D. L., & Smith, B. J. (2006). Perceptions of violence: The views of teachers who left urban schools. *The High School Journal, 89,* 34-42.
41. Steele, C. M. (2010).*Whistling Vivaldi and other clues to how stereotypes affect us.* New York, NY: Norton.
42. Stewart, T. L., Latu, I. M., Kawakami, K., & Myers, A. C. (2010). Consider the situation: Reducing automatic stereotyping through Situational Attribution Training. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 46(1),* 221-225.
43. Swanson, A. S. A. (2015). *Why violence is so contagious*. *Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/wonk/wp/2015/12/15/why-violence-is-so-contagious/?utm_term=.fb549a29f126
44. Szyndrowski, D. (2005). The impact of domestic violence on adolescent aggression in the schools. *Preventing School Failure*, *44*(1), 9-12.
45. Tajfel, H., & Turner, J., C. (1986). The social theory of intergroup behaviour. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 7-24). Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.
46. Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Higgins-D'Alessandro, A., & Guffey, S. (2012). *School Climate Research Summary: School Climate Brief, No. 3.* New York, NY: National School Climate Center. Retrieved from www.schoolclimate.org/climate/research
47. Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2013). A review of school climate research. *Review of Educational Research, 83,* 357-385.
48. Walton, G. M., & Cohen, G. L. (2011). A brief social-belonging intervention improves academic and health outcomes of minority students. *Science,331*, 1447–1451.doi:10.1126/science.1198364
49. Walton, G. M., & Spencer, S. J. (2009). Latent ability: Grades and test scores systematically underestimate the intellectual ability of negatively stereotyped students. *Psychological Science*, *20*, 1132–1139. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2009.02417
50. Weiner, B. (2006). *Social motivation, justice, and the moral emotions: An attributional approach*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
51. Wentzel, K. R. (2004). Understanding classroom competence: The role of social-motivational and self-processes. In R. Kail (Ed.), *Advances in child development and behavior* (pp. 213-241). New York, NY: Elsevier.
52. Worchel, S., Cooper, J., Goethals, G. R. & Olson, M. J. (2000). *Social psychology*: Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
53. Yeager, D. S., & Walton, G. M. (2011). Social-psychological interventions in education: They're not magic. *Review of Educational Research*, *81*(2), 267-301.