TABLE OF CONTENTS

The full searchable electronic archive of the Journal is available at this address:
http://www.amcap.net

Implications of Civility for Children and Adolescents: A Review of the Literature

KEELY WILKINS, PAUL CALDARELLA, RACHEL CROOK-LYON, AND K. RICHARD YOUNG

The purpose of this article is to review the literature exploring various definitions of civility, along with reasons why civility is vital to children and adolescents in any community. The authors examine definitions and components of civility in both historical and current contexts. The need for increased civility in modern society is described. The authors also explore the relationship of civility education to character and moral education and outline civility interventions suggested in the literature. Finally, suggestions are given for methods and strategies that have been found to be successful in bringing civility into schools.

"Caring for others, seeing and reaching beyond our own wants and comforts, cultivating kindness and gentility toward others from all of life's situations and circumstances—these are the essence of civility, a virtue to be admired, a virtue to be acquired."(Gordon B. Hinckley, 2000, p. 58)

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Civility, defined as polite behaviors that maintain social harmony or demonstrate respect for the humanity of an individual, is important in maintaining a society. However, many aspects of today's rapidly changing world—including influence of media, pervasiveness of technology, weakening of families, mobility, focus on the individual, and glorification of violence—contribute to incivility. Much anecdotal evidence suggests that civility is vanishing both as a behavior and a virtue (Ber-

man, 1998; Boyd, 2006; Burns, 2003; Hinckley, 2000; Feldman, 2001; Kauffman & Burbach, 1997; Peck, 2002; Schaefer, 1995; Stover, 1999). The increased academic focus of public education has minimized the teaching of civil behavior, once prevalent in American schools (Peck, 2002). Increasing statistics of violence combined with

Keely Wilkins, is an Ed.S. student in the School Psychology Program at Brigham Young University. Paul Caldarella, PhD, is an assistant professor in the Counseling Psychology and Special Education Department at Brigham Young University. Rachel Crook-Lyon, PhD, is an assistant professor in the Counseling Psychology and Special Education Department at Brigham Young University. K. Richard Young, PhD, is dean of the David O. McKay School of Education and a professor in the Counseling Psychology and Special Education Department at Brigham Young University. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Paul Caldarella, PhD, Counseling Psychology and Special Education, MCKB 340-A, Provo, Utah 84602. Email: paul_caldarella@byu.edu

anecdotal evidence lead many researchers, professionals, and laypersons to decry the loss of civility and look for some way to revive this peace-making virtue.

The purpose of this article is to review the literature exploring various definitions of civility, along with reasons why civility is vital to children and adolescents in any community. The first section sets the stage by examining definitions and components of civility in both historical and current contexts. Next civility is examined more specifically as it affects today's children and adolescents, including school curriculum, school environment, and personal development. Finally, suggestions are given for methods and strategies that have been successful in bringing civility into schools. We consider the importance, some of the challenges, and some useful methodologies of teaching civility while interacting with youth in roles such as parent, teacher, youth leader, and clinician.

CIVILITY AS A CONCEPT

DEFINITIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

A definition of *civility* might include characteristics like courtesy, politeness, consideration, gentility, and respect, as well as dispositions like caring, looking beyond selfishness, or seeking ways to help those in need (Hinckley, 2000). Civility has been defined simply as decency (Peck, 2002) and as the consideration of others within interpersonal relationships (Ferriss, 2002). Keyes (2002) defined civility as "the quality with which individuals comport themselves in each other's company, reflecting the degree to which each individual is polite and courteous" (p. 393). We believe that the notion of civility also includes the way people think about and behave toward their community and society.

Historical context. To more fully understand the complex construct of civility, it is useful to view the term in its historical context. In the Latin roots *civis* (citizen) and *civitas* (city), one sees the connection of civility to maintaining a functioning society; thus civilized people are those who are fit to both enjoy the benefits and carry the responsibilities of citizenship (Peck, 2002). Boyd (2006) agreed that civility is related to civilization and "denotes a sense of standing or membership in the political community with its attendant rights and responsibility" (p. 864). Thus civility may be defined as the ability to work as a citizen (Shulman & Carey, 1984).

Functional perspective. Functionally, the object of civil behavior, as it relates to civic capacity, is an ordered, harmonious community (Schaefer, 1995). The maintenance of a civilization obligates its members to be polite in everyday interactions with fellow citizens (Boyd, 2006). Hinckley (2000) noted that "civility requires us to restrain and control ourselves, and at the same time to act with respect toward others" (p. 53). Thus civility, as a code of mutually accepted social behaviors, functions to create order and focus toward the common good of all citizens.

Civility may be viewed in two distinct ways: proximate and diffuse (Fyfe, Banister, & Kearns, 2006). *Proximate civility* is characterized as politeness, or the absence of rude interactions with others: It includes words and gestures used with or around others. *Diffuse civility* is defined as regard for the effects of one's actions on others and the spaces shared with them, whether or not one is present at the same time as others in those spaces. Civility requires respect for others in their presence and maintenance of shared spaces in consideration of others using them (Forni, 2002).

The reasons for civility—in either its ancient or modern applications—go back to the common good. More than merely tolerance and peacefulness, which require only leaving other people alone, civility requires activity, with affirmative action in which individuals purposefully interact with others to lift and to help (Boyd, 2006).

Naturally, *incivility* is behavior that disrupts social harmony or disregards the humanity of a person (Hinckley, 2000). Uncivil behavior is indifferent to the good of a community, favoring individual interests and pleasure (Feldmann, 2001). It is not necessarily behavior *against* the common good; it just puts personal interests first.

Fundamental elements of civility. If civility is to be considered as active demonstration of courtesy, consideration, and respect in both civic and personal contexts, many aspects and elements are naturally involved. Awareness of oneself and the environment has been noted as an essential factor (Forni, 2002). Self-control is another critical component, as supported by one of the few empirical studies of civility (Ferriss, 2002; see also Hinckley, 2000; Kuhlenschmidt, 1999), and empathy is fundamental as well (Berman, 1998; Kahn & Lawhorne, 2003; Schaefer, 1995). Some (Boyd, 2006; Hinckley, 2000; Stover, 1999; Youniss & Yates, 1999) also emphasize respect, which includes regard for and acknowledgement of the property,

rights, and humanity of others—perhaps the underlying quality of civil behavior.

TODAY'S NEED FOR CIVILITY

Concerns regarding incivility have been noted throughout history (Fyfe, Bannister, & Kearns, 2006) and continue to be reported (see e.g., Hinckley, 2000; Feldman, 2001; Kauffman & Burbach, 1997; Peck, 2002). Increased public exposure to uncivil behavior via the modern media may cause incivility to seem more pervasive than ever before (Ferriss, 2002). While anecdotal reports of child and adolescent behavior suggest that incivility has increased in the schools and in society in general (see e.g., Feldman, 2001; Forni, 2002; Peck, 2002), little empirical evidence examines the actual levels or changes in specific civil behaviors. However, data measuring antisocial behavior, violence, and crime, are available and point to the necessity of interventions to increase civility.

Antisocial behavior, violence, and crime. Walker, Ramsey, and Gresham (2004) provide a comprehensive overview of *antisocial behavior*, defining it as hostility and aggression toward others and society, which may be considered the extreme of uncivil behavior. These misbehaviors are not necessarily criminal, but they are aversive to others and can lead to more serious misbehaviors. Walker and associates note that an antisocial behavior pattern identified in the school years (e.g. conduct disorder) that is not treated with intervention may continue into adulthood as an antisocial personality disorder. They also contend that antisocial behaviors are both individual problems and societal problems that can cause a great deal of trouble in the schools. Garbarino (1999) posits that much of youth violence can be attributed to attachment difficulties between child and parent, youth depression, and parental abandonment. Hence although most antisocial behaviors stem from personal and familial dysfunction, many may be perpetuated and exacerbated by negative school environments leading to school violence and crime.

Crime can be largely attributed to human greed, uncontrolled passions, and disregard for others (Hinckley, 2000). In 2005 about 10% of males and 6% of females in secondary schools reported having been threatened or injured with a weapon on school property (Mayer, 2008). As noted by the National Center for School Statistics (2007), during the 2005–06 school year 86% of public schools reported that at least one theft, violent crime, or other crime occurred in a school setting, amounting to

an estimated 2.2 million crimes. The Center also reported that during 2005-06 school year 4% of students ages 12–18 reported being victimized at school during the previous 6 months, 3% reported theft, and 1% reported violent victimization. Data show that 1.5 million secondary school students experienced a crime at school in 2005 (Mayer, 2008).

Media and technology. Changes occurring in contemporary society, including prevalence of antisocial behavior and violence, have affected many people's beliefs, attitudes, and actions. Society has taken a sharp turn away from focusing on people and relationships toward focusing on the self and technology (Peck, 2002). With an ever-increasing amount of technological equipment in which individuals can immerse themselves, relationships tend to become less important, and common courtesies or manners tend to seem outdated.

Decline of civic responsibility. Media focus and general societal emphasis on gratification of the individual are taking their toll on civic life and responsibility. Schaefer (1995) found a lack of civic responsibility among individuals in the United States, especially adolescents. Many young adults have difficulty thinking in terms of the whole community, of what is good for everyone, focusing instead on just what they want for themselves and their peers. Modern American culture (particularly the culture of youth) is obsessively self-centered, shallow, and irreverent (Schaefer, 1995). People seem to be encouraged to let go of all restraints and express themselves publically any way they want to (Sherman, 2005). From this position, youth feel encouraged to mock conformity and to seek to have all that they want and to have it now. Such attributes and attitudes can lead to uncivil behavior.

Intrinsic value of civility. Above and beyond the necessity for civil behavior to maintain peace and order in a society, people are obliged to behave civilly because other human beings deserve to be treated with respect, as all are of equal worth (Boyd, 2006; Forni, 2002; Hinckley, 2000; Youniss & Yates, 1999). Treating others with the respect of civility is important for two reasons: Dependence on others is crucial for survival and such respectful treatment is the right of equal persons. As a citizen, one does not have to like or be fond of someone to treat that person civilly (Peck, 2002); displaying decency towards others is necessary simply because of their equal status as fellow citizens. Many also gain personal satisfaction from the ability to serve and a desire to somehow make a dif-

ference in the world, both of which can be met through civil behavior (Hinckley).

Regardless of whether or not incivility is really increasing, the modern world needs a shift toward more respectful behaviors. High crime rates in schools, increasingly crude media, and the perceived widespread lack of respect and responsibility need improvement. Although civil behaviors alone cannot produce an instantly perfected society, these behaviors can improve society. Teaching people to behave more civilly is a step toward a more harmonious and positive society; teaching civility in schools offers a reasonable way to obtain this goal.

CIVILITY AND TODAY'S YOUTH

In considering what civility is and what it can (should) accomplish, as well as noting the aspects of society that mitigate against it, we quickly recognize particular dangers placed by incivility on today's children and youth. These young people are the leading citizens of tomorrow; if they can be taught to realize the values and resist the threats to civility, a more civil society may be encouraged.

FOCUS OF EDUCATION

At its inception, public education had the purpose of nurturing a civil society: The main function was to prepare students to serve and improve society. Mourad (2001) stated that organized education is a major component of the civil state and is linked to concepts of the common good. He observed that the goals of modern public education are to prepare children for employment, create national strength, create socioeconomic mobility, and teach children to obey laws. He argued, however, that public education can be more: It can accept the social responsibility for the well-being of individuals and become an institution to convey basic human values. As Montessori (1948) signaled many years ago, "Education should not limit itself to seeking new methods for a mostly arid transmission of knowledge: Its aim must be to give the necessary aid to human development" (p. 126). The current trend to focus primarily on academic mastery, as well as the ever-decreasing support given to public education and the common emphasis for teachers to "do more with less," undermine this potential.

The purpose and nature of formal education in the United States has changed immensely. Throughout most of the history of the United States, its goals were to prepare children to be good citizens of their society, to comply with the law, and to demonstrate self-control (Peck, 2002). Preparation for civic responsibilities was its principal objective (Schaps & Lewis, 1998). Training in civility and manners carried equal value with academic studies because of the potential effect on both the individual and society (Berman, 1998).

The use of the McGuffey Readers, beginning in the 1830s, illustrates this intended enculturation (Peck, 2002; Field, 1997). Used in both primary and secondary schools, these readers (1) helped children learn to read while they (2) exposed children to culture and civility. These readers were a prominent fixture in U.S. classrooms for decades—through the 1920s (Field, 1997). They emphasized character, moral integrity, individual responsibility, and ethical conduct, teaching the standards of social life and providing a frame of reference for acceptable social demeanor. Topics discussed included work ethic, politeness, diligence, honesty, fairness, negotiation, consideration and respect for others, morality, and patience. Read by children and adults alike, the readers had a huge impact on society in the United States. They and the Bible were the sole sources of enlightenment in many households, indoctrinating American citizens with good manners and civil responsibility (Peck, 2002).

The school is a multipurpose institution that cannot concentrate solely on academic goals (Noddings, 1992). While it may not be reasonable to revert to the approach taken in earlier American schools, some of these initial ideals can be incorporated into contemporary education. Today's academic emphasis is essential for children to gain the preparation necessary to survive as functional and employable adults in modern society. Indeed, it would be foolish to attempt to limit students' education to kindness, loyalty, and respect; but is it necessary to avoid teaching such things at all? Infusing the current curriculum with some of the ideals central to early American public education might be a way of strengthening children's civility and improving society without sacrificing its major academic focus; such an enhanced curriculum might also be a way to address school violence.

PREVENTION OF SCHOOL VIOLENCE

In one of the few empirical studies regarding civility, Hatch (1998) maintained that civility can be a tool to alleviate the negativity found in schools:

Civility is a form of politeness, and if the art of civility is taught, then the skills used in resolving differences are more easily implemented. A polite atmosphere is an excellent setting in which to solve future problems and conflicts as they arise. (p. 36)

If students leave school with the positive forces of their high school experience to guide them, they will most likely take those forces into society. The art of civility is a quality needing to be integrated into society, and secondary education is the means. By teaching secondary students the skills necessary to get along with others and the quality of civility, we can initiate the introduction of positive attitudes into a society. Any skills we can teach to teenagers which will have a positive impact on their lives are worthwhile, not only to the students, but also to society. (p. 56)

Reflection on the societal effects of civility leads to consideration of its possible role in reducing school violence, a subject gaining increased attention as disturbing acts of aggression are widely publicized by the media. Many authors (Feldmann, 2001; Forni as quoted in O'Mara, 2007; Hatch, 1998; Kahn & Lawhorne, 2003; Kauffman & Burbach, 1997; Mayer, in press; Peck, 2002) have expressed the opinion that civility may contribute to controlling and reducing acts of violence. Kahn and Lawhorne (2003) suggested that school safety is linked to a culture of civility. Physical precautions are not sufficient to create a safe school (Mayer, 2008); rather a culture of civility and mutual respect is necessary to ensure student safety (Kahn & Lawhorne). Fostering an attitude of civility in schools may keep interpersonal conflicts from escalating into acts of violence.

Others have agreed that violence may be related to incivility (Boxer, Edwards-Leeper, Goldstein, Musher-Eizenman, & Dubow, 2003; Mayer, in press; Skiba et al., 2004). Mayer investigated relationships of various student perceptions of school safety and violence with student fear in addition to anxiety and avoidant behaviors. He concluded that experiencing uncivil behaviors such as intimidation, bullying, hate language, and social rejection explain students' fear, anxiety, and avoidant behaviors better than does actual victimization by theft or attack. He pointed out that students' concerns about their safety at school can negatively impact their school performance and suggested that educators align their priorities to address low-level incivilities. Reducing uncivil behaviors may be more effective than directly targeting high-level aggression and violence because the negative behaviors

are shaping students' perceptions of school safety (Mayer, in press; Skiba et al., 2004).

Similarly, an empirical study on the associations between exposure to "low-level" aggression and measures of well-being suggested that low-level aggression seems to have effects on psychosocial functioning similar to those of more severe forms of aggression (Boxer et al., 2003). This study examined student who were both experiencing and witnessing low-level aggression and found both to negatively impact measures of well-being (i.e. future expectations and perceived safety). Although low-level aggressive behaviors are much more prevalent in schools than blatantly aggressive behaviors and may easily be ignored and not corrected, they should not be trivialized.

Feldman (2001) and Benton (2007) have suggested that schools would do well to deal with smaller-level acts of incivility to prevent escalation into more serious acts. These small acts include refusing to address school faculty appropriately, making borderline insulting remarks in class, neglecting to bring the proper supplies to class, or failing to show up to appointments (Benton, 2007). Arriving late or leaving early from class, using cell phones, doing non-class activities in class, wearing inappropriate attire, monopolizing classroom discussion, being vocally intolerant of others' opinions, or holding private discussions with others have also been noted as common uncivil behaviors in schools (Feldman, 2001). An empirical study regarding civility suggested that cursing at a teacher or peer is a common uncivil behavior seen in schools (Plank, McDill, McPartland, & Jordan, 2001). By ignoring these small acts, instructors are essentially condoning the behavior, encouraging students to test incrementally how much incivility will be tolerated (Feldman, 2001; Benton, 2007).

In the opinion of Kauffman and Burbach (1997), creating a climate of civility in the classroom is one of the most effective ways a teacher can prevent youth violence. A decline in civility is a major threat to the well-being of both teachers and students since a small social blunder might easily explode to a violent confrontation. Although a system of conflict resolution may help diffuse this violence, a code of civility might prevent it altogether (Kauffman & Burbach).

ADOLESCENCE AS A CRUCIAL TIME

Schaefer (1995) believed that adolescents are a good population with whom to work on civility because cre-

ating social ties and building community are major developmental needs of this age group. Adolescents are in the midst of identity formation and can benefit from opportunities to serve their community (Youniss & Yates, 1999). On the verge of full formal citizenship, adolescents have a need to be informed about their community; they also have the cognitive ability to reason effectively with this information (Althof & Berkowitz, 2006). Adolescents feel a need to realize their potential, assume their place in society, and become a contributing force for good (Ludick, 2002). Ludick (2001) believed that educators can affirm their faith in youth by expecting more from them and treating them as if they are better than they actually show. Schaefer quoted several adolescents who seemed to be acutely aware of the need for civility and to recognize good manners as "social laws" that are "essential to any society." He contended that adolescents are capable of thinking in terms of the greater good; therefore, school faculty should not expect any less of them.

Murray (2006) suggested that uncivil attitudes and behaviors can be changed by fostering civility in secondary schools. Survey research with a large school district in Texas (Hatch, 1998) investigated the need to teach secondary school students the "art" of civility along with skills for resolving differences. This study found that adolescents believed skills for resolving problems with peers and family members to be valuable, and they were willing to learn these skills. Because belonging is a basic human need, it can be a strong motivator for students to seek ways to resolve negative issues that may be blocking them from having positive social interactions with others (Hatch, 1998).

SUGGESTIONS FOR CIVILITY INTERVENTION

Because awareness, empathy and respect are basic elements of civility that have the potential to reduce violent thoughts and behavior in maturing and socially-oriented adolescents, materials and activities that promote civility in this age group need to be developed (Schaefer, 1995). In the sections which follow we review possible components of a civility intervention as well as strategies for increasing civility in youth, with a particular focus on applications in schools.

COMPONENTS OF CIVILITY INTERVENTION

Civility is addressed to some degree in the schools by general rules or guidelines for social behavior. However the rationale, benefits, and full scope of civil behavior receive little direct attention: More work appears to be needed. We will now examine social consciousness, empathy, and respect as three important components of a potential civility intervention for schools.

Social consciousness. Berman (1998) and Boyd (2006) have expressed the opinion that social consciousness, unity, and responsibility are major factors leading to greater civility. When adolescents lack a sense of community, they develop apathy, which may damage the relationship of friends, lead to intolerance and incivility, and destroy potential confidence that they can make a difference to other individuals and to their community. Scholars suggest that by reconnecting youth with their community, helping them understand and appreciate others, and showing them that they can make a difference, responsible adults can help adolescents move toward greater civility (Berman, 1998; Garbarino, 1999; Youniss & Yates, 1999). Youniss and Yates (1999) argue this point eloquently:

> Seeing that they can actually help . . . people, and then possibly projecting themselves as having skills and responsibility for addressing social ills, youth have taken a large step toward incorporating morality into their identities. It is from such moral identities that spontaneous morality flows in adults. (p.372)

Similarly, Garbarino (1999) suggested that mentoring and positive social support provide youth with a sense of value in life. With the understanding that someone cares about them, adolescents would begin to develop an appropriate sense of community leading to increased civil behavior.

Empathy. In order to generate this social consciousness and sense of community, empathy must be developed (Berman, 1998; Garbarino, 1999; Kahn & Lawhorne, 2003; Schaefer, 1995) because of its strong positive influence on a culture of safety in schools (Kahn & Lawhorne, 2003). Kahn and Lawhorne (2003) further stated that the development of empathy involves emotion, cognition, and operant behavior dynamically interactive. Empathy is innate and neurologically based in the emotional arousal system of humans, but the environment extensively affects its development. Thus Kahn and Lawhorne

(2003) argued that empathy can be deliberately taught and learned. They also contended that as children come to experience appropriate empathy, more civilized behaviors will occur while uncivilized behaviors will diminish, as mature empathy generates prosocial behaviors such as sharing, sacrificing, and observing norms (Kahn & Lawhorne). Part of becoming civil includes developing a consciousness of self and an awareness of others, which helps to establish bonds and increase sensitivity to others' needs and wants (Peck, 2002).

Berman (1998) expressed the opinion that children are capable of thinking in profound empathic and moralistic ways, but their behavior does not always reflect this ability because they do not possess the necessary skills. Mental health professionals can teach empathy to children and adolescents by training them in assuming the perspective or role of another, which is the highest level of empathy (Berman; Kahn & Lawhorne, 2003). Similarly, Garbarino (1999), from his work with inner-city African American male youths, recommends first teaching boys to identify and manage their own feelings and then to recognize others' emotions. With the ability to see from another's point of view, an individual becomes more understanding of other people, is less likely to take offense, and is more likely to demonstrate civil behaviors in consideration of needs, wants, and human dignity of others.

Respect. Another factor in effectively building social consciousness while working with children and adolescents is establishing rapport: providing emotional support, expressing interest in their cares and concerns, and listening to their disputes (Stover, 1999). Mutual respect is what makes this strategy effective; creating genuine respect among children, adolescents, and adults can result in a positive organizational atmosphere (Stover, 1999). Adults who work with children and youth can be effective examples by engaging in respectful and civil behaviors themselves (Ludick, 2001). It seems unreasonable to expect children and adolescents to engage in behaviors that adults around them do not practice (Burns, 2003).

STRATEGIES FOR CIVILITY INTERVENTION

Fostering social consciousness, teaching empathy, and promoting respect are very broad aims. They must be undertaken as component steps. Programs and interventions targeting particular social skills or behaviors are available and have been effective in increasing prosocial behaviors of students (See Merrell & Gimpel, 1998 for a

more complete discussion of social skills programs). No research has linked these programs and prosocial behaviors directly to civility in schools, but similar interventions may be effective for teaching civility.

Expectations and opportunities. An informal experiment in a small classroom of boys with behavioral problems yielded several suggestions for fostering basic manners in schools (Burns, 2003). First, expectations must be made clear, and those expectations should be upheld with consistency. The instructor should discuss with students the rationale behind using these target behaviors and inform them of the reaction they can expect from others; subsequently the teacher can request that students use the new behaviors. Students must also be provided with opportunities to use the new behaviors so they can see the positive effects and should be reminded to use the new behaviors when entering a situation appropriate for practicing these skills. Students may also be encouraged in their civil behaviors by sharing their experiences through participating in group discussions, completing checklists or keeping journals. Finally, teachers need to evaluate the behavior to ensure that the desired goal is being met; if it is not, teachers need to strengthen their consistency and reinforcement, or perhaps they need to clarify appropriate use of the new behaviors (Burns, 2003).

Environment and attitudes. Educators have used various programs to create an environment of courtesy, including social skills training, problem solving, self-esteem enhancement, conflict resolution, drug use prevention, anger management, and community service (Stover, 1999). Some programs include an experiential aspect: i.e., field trips to the local homeless shelter, police station, and library in order to involve students directly with their community (Stover, 1999; Youniss & Yates, 1999). Promoting civility may be as easy as making students aware of their peers' specific attitudes and beliefs toward violence: i.e., that contrary to popular perception, most do not appreciate violence or any other form of incivility (Stiles & Tyson, 2008). Although no single program can eliminate adolescent misbehavior and mischief, such programs may help to instill more civility in adolescents and children.

The theoretical literature suggests that fostering civility among children and adolescents is beneficial to individuals and to society. Parents, educators, clinicians, or others who have extensive contact with youth are encouraged to find opportunities to model and directly

teach civil behaviors. As noted in the literature, perceptions of safety and measures of well-being are affected by incivility (Boxer et al., 2003; Mayer, in press; Skiba et al., 2004). Incidences of incivility at school may detract from academic time by distracting students, requiring the teacher or administrator to address a problem, or making the environment uncomfortable. Each of the civility interventions proposed in this article has a rationale based in theory and results observed in practice. The missing components, however, are data to support the use of these interventions. Authors have suggested many ideas to increase civility, but without the support of empirical evidence. The next step will be to design and test the efficacy of an intervention to increase civil behavior among children and adolescents—an endeavor worthy of further exploration.

REFERENCES

Althof, W., & Berkowitz, M. W. (2006). Moral education and character education: Their relationship and roles in citizenship education. *Journal of Moral Education, 35*(4), 495–518.

Benton, T. H. (2007). Remedial civility training. *Chronicle of Higher Education, 53*(36), 73.

Berman, S. H. (1998). The bridge to civility: Empathy, ethics, and service. *School Administrator, 55*(5), 27–32.

Boyd, R. (2006). The value of civility? *Urban Studies, 43*, 863–878.

Boxer, P., Edwards-Leeper, L., Goldstein, S.E., Musher-Eizenman, D., & Dubow, E.F. (2003). Exposure to "low-level" aggression in school: Associations with aggressive behavior, future expectations, and perceived safety. *Violence and Victims, 18*(6), 691–703.

Burns, M. T. (2003). The battle for civilized behavior: Let's begin with manners. *Phi Delta Kappan, 84*, 546–549.

Feldmann, L. J. (2001). Classroom civility is another of our instructor responsibilities. *College Teaching, 49*(4), 137–140.

Ferriss, A. L. (2002). Studying and measuring civility: A framework, trends, and scale. *Sociological Inquiry, 72*(3), 376–392.

Field, S. L. (1997). Citizens for a "new world order": A historical perspective of citizenship education in the United States. In K. Kennedy (Ed.), *Citizenship education and the modern state* (pp. 137–147). London: The Falmer Press.

Forni, P. M. (2002). *Choosing civility: The twenty-five rules of considerate conduct.* New York: St. Martin's Press.

Fyfe, N., Bannister, J., & Kearns, A. (2006). (In)civility and the city. *Urban Studies, 43*, 853–861.

Garbarino, J. (1999). Lost boys: Why our sons turn violent and how we can save them. New York: The Free Press.

Hatch, D. R. (1998). Resolving differences: An education in civility (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Texas, El Paso.

Hinckley, G. B. (2000). *Standing for something: 10 neglected virtues that will heal our hearts and homes.* New York: Random House.

Kahn, W. J., & Lawhorne, C. V. (2003). *Empathy: The critical factor in conflict-resolution and a culture of civility* (report). West Chester PA: University of West Chester. Retrieved from EBSCO host database. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED479344).

Kauffman, J. M., & Burbach, H. J. (1997). On creating a climate of classroom civility. *Phi Delta Kappan, 79*, 320–25.

Keyes, C. L. M. (2002). Social civility in the United States. *Sociological Inquiry, 78*, 393–408.

Kuhlenschmidt, S. L. (1999). Promoting internal civility: Understanding our beliefs about teaching and students. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 77*, 13–22.

Ludick, P. (2001). The culture of civility: The social cohesion of the social community. *NAMTA Journal, 26*(3), 33–53.

Ludick, P. (2002). Civility and citizenship: The roots of community connection. *NAMTA Journal, 27*(3), 115–128.

Mayer, M. J. (2008). Fact sheet #1: Overview of school violence prevention. Retrieved from http://www.ncsvprp.org.

Mayer, M. J. (in press). Structural analysis of 1995–2005 school crime supplement datasets: Factors influencing students' fear, anxiety, and avoidant behaviors. *Journal of School Violence.*

Merrell, K. & Gimpel, G. (1998). *Social skills of children and adolescents.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Montessori, M. (1976). *From childhood to adolescence* (A. M. Joosten, Trans.). New York: Schocken. (Original work published 1948).

Mourad, R., Jr. (2001). Education after Foucault: The question of civility. *Teachers College Record, 103*, 739–759.

Murray, M., Jr. (2006). Teenage behavior: It's not biology, psychology, or family values. *Educational Horizons, 84*(4), 240–246.

National Center for School Statistics. (2007). *Indicators of school crime and safety: 2007.* Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/crimeindicators/crimeindicators2007/.

Noddings, N. (1992). *The challenge to care in schools.* New York: Teachers College Press.

O'Mara, R. (2007). Civility engineer. *The Christian Science Monitor, 100*(12), 20.

Peck, D. L. (2002). Civility: A contemporary context for a meaningful historical concept. *Sociological Inquiry, 72*, 358–375.

Plank, S. B., McDill, E. L., McPartland, J. M., & Jordan, W. J. (2001). Situation and repertoire: Civility, incivility, cursing, and polite-

ness in an urban high school. *Teachers College Record, 103*(3), 504–524.

Schaefer, L. (1995). Reinventing civility. *NAMTA Journal, 20*, 138–147.

Schaps, E., & Lewis, C. C. (1998). Breeding citizenship through community in school. *Education Digest, 64*(1), 23–27.

Sherman, N. (2005). Of manners and morals. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 53*(3), 272–289.

Shulman, L. S., & Carey, N. B. (1984). Psychology and the limitations of individual rationality: Implications for the study of reasoning and civility. *Review of Educational Research, 54*, 501–524.

Skiba, R. J., Simmons, A. B., Peterson, R., McKelvey, J., Forde, S., & Gallini, S. (2004). Beyond guns, drugs, and gangs: The structure of student perceptions of school safety. *Journal of School Violence, 3*(2/3), 149–171.

Stiles, M., & Tyson, B. (2008). Marketing civility. *American School Board Journal, 195*(3), 36–37.

Stover, D. (1999). Raising students' civil behavior. *The Education Digest, 64*(5), 11–13.

Walker, H. M., Ramsey, E., & Gresham, F. M. (2004). *Antisocial behavior in school: Evidence-based practices* (2nd ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Youniss, J. & Yates, M. (1999). Youth service and moral-civic identity: A case for everyday morality. *Educational Psychology Review, 11*(4), 361–376.