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“DO SCHOOLS MATTER?”

**A STUDY OF BEHAVIOUR WHICH IS A
CAUSE FOR CONCERN IN PRIMARY
AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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**Thesis submitted in accordance with the regulations of
the degree of Master of Letters**

University of Glasgow, Faculty of Social Sciences

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with different types of pupil behaviour which are a cause concern in primary and secondary schools in Strathclyde Region.

The frequency of each type of behaviour is established together with likely teacher response. Teacher opinion on the climate within their own school is also explored as is their opinion on general educational issues.

The historical development of each of the main approaches to behaviour is discussed, together with the school systems associated with these and it is within this theoretical framework that the data is analysed.

Information was gathered by questionnaire from a sample consisting of 5% of Strathclyde schools and the data analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

The results of the study indicate that the type of behaviour which is most likely to cause concern to teachers is that which is described as being "manipulative" in nature. A detailed analysis of this type of pupil behaviour is carried out, and takes into consideration the teachers' age, gender and position within the school.

The level of occurrence of such behaviour is established, and when viewed within the context of school size and social deprivation status, the teaching groups most likely to experience the behaviour are identified.

This data was contrasted with teacher opinion on school ethos/climate and differing perspectives of male and female, promoted and unpromoted, and younger and older teachers were revealed.

This study concludes with suggestions on school systems which could assist pupils and staff to develop an educational environment supportive for all.

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CHAPTER 1

DEFINITION OF MALADJUSTMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The term maladjustment is difficult to define. At the onset it should be understood that there are not two distinct categories of maladjusted and adjusted, but rather behaviour may be placed at some point on a continuum which runs from one extreme to the other.

The kinds of behaviour which may be called maladjusted, (Underwood 1955, Rutter 1965), have been the subject of continuous debate for decades. In the present educational system however, there are pupils who are given special treatment in a particular kind of provision which differs from that which they have already experienced, yet no reliable method of identifying such pupils in order to make an appropriate placement as yet exists. For example, regional variations have always been very obvious. A comparison between the North of England and the Metropolitan area of London in 1966 showed that those being recommended as being in need of special attention varied from 3.4% per 10,000 to 28.3% per 10,000 respectively. This observation was echoed in the Warnock Report DES(1978), which stated that regarding the number of maladjusted pupils, there were differences of ten fold between two London boroughs. On such a discrepancy the report comments:

“Some of the variations between authorities may

reflect variations in local policy and the strength of assessment services, but they also suggest a relationship between the rate of ascertainment and the availability of special provision.” (1)

It would surely be foolish to assume that such differences in statistics accurately reflect the real situation. Reasons for this may include differing professional stances in terms of identifying needs, (social workers, educationalists, psychologists, the medical profession) added to which is a need to work within the boundaries of financial constraints.

1.2 DEFINITION

Before proceeding further, it would be useful to consider what is meant by the term maladjustment. There are many definitions and descriptions of maladjustment: Howard (1952); Wall (1955); Valentine (1956); Lenhoff (1960); Stott (1966); and Gulliford (1971).

The main historical definitions however which have carried the greatest weight come from two official sources. According to the Underwood Report (1955);

“A child may be regarded as maladjusted who is developing in ways that have a bad effect on himself or his fellows, and cannot without help be remedied by his parents, teachers and other adults in ordinary contact with him.” (2)

The Handicapped Pupils and School Health Regulations, (1945) see maladjusted children as showing;

“evidence of emotional instability or psychological disturbance and who require special educational treatment in order to effect their personal social and educational readjustment.” (3)

Underwood (1955), whilst recognising that phases of anxiety or moodiness are “normal” symptoms, it is the intensity and duration of such exaggerated forms of behaviour that indicate the degree of maladjustment in children. Although some symptoms appear under different headings, Underwood recognises six basic types of disorder;

- ◆ **Psychotic Behaviour:** extreme withdrawal, bizarre behaviour, violence towards others and hallucinatory/delusional states.
- ◆ **Organic Disorders:** normally damage to central nervous system.
- ◆ **Nervous/Emotional Disorders:** excitability, overactivity, apathy, obsessions, depression, withdrawal, fears.
- ◆ **Behaviour Disorders:** antisocial behaviour, temper tantrums, aggression, sexual difficulties.
- ◆ **Habit Disorders:** uncoordinated movements, enuresis, encopresis, nightmares, speech defects.
- ◆ **Educational/Vocational Difficulties:** backwardness not accounted for by dullness, unusual responses in school setting. (4)

Rutter (1965), has also categorised disorders under nine headings:

- ◆ **Neurotic Disorders.**
- ◆ **Antisocial Disorders.**
- ◆ **Mixed group** where neither antisocial nor neurotic disorders predominate.
- ◆ **Developmental Disorders.**
- ◆ **The Hyperkinetic Syndrome.**
- ◆ **Child Psychosis.**
- ◆ **Psychosis** developing at/after puberty.
- ◆ **Mental Subnormality**
- ◆ **Educational Retardation** as a primary problem. (5)

Although such statements help to clarify many issues they were criticised on several counts. Whitmore (1975), strongly objected to a term which implies that where maladjustment occurs, the child is responsible. In more recent years however, the term maladjustment has been supported by various bodies.

Warnock, DES(1978), examined the criticisms and alternatives to the Underwood definition and concluded that it “remains a serviceable form of description and should be retained.” Other leading authors have also supported it.

Cashdan (1976), states that in administrative terms, the effective approach to maladjustment be “achieved only by reference to opinion, albeit informed opinion.” This may result in action being “dependent on the opinion or

whim of the individual doctor or other expert and the amount of provision thought to be needed.” Yet although the term maladjustment has been concisely defined, there is still a great deal of professional disagreement surrounding the concept. Nonetheless, the different reports of the incidence of maladjustment must be addressed since there are obviously children who need help and consideration in terms of the approaches adopted by professionals.

1.3 INCIDENCE OF MALADJUSTMENT

Wall (1973), examined statistics produced by ten investigations carried out from 1920 to 1971 and comments that not withstanding variations between investigations, the figures for “seriously maladjusted” children appear stable, ranging from 4% to 14% with the number who showed some degree of disturbance being 30% to 35%. In contemporary terms, the issues behind such statistics have been thoroughly examined in various investigations.

Rutter, Tizard and Whitmore (1970), in their study of pupils who were aged 9 to 12 years in the Isle of White, concentrated specifically on “clinically significant psychiatric conditions” and established that 6% of their sample could be included in this category.

Another study by Davie, Butler and Goldstein (1972), looked at all children born in the United Kingdom in the first week of March 1958. Class teachers assessed these pupils at the age of seven using Stott’s Bristol Social

Adjustment Guide and concluded that of the three categories in the guide 64% were found to be “stable”, 22% “unsettled” and 14% “maladjusted”. The list of such statistics is wide and varied with the following being the most commonly sited.

McFie (1934), 697 boys and girls aged 12 to 14 years. 46% showing signs of maladjustment and seriously maladjusted. Assessed by school teachers.

Milner (1938), 1,201 girls aged 10 to 16 years. 17% showing signs of maladjustment. Assessed by school teachers.

Underwood Report (1955), 883 boys and girls aged 6, 9 and 13 years (Somerset). 3.6% boys and 1.6% girls very maladjusted. 10.1% boys and 7.7% girls probably maladjusted. Assessed by educational psychologists and social workers on basis of questionnaire completed by head teachers and visits to parents.

Underwood Report (1955), 2,264 boys and girls aged 6,9, and 13 years (Birmingham) 0.3% boys and girls very maladjusted. 7.4% boys and girls probably maladjusted. Assessed by psychiatrists and school medical officers on the basis of questionnaires completed by teachers and parents.

Underwood Report (1955), 992 boys and girls aged 6, 9 and 13 years (Berkshire). 0.8% boys and girls very maladjusted. 4.6% boys and girls probably maladjusted. Assessed by psychiatrists and school medical officers on the basis of questionnaires completed by teachers and social

workers.

Pringle, Butler and Davie (1966), 3,244 boys and 3,223 girls aged 7 years. 15.6% boys and 8.1% girls maladjusted. Assessed by teachers using Bristol Social Adjustment Guide.

Davie et al (1972), 1,689 boys and girls aged 10 years (Inner London Borough). 14% maladjusted. Assessed by teachers using Bristol Social Adjustment guide. Survey showed an increase in the prevalence rate between Social Class 1 and Social Class 5, the prevalence rising from 6% to 9% among children from the non-manual groups to 20% in the unskilled manual groups.

Rutter et al (1975) ,1,689 boys and girls (Inner London Borough) 25.4% suffering from some form of psychiatric disorder. Assessed by questionnaires completed by teachers and parents and by psychiatric interview with the child and psychiatric interview with parent.

This relationship between social class and maladjustment is of interest. Wall (1973), examined the variations of maladjustment across the social classes.

“The picture which we get is of a relatively homogeneous, more or less middle class group (social classes 1 to 3 non-manual) which is on the whole well adjusted, certainly to school; of a skilled and semi-skilled manual group (social groups 3 manual and 4) where about 1 child in 6 is presenting difficulties in his behaviour and social

relations at school and of an unskilled labouring group (social class 5) where between 1 child in 4 and one child in 5 has marked problems of adjustment to school.” (6)

The early 1970's saw an increase in concern over the level of disruption within schools, and popular opinion concluded that a percentage of the existing school population required off campus provision. As a result, provision was developed to include special units both attached to, and totally separate from main stream schools. H.M. Inspectorate assessed these units (1977), and formed the opinion that the term disruptive was an inappropriate description of a population which ranged from aggressive acting out pupils to introverted withdrawn types, although the majority had common traits such as distinct underachievement in educational performance.

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CHAPTER 2

BEHAVIOURISM AND SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

(AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1902, the Russian physiologist Ivan Pavlov was conducting some of the earliest investigations into “stimulus”, “response” psychology. These two terms are the basis of behavioural psychology, a stimulus being any situation which can be described objectively and induces a subject to respond in some way, and the response being any activity, muscular or glandular resulting from a stimulus.

Pavlov examined the link between reflex responses and the natural stimuli which produce them, developing the concept of conditional reflex which is the main factor in classical conditioning. Other S-R psychologists were more concerned with types of behaviour which occurred naturally without any specific stimulus, and the circumstances within which new behaviour can be learned.

At the end of the 19th century, an American, John B. Watson stated that the main focus of psychology should centre on man’s behaviour. He suggested a move from the previously popular trend of psychologists dealing exclusively with the mind of man, in an attempt to explain all his doings. It was Watson who coined the term

behaviourist and he suggested we should restrict ourselves to observable behaviour and ask the question can this behaviour be measured in terms of “stimulus” and “response”.

2.2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF STIMULUS RESPONSE THEORY

The American psychologist E.L.Thorndike, working in the 1930's was amongst the first to conduct learning experiments with animals as distinct from human beings. Thorndike concerned himself with “stimulus situations” instead of straightforward S-R responses. One such experiment featured a cat trapped within a box from which escape could only be gained by pulling a piece of string. The more often the cat was placed in the box, the shorter the time became. Thorndike suggested that the animal's behaviour was being modified as a result of experience and that such modification was automatic, in other words a non-conscious process. One very significant fact of Thorndike's work was his theory of “motivational” principles of learning. This spawned his concept of law and effect which states that learning will only occur if the response in some way affects the subject. If the response has a pleasant effect (such as the cat gaining freedom) then learning occurs through strengthening the S-R bond. If the response is unpleasant (the cat being punished on being released) the animal is less likely to repeat the same behaviour in future occasions.

The development of Thorndike's law and effect are the theories of “positive reinforcement” and “negative reinforcement”. The first states that if a subject is

rewarded for a specific piece of behaviour, that behaviour is likely to occur again given similar circumstances. It is important to understand what is reinforcing for each subject at a particular time, otherwise the subject may feel rewarded when a punishment is intended. Negative reinforcement however refers to circumstances in which an aversive stimulus being removed increases the preceding response. For example, using an umbrella on a rainy day is escaping the aversive stimulus of rain. Both negative and positive reinforcement strengthen their associated behaviours. An example of negative reinforcement being used in therapy with psychotic patients is reported by Heckel, Wiggins and Salzberg (1962). In group therapy sessions, the patients would not communicate for long periods of time, however the introduction of a continuous loud noise from a hidden source acted as an aversive stimulus and continued until the silence was broken by a patient speaking, the desired response therefore, eliminated the aversive event.

2.3 THE FOUNDATIONS OF SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

American psychology was dominated by behaviourism from the 1930's to the 1950's. During this period the work of Clark L. Hull, Edward C. Tolman and B.F. Skinner were at the forefront of behaviourist psychology and from their theories, social learning theory subsequently developed.

Hull (1943), constructed a complicated mathematical model which would predict responses on the basis of

intervening variables namely “drive”, “habit strength” and “incentive motivation”. He considered drive to be a temporary state produced by some physical need in the subject, for example hunger or cold. Drive reduction, that is meeting the physical need, is seen as the basis for learning. Although Hull’s theories have been largely discarded by contemporary learning theorists, his importance lies in that many of his students later developed Social Learning Theory.

Hull’s theory that other factors apart from stimulus may influence response was also developed by E.C. Tolman (1949). He considered the principle characteristics of behaviour to be “purpose” and “goal”. He suggested that learning was not simply habit but it is flexible and at times insightful. Tolman used the term “latent learning” to describe any learning which is acquired yet not displayed at the time of learning, and may be put to use at a later date when an appropriate incentive is offered.

2.4 OPERANT CONDITIONING

B.F. Skinner (1953), extended Thorndike’s law and effect and addressed himself to three problems.

- ◆ What makes a subject repeat or not repeat a specific behaviour?
- ◆ What are the most effective circumstances in controlling behaviour?
- ◆ What influences the rate of response?

Through various laboratory experiments, Skinner

developed the concept of “operant conditioning”, the method by which a subject learns to cope effectively with a new environment. The following quote illustrates exactly what Skinner meant by this term.

“Many things in the environment, such as food and water, sexual contact and escape from harm, are crucial for the survival of the individual and the species, and any behaviour which produces them therefore, has survival value. Through the process of operant conditioning, behaviour having this kind of consequence is likely to occur. The behaviour is said to be strengthened by its consequences, and for that reason the consequences themselves are called “reinforcers”. Thus when a hungry organism exhibits behaviour that produces food, the behaviour is reinforced by that consequence and is therefore likely to recur”
(1)

Following his laboratory experiments, Skinner outlined a step by step process which can be applied when changing a subject’s behaviour. This requires a clearly defined goal, and a sound understanding of what that subject is doing prior to intervention. Thus having established the “terminal response” and the subject’s “entering behaviour” through “successive approximations’ that goal may be achieved. His techniques of altering behaviour have also been applied to humans. Skinner and his followers hold that all social behaviour is formed by reinforcement histories, and such shaping techniques

have been used in treating abnormal behaviour. For example, the successful development of speech from a catatonic schizophrenic patient occurred following the application of this Skinnerian technique, (Isaacs, Thomas and Goldiamond 1964).

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CHAPTER 3

BEHAVIOURISM AND SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

(PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS IN EDUCATION)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Behaviourism and social learning theory have developed considerably since the introduction of classical and operant conditioning. Consideration will now be given to the practical application of behaviourist techniques in dealing with deviant behaviour in the educational setting.

Ullman and Krasner (1965), suggest the two main identifying characteristics of deviant behaviour are firstly, such behaviour is considered inappropriate by those who determine that persons environment, and secondly, such behaviour reduces the amount of positive reinforcement given to that individual.

Up to the mid 1960's, therapeutic work with deviant behaviour largely favoured the psychoanalytic approach and involved assessment and treatment in special clinics. The behaviourist approach however, assumes that behaviour is learned and can be changed by appropriate teaching. As a consequence, "behaviour modification" in the educational setting developed with the realisation that the same principles used to describe laboratory behaviour could be used to describe and alter deviant behaviour.

As already stated, the framework for this perspective centres on the concepts of stimulus, response and reinforcement, and believes observable behaviour itself is simply learned behaviour which has been shaped by factors out with that individual. Consequently deviant behaviour can be altered by the application of the learning principles of stimulus, response and reinforcement, since logically the symptom itself was produced by those principles.

3.2 MODELLING THEORY

Social learning theorists whilst not disputing the effects of classical and operant conditioning consider these processes unable to explain novel and creative behaviour. Thus a new concept arose with the hypothesis that much learning takes place through observation and imitation (modelling theory). Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1971), comment that:

“behaviour is the result of a continuous interaction between personal and environmental variables: environmental conditions shape behaviour through learning; and a person’s behaviour in turn, shapes the environment .” (1)

Since the 1960’s this approach was widely recognised and generated many articles in teacher training texts, (O’Leary and O’Leary 1979; Harrop 1983; Wheldall et al. 1983).

A brief summary of the practical application is as follows.

- ◆ The teacher identifies the behaviour which he

wishes to modify or develop.

- ◆ The frequency of this behaviour is recorded.
- ◆ The events which occur prior to the behaviour are noted (antecedents) as are the events following the behaviour (consequences).
- ◆ Construct a programme using this information to achieve the desired effect.
- ◆ Implement the plan and maintain records to compare its effectiveness with the initial observation data.
- ◆ Consider the success of the programme and change where appropriate.

This perspective highlights the acquisition of behaviour through children observing and imitating the behaviour of others in social situations. Bandura (1961), conducted experiments with nursery school children who were exposed to aggressive adult models. Findings state that by merely observing aggression, children will produce imitative responses. It was noted later that there is a difference between “learning” and “performing” behaviour, and introducing rewards illustrated this. It is not only aggressive behaviour which is learned, Bandura and Walters also conducted experiments to show that when exposed to submissive or aggressive models, the child increases the incidence of their submissive or aggressive behaviour. This theory states that behaviour may be learned through a programme of reinforcement using praise and reward. This applies to both acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, for example good behaviour being rewarded by the teacher’s attention through praise,

and bad behaviour being rewarded by the teacher's attention albeit through disciplinary actions. Both can have the effect of reinforcing the observed behaviour. On this point, Laslett (1977), comments:

“This is how many parents and adults in contact with maladjusted children do react to these children's behaviour. Much of their attention seeking behaviour is ignored when it is mild, but when children begin to increase the intensity and persistence of their demanding behaviour and it reaches a high pitch, they are gratified for the sake of it.” (2)

3.3 BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION PROGRAMMES

The theory that behaviour is learned and internalised by reinforcement is the starting point for a programme of behaviour modification. Whelan (1966), stated that “Behaviour is maintained by its effect on the environment”. This assumes that children learn the wrong behaviour from inappropriate models and have it reinforced. The behaviour therapist asks what the child is doing, what are the circumstances of his behaviour, and what occurs to encourage the future repetition of such behaviour.

In studying classroom behaviour, behaviourists often use techniques such as time-sampling to determine levels of certain aspects of behaviour, Flanders (1970). An American study (Kounin et al., 1966), examined teaching styles and their effect on the behaviour and development of maladjusted primary children. Here, those teachers

who were most successful in their dealings with normal pupils tended to be more successful when working with maladjusted pupils. Furthermore, the disruptive effect of such pupils on their peers was evidently linked to teacher total class control, yet management techniques were found to have no effect on the incidence of bad behaviour.

Kounin's study examines the role of the teacher in relation to the successful handling of maladjusted behaviour. He provided evidence to suggest that although educationalists may consider` pupils to be in different categories, i.e. maladjusted or normal, pupils themselves do not draw such distinctions. From this, Kounin suggests that the positive discrimination of placing disturbed pupils in special schools is unnecessary, since research findings show that children influence each others behaviour and that pupils may copy appropriate behaviour as well as inappropriate behaviour. Although Kounin's work is mainly qualitative, it does outline how a careful study of pupil-teacher interaction can help design more knowledgeable strategies which deal with disruptive behaviour. Kounin's approach is not without its critics. Harrop (1980), states that baseline behaviour is difficult to establish since it requires two observers, something which is not particularly practical in the classroom setting. Berger (1979), worries over behaviourist techniques being applied without a sound understanding of what is being attempted.

3.1 COMMENTS ON THIS PERSPECTIVE

The observation of classroom behaviour may serve as a useful starting point in dealing with specific behaviour problems, but as Berger (1982) suggests , it does not constitute the entire picture. It should include information from outside the classroom such as family dynamics, social circumstances etc. Consequently behaviour modification may often lose value by an incomplete approach which fails to consider the true complexity of the presented behaviour.

From another theoretical standpoint, psychoanalysts suggest that “symptom substitution” must occur, whereby the removal of one particular symptom or behaviour leads to another developing. However Ullman and Krasner (1965), state that substitution is far less frequent than is often assumed, indeed Rachman (1963), stated that in only 5% of cases examined after symptom removal did substitution occur.

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CHAPTER 4

PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Sigmund Freud drawing from his experience as a physician developed his own special methods of investigating mental illness. The basic principles which he attached to his theory were that the same motives influence the behaviour of both deviant and non-deviant people, and that early childhood experiences influence later behaviour patterns.

Freud proposed three levels of mental awareness. First, the “unconscious” mind which holds repressed and often unpleasant memories which cannot be brought to awareness. Next, the “preconscious” level which holds unconscious memories that can be recalled. And last the “conscious” mind which holds ideas and memories we are aware of.

Within these concepts, he suggested that the mind could be split into three distinct components. The “id” which is the natural, raw driving force of all behaviour. The “super-ego” which is created by social and parental influence and forms a conscience. And the “ego” which mediates between the base demands of the id and the censure of the super-ego. These three components interact with environmental influences acting on an individual and create a state of continual conflict. To

relieve such conflict, the ego employs “defence mechanisms” which act as a buffer between the intolerable demands of the id and super-ego. The most commonly used defence is “regression” where the drives of the id are contained by the ego. The following is a brief outline of other examples of defence mechanisms.

“Regression” is characterised by a person displaying behaviour associated with a much younger person, for example tantrums or crying. The purpose of this is that they regress to types of behaviour which they had previously used successfully in order to get their own way. “Sublimation” is brought to use when primary intentions are not fulfilled, for example an unsuccessful sportsman becoming a sporting administrator. “Projection” describes a state where one’s own desires or problems are attributed to others, for example an adolescent boy suggesting another boy is attracted to a girl when in fact he himself is.

Freudian theory holds that all behaviour can be thought of in terms of a balance between the id, ego and super-ego, with a normal person being controlled by the ego. In cases of mental disorder however, the super-ego or the id has a greater influence, for example neurotic and psychotic behaviour respectively. The function of psychoanalysis is to restore the balance. “where id was, there shall ego be.” (Freud,1933).

4.2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF FREUD’S THEORY

There are many models and theories which stem from Freud’s psychoanalytic theory although they differ in

certain respects, they agree on the basic concepts of psychodynamics. The following section looks at the work of Jung and Fromm and illustrates their development of Freud's early theories.

Carl Jung studied under Freud but turned away from the psychoanalytic school to form his own approach known as "analytical psychology". Jung criticised Freud's theories for giving too much importance to sexual drive. Jung, like Freud, acknowledges that human behaviour is driven by the libido, however he considers it more as a life energy with sexuality being only one facet of it. Jungian theory believes the psyche to be on three levels, "consciousness", "personal consciousness" (which corresponds to Freud's unconscious) and "collective unconsciousness", which can be split into various sub levels. As you go deeper into this part of the psyche, it becomes more universal and contains knowledge shared with other people.

Although Jung's approach to psychodynamics has not had the impact of Freud's, he generated new concepts and language such as introvert, extrovert and complex, and devised the word association test as a psychoanalytic tool.

Freud's theory states that behaviour is based on biological demands stemming from the id, and these demands are tempered by the ego. Eric Fromm, (1971), disputed this fact and suggested that man's behaviour should be thought of in terms of the influence of social context and emphasised that people have freedom of choice to shape their own destiny. Fromm's main contribution to

psychodynamic theory was his attempt to blend psychological forces and environmental factors.

Psychodynamic theory stresses that deviant behaviour and non-deviant behaviour are created by the self same motives, and their origins may be found in the early years of childhood, The terminology particular to this perspective however, such as anxiety, conflict and defence mechanisms do not in themselves tell us what behaviour is noted as abnormal. For example the question of when is a defence considered to be a symptom is addressed by Munroe (1955):

“Freud repeatedly emphasised the idea that the trends and conflicts he discovered were not the specific cause of neurosis. neurosis results from the quantitative distribution of energies, not from the mere existence of conflict.....pathology develops as one or other aspect of the problem becomes quantitatively unmanageable by the techniques that the personality has established”
(1)

That is to say that when a behaviour interferes with effective day to day living it may be judged as pathological. Such an opinion is essentially quantitative. Deviant behaviour is the manifestation of inner disturbance. The behaviour itself is not the focus of treatment since this would only result in an alternative deviant behaviour appearing. The root cause must be identified. Rutter (1975), suggests that in most cases the

provision of security, warmth and trust can eliminate such conflict, but in more extreme cases the unlocking of unconscious memory to determine its role in abnormal behaviour, thus exposing hidden motives, may be required.

4.3 EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT AND DEVIANCE

Winnicott (1965), stated that disturbed behaviour in children stemmed from the disruption of the mother-child relationship during a crucial period in development. He emphasises the importance of the “continuity of being” for a child, which if fractured is liable to halt normal emotional development, and clearly states his position on the roots of maladjustment by stating:

“The main thesis is that maladjustment and all derivatives of this type of disorder consist essentially in an original environmental failure, and the pathology is therefore primarily in the environment and only secondarily in the child.”

(2)

Winnicott sees the early failings in a child’s environment as the starting point of neuroses and psychoses. He considers psychosis to have its roots in environmental defect at the period of crucial dependence between infant and mother (0 - 6 months), a stage which a child is not sufficiently aware of strengths and weaknesses in its environment. Neuroses occur when the child is aware of environmental failings and defence mechanisms such as denial and projection occur. This idea that a child seeks an environment with a committed and loving parent to

meet these early needs has featured significantly in those working with maladjusted children.

Like Winnicott, Melanie Klein (1960), also emphasises the importance of this early bond between mother and child. She states that the child's views of other people being caring and loving stem from similar maternal experiences. These early experiences form the cast for later relationships in life.

Erickson (1965), comments on the importance of trust in early relationships and the child's need for consistent and reliable mothering and states:

“The infant's first social achievement.....is his willingness to let his mother out of sight without undue anxiety or rage, because she has become an inner certainty as well as an outer predictability. Such consistency, continuity and sameness of experience provide a rudimentary sense of ego identity.” (3)

Karen Horney (1949), comments that the lack of such a trusting warm and caring relationship leads to a level of anxiety which the maladjusted child cannot cope with. The child has to evolve some means of preventing such anxiety escalating out with control and is often driven “to comply, to fight, to be aloof regardless of whether this move is appropriate in the particular circumstances, and he is thrown in a panic if he behaves otherwise.”(4)

A significant contribution to the psychodynamic perspective in relation to maladjustment is that of John Bowlby (1973). Through his own observations he concluded that mother infant separations which result in the greatest degree of harm take place after the first six months of life. He added that this early relationship is not only crucial to the child's emotional well being but also forms the basis for social learning.

Like Winnicott and Klein, Bowlby also lays great emphasis on the importance of the mother being the person who feeds and comforts her baby, and links social learning directly to the level of positive response between mother and child. Bowlby states the formation of maladjusted behaviour can be accounted for by examining the importance of the key figures in an infant's life, and concludes that many maladjusted children have had inconsistent access to such people.

Laslett (1977), comments that such circumstances result in poor language development because "they did not have an individual's welcome and loving response to their babbling, smiling and crying." He attributes low achievement in school curriculum to the "lack of stimulation as infants when they were deprived of the opportunities for learning in a warm continuous environment." (5)

4.4 COMMENTS ON THIS PERSPECTIVE

Exponents of psychodynamic theory such as Bowlby, Klein and Winnicott believe maladjustment to be the manifestation of an inner conflict which has its roots in a

fractured early mother-child relationship. To those working with maladjusted children, these descriptions of emotional loss and its manifestation in terms of behaviour are evident on many occasions. The child's wariness of adults for example, the unwillingness to communicate feelings, and the mistrust and doubt of genuine warmth from those around them. One of the main criticisms of psychoanalytic theory is that it is not based on a scientific theory, but is based largely on speculative opinions and very limited experimental evidence. Hudson described it as an "unsinkable theory" which can easily be altered if faced with contradictory evidence.

Freud's approach is criticised as having biased examples and exaggerated results. Bowlby states that Freud's experiments examining early child rearing practice and subsequent emotional disturbance were "grossly inadequate in method: they failed to ensure that the individuals they studied were similar.....they relied unduly on mother's memories for information about early events."

Bowlby's theory that maternal deprivation can only result in social difficulties is strongly disputed by Schaffer (1977), who comments that Bowlby himself could not substantiate long term effects and that in a study of preadolescent children who had been hospitalised for two years, he could not find evidence to suggest that their ability to form relationships was affected.

On the question of the importance of the all important single bond, Schaffer cites evidence from his own research to show that “once the infant has reached the stage of forming specific attachments, he is capable of maintaining a number at the same time.....love even in babies has no limits.” (6)

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CHAPTER 5

SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO EDUCATION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The growth of sociology throughout the early sixties and seventies has brought about a large number of different approaches, each claiming to add a new dimension to what we understand as social reality. The following examines the two main sociologies, “functionalist sociology” and its relationship to Marxism, and “interpretative sociology”

5.2 FUNCTIONALIST SOCIOLOGY

The roots of functionalism are found in studies of primitive societies by 19th century anthropologists, with Emile Durkheim, the French sociologist usually credited as the founding father. This perspective centres on the concept of a society which must be based on order, so that it may develop.

Durkheim (1933), examined the social function of an institution and the ways in which it developed and maintained social order. He argued that studying the individual cannot give meaningful understanding of society and there is a qualitative difference between these two concepts. A society, although made up of individuals, exists in its own right, and its development is distinctly different from that of its members. Durkheim commented that individuals are bound by societal rules whether they like it or not, and that they have little

opportunity to change such governing laws, thus society shapes the lives of the individuals regardless of personality, values or beliefs.

Durkheim spoke in terms of “social facts”, which are the unwritten rules of a society such as the customs of dress or language which operate as a constraint over peoples’ behaviour, and suggested that although people believe they are free to make choices regards occupation or education, this is not the case. The rules and beliefs of a society therefore, impose constraints on that person’s thoughts and actions.

“If I do not submit to the conventions of society, if in my dress I do not conform to the customs observed in my country and in my class, the ridicule I provoke, the isolation in which I am kept, produce, although in an attenuated form, the same effect as a punishment in the strictest sense of the word.” (1)

Durkheim commented that the term “constraint” draws criticism from those who profess the autonomy of the individual and that such notions of external influences reduce man’s dignity, but he argues:

“It is generally accepted today, however, that most of our ideas and our tendencies are not developed by ourselves but come from without. How can they become a part of us except by imposing themselves on us.” (2)

Durkheim defines education as the “influence exercised by adult generations on those not yet ready for social life.” He suggests that the role of education within society should be viewed as a means to an end, with its purpose being determined by that society, not those actively involved such as teachers etc. Its function therefore, is to educate people in order to fulfil society’s needs, not those of the individuals.

Durkheim states that a society will only continue to exist if education fulfils the role of the “methodical socialisation of the young generation”, that is instil within the individual values expected of him by society as a whole

An influential figure in the development of functional theory was Talcott Parsons (1961), who maintained that social structure, culture and personality are connected in a purposeful and systematic way and that social stability is dependent on such order. He argues that there has been an “educational revolution” which has started to “transform the whole structure of society” and that this has given rise to an “immense extension of equality and opportunity.”

This rise in opportunity however, is characterised by a new form of inequality as differences in ability and motivation become more distinct. Parsons suggests that education’s role is to assist a socialisation process which makes such differences acceptable. Those who have success in educational attainment therefore, can expect to be rewarded in terms of status and income.

It is this set of common values or “moral consensus” which Parsons sees as a prerequisite for social stability. Thus the school is an agency of socialisation.....through which personalities are trained to be motivational and technically adequate to the performance of adult roles.”

In more recent years, the theories of Durkheim concerning the role of education within a society have been developed by people such as Hargreaves (1967). Like Durkheim, Hargreaves examined the social function of education and asked:

“First what sort of society do we want to create or maintain? Second what is the role of education in creating such a society?” (3)

Hargreaves echoes Durkheim’s opinions of the first point and talks in terms of a need for community and social cohesion. The role of education he believes is essential in meeting such goals.

“Morality and solidarity, then, are founded on our group experiences and in fact we all belong to several groups - family groups, occupational groups, political parties, religious bodies, leisure groups, ethnic and national groups. But it is the institution of the school which offers all its members a particularly early and intensive opportunity for participation in group life and a thorough socialisation in collective experiences.”
(4)

Hargreaves describes the teacher's role in this as one of loyalty to the school and comments that "the teacher is the instrument not the author of moral power and authority that emanates from group life." He says that central to his beliefs is the idea that harmony should be sought after between the different groups that make up a society and that the school has an essential part to play in all of this. He suggests that curriculum should be community based and should aim to "endow our children with the knowledge and skills to be active and useful members of their communities.

Merton (1964), suggested that for a society to function properly and achieve its goals and expectations, individual success is essential. The means of achieving such success however, are not open to all in an equal sense, since a class structure rarely allows the same opportunities to all members of a society. When expectations cannot be achieved because of reasons other than ability, such a strain leads to a state on "anomie".

Merton states that within a state of anomie, the individual is faced with the decision to accept or reject the aims of the society, and if they are accepted, must decide whether those aims may be achieved in a legitimate manner. Merton suggests that this leads to four types of deviant adaptations. They are **innovation, ritualisation, retreatism** and **rebellion**, each having its own characteristics.

If we now perhaps consider a simplified view of the basis

of Marxism, we can say that it stems from the belief that it is a person's occupation or what they do which allows them to survive. This is of fundamental importance and all other facets of society are in some way connected with this. Marxism therefore sees society as being composed of two interrelated parts:

- ◆ The base which is the economic structure.
- ◆ The superstructure, which incorporates the different institutions of society such as education, religion, politics etc.

Therefore any change within the basic economic structure brings change within the superstructure. On this Marx comments that alterations to the economic foundation within a society results in a rapid transformation, to a greater or lesser degree, of the entire immense superstructure.

This relationship is challenged by those Marxists who argue that the relationship between the economic base and the superstructure is a reciprocal relationship with changes from either level being a loop which is maintained through continued interaction.

The relationship between functional sociology and Marx's social theory can be highlighted by considering the main criticisms and strengths of functionalism, i.e. the importance placed on normative order and the idea of equilibrium related to social change.

Swingewood (1975), suggests there are five main

elements of sociological functionalism.

- ◆ A society is composed of various parts, each of which only has significance in terms of the whole.
- ◆ The fusion of all parts, although never ideal, nonetheless results in a state of equilibrium with any adjustments following the general trend towards balance.
- ◆ The various “dysfunctional elements” which exist such as deviance are generally assimilated into society by this dominant principle of equilibrium.
- ◆ Social change is never radical but a gradual process of adjustment which is attributed to external factors within the superstructure.
- ◆ Social integration occurs through a “value consensus”, which “legitimizes the existing social, economic and political structure.”

5.3 FUNCTIONALISM AND EDUCATION

The application of sociology to education is an attempt to understand what it does and how it does it, and the manner in which it relates to other facets of society.

Marxism and functionalism both suggest conflict and consensus, integration and change, but basic differences in Marx's theory are obvious. Parsons suggested that the social system dominates the members, and that such systems are self-perpetuating. Marx on the other hand, stated that equilibrium was intrinsically undependable because of unavoidable class conflict within a capitalist society. This inevitably results in change which must be attributed to those individuals whose opposition to the

system has created change. Marxism holds that education aids the reproduction of the economic system of a capitalist society. Consequently education cannot be considered in a vacuum but may only be understood by examining it within the global context of a society.

Bowles and Gintis (1976), suggest that it is firmly linked to the society's economic and social institutions, and consequently the education system perpetuates the capitalist system thus maintaining the status quo. As Bowles and Gintis say, "education and state policy are relatively powerless to rectify social problems within the framework of a capitalist society." They suggest this situation has its roots amongst the history of class struggle and distinguish the two systems of economy and education by pointing to different characteristics. The capitalist economy is identified by constant change, whilst the educational system is more sedate, responding to new economic situations in two ways, firstly, what Bowles and Gintis describe as "pluralistic accommodation" within which careers and choices of educational courses are guided by educational institutions, thus reinforcing an image of a democratic and free thinking system, and secondly adjusting to economic crisis by developing along areas which support class systems. Therefore education is not merely an imposition upon the classes, instead it operates as an alternative to economic or political reform and thus assists capitalism by clouding its intentions.

The functionalist analysis of any societal institution, such as an education system, considers its overall function.

Once this is established the purpose of its subsystems become apparent, and the ways in which such subsystems interrelate can become understood.

The social perspective argues that deviance is a characteristic ascribed to persons as a result of the definition given certain types of acts by certain audiences. Durkheim however, argued for a totally social theory of deviance and suggested that deviant behaviour could be interpreted as a rational response to particular social circumstances and therefore deviance is normal.

In Shipman's study of the school as a social organisation in its own right, he describes education as

“the organised part of the process through which each successive generation learns the accumulated knowledge of a society.” (6)

Shipman, like Durkheim, comments that the purpose of education is not one of fulfilling individual needs or ambitions, but the natural process of societal influence on the individual. At times such influences may conflict with other societal agencies such as the government or the church etc.

Shipman suggests that a useful school is one which strikes a balance between such contrasting influences but comments that :

“the more deviant the area which a school serves, the greater will be the contrast between its

values and those of the school.” (7)

The potential turmoil of such circumstances are obvious, with teacher beliefs and pupil beliefs being at odds, and creating dissatisfied professionals and unsettled pupils.

Merton (1964), suggests that the product of adapting to stresses of anomie are crime, deviance and psychopathology. His theory was used in a study of a boy's public boarding school by Wakeford (1969). Through participant observation, he extended and modified Merton's list to include five main modes of adaptation. These were:

- ◆ **Conformity**, whereby the school goals and means of achieving them are supported.
- ◆ **Colonisation**, which is characterised by a “work the system” approach to get by as easily as possible for the duration of the day.
- ◆ **Retreatism**, typified by non involvement in all but the most strictly enforced school business.
- ◆ **Intransigence**, which is a blend of rejecting the school's objectives and total indifference to its purpose.
- ◆ **Rebellion**, this is the final stance whereby the school's aims and rules are replaced by the individual's own.

A significant weakness in this theory is its individualistic thrust which tends to consider people in a social vacuum. Cohen (1965), points out that this theory concentrates on “initial states and deviant outcomes rather than on the

processes whereby acts and complex structures of action are built, elaborated and transformed.” His own approach was to keep Merton’s emphasis on goals and means but put to the forefront the social nature of adaptations.

5.4 INTERPRETIVE SOCIOLOGY

The functionalist approach concludes that education as a whole can only be understood when considered within society as a whole, with societal needs dictating the role of teachers and pupils and education therefore supporting the status quo. The principle criticism of this macro approach is that it suggests that people have no freedom of choice in any real sense, and as such are mere societal products unable to contribute creatively in any meaningful fashion. Furthermore such an overview fails to comment on the complexities of human relationships and throws little light on understanding the day to day functions of a school for example, and how problems which occur such as discipline difficulties could be avoided or removed.

These criticisms of the macro approach led to the development of micro sociological theories, the main elements of which are briefly outlined below.

- ◆ **Everyday activity.** This highlights the difference between macro and micro sociology and suggests that the minutia of daily life has to be the starting point of any analysis of a society’s overall development. For example the education system is kept going by the daily

involvement of those participating individuals.

- ◆ **Freedom.** Although often working within boundaries regarding social expectations, people have in varying degrees, freedom of choice, and subsequent person to person interaction combines to form daily life.
- ◆ **Negotiation.** The interpretation of other peoples actions is not a fixed or rigid analysis. It changes as the individual's experience of society matures. Interpretation therefore is one of continuous negotiation.

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CHAPTER 6

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the proceeding chapters, what is generally meant by behaviour which causes concern, and its degree of incidence within the educational system was examined. The relevance of behaviourist and psychodynamic theory and the two main sociologies of functionalist and interpretative sociology were then considered in terms of their understanding of this phenomenon.

In this chapter, the discussion focusses on the application of behaviourist and psychodynamic theory to education in the nineteen nineties, and draws on the findings of recent research by leading figures in this field of study.

6.2 BEHAVIOURISM IN EDUCATION

Behaviour therapy is based on the view that all behaviour is learned and that as Whelan (1966), suggests "Behaviour is maintained by its effect on the environment." That is, that the likelihood of a particular behaviour being repeated is dependent on what happened after that behaviour previously occurred.

The application of behaviourist techniques in dealing with problematic behaviour in pupils follows this principle that behaviour occurs for a reason, and that the circumstances which cause it to occur, if altered, may change that behaviour.

6.2 PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY IN EDUCATION

As mentioned in Chapter 3, therapeutic work with disturbed individuals generally followed the psychoanalytic approach until the 1960's, and the initial response to the use of behaviour modification techniques for children with behaviour difficulties was not enthusiastic in this country. However it has gained an important place amongst techniques readily used in working with such pupils and although not a complete solution, is recognised as offering sound techniques for lessening poor unacceptable behaviour. Laslett (1977), comments that:

“If teachers use of behaviour modification techniques cannot alter the source of all problems that beset many maladjusted children, they can reduce the effects of some of them, and the elimination of some forms of unacceptable behaviour increases the likelihood of improving his relationships and acceptability in a group situation.” (1)

There are many behaviourist techniques which are easily recognised in schools today. These include token economies, self evaluation programmes, praise and encouragement, time out etc. The most common of these approaches is the token economy which in its simplest form rewards the individual for doing something correctly. For pupils with behaviour difficulties, it is designed with rewards which are hopefully attractive enough to be wanted, and so either reduce, cease or even

produce a particular behaviour.

The application of Psychodynamic techniques has its roots in Freudian Theory and assumes that behaviour difficulties which have developed in an individual have been caused by some upset in early relationships between that individual and the mother. The ego, id and super ego require balance and equilibrium for the individual to remain well adjusted. Freud saw the roots of imbalance stemming from childhood trauma, in particular, the mother/child relationship.

Others developed such theories and Winnicott (1965), mentions the “continuity of being” as having great importance. He takes the view that should a mother/child relationship be disrupted for reasons such as parental disharmony, poor health etc, then that child’s emotional development will be affected to some extent. It is the consistency in caring that seems to be the significant factor in this relationship and Winnicott does note that a consistent mother substitute may also be adequate.

Those who work with disturbed children frequently note the history of fractured relationships that many of the children have experienced with their mothers. Winnicott describes such an upbringing as showing a child what it could have and then taking it away. This manifests itself as an anti-social child who believes that they are owed something and their behaviour is an attempt to redress the balance.

The relevance of Freudian theory to educational practice focuses on ego defence mechanisms creating a state of anxiety which makes learning difficult. This approach states that to repair such internal confusion requires a careful guidance of the pupil from the educator in expressive, interactive play. Isaacs (1933), sums this up by saying

“The function of the educator with regard to play lies in the study of the normal interests and activities of the child at different ages, so that he may know how to supply those materials and opportunities and stimuli to play as shall give him the greatest fulfilment along all directions of his growth. It is here that the study of norms of development in the early years, with regard to skill or understanding, is of the greatest possible aid to the educator of little children.” (2)

Although Freud’s theory of disturbed behaviour is criticised as lacking a scientific foundation, its application to the educational setting is considered of value, and many people who work with disturbed pupils draw on their understanding of Freudian theory and apply it in some fashion. One example of an attempt to incorporate this approach on a whole school basis could be seen in the development of A.S. Neill’s school, Summerhill.

6.4 SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND METHODS FOR DEALING WITH DIFFICULT BEHAVIOUR

The approach that school’s adopt towards the pupil population clearly influences the response those pupils

make of their school. Of interest to this study is the suggestion of Jencks et al (1972), that less effective primary schools feed less attractive secondary schools.

Many studies have examined the reasons for poor academic performance and causes of difficult behaviour, and the recurring theme is that those schools which involve the pupils and have a strong leadership which encourages staff development are more effective both in terms of academic achievement and reducing the level of unacceptable behaviour. Reid states that :

“...research suggests that schools have it within their own means to determine the changes which they may need to make in order to improve the educational experiences of their pupils, thereby diminishing opportunities for misdemeanours to occur.” (3)

Schools differ in their response to pupils who present behaviour difficulties. One may see such problems as being generated by the pupil population and as such, specialised provision taking one of the different guises already mentioned would be required. Another school may consider that pupil behaviour may reflect particular aspects of school ethos and design, and consequently a review and reappraisal of existing practices is required. Such attitudes were noted in the Fish Report (ILEA 1985), where a pupil's difficulties can become greater or smaller depending on the reactions of others.

Teachers who work with pupils with behaviour problems

realise that whilst their pupils can often act or behave in a manner which is acceptable, they also have spells of behaviour which set them apart from their peers as being different and at times disturbing. Laslett describes this behaviour as:

“...inappropriate for their age and level of intelligence, and it takes extreme forms. Where this behaviour has a recognisable and immediate cause, it goes on for a longer time and with an intensity which is out of proportion to the cause. Their exaggerated and inappropriate behaviour recurs frequently, and although there are times when their difficulties are dormant, teachers recognise that maladjusted children either do not function like other children, or if they do, they do it with considerable difficulty.”(4)

Laslett is commenting here on a group of professionals with specialised experience who firstly, recognise the cause of difficult behaviour, and secondly, devise an effective strategy for dealing with it.

Galloway and Goodwin (1987), mention the support that this type of expertise may offer in terms of providing separate provision in specialised units or schools. Indeed they state very strongly that:

“Some teachers in ordinary schools appear unaware of these pupil’s needs, and it is probable that few recognise the full extent of the school’s influence, for better or worse, on their behaviour

and educational progress.....just as important, an unsuitable curriculum can undermine the child's confidence and lead to behaviour problems in addition to the original learning difficulty. The final argument is that other children suffer when too much time is spent on children with problems.”(5)

Galloway and Goodwin guard these comments with the cautious reminder that the drawback to such provision is that certain needs cannot be met within the shelter of segregated units or schools. For example, the real life demands of living and working with other people are particularly hard to replicate in a school. Furthermore, the curriculum itself is inevitably more restricted than in mainstream provision. The reason for this is simple. Such schools have a small roll, often 20 - 30 pupils, and the number of staff is also limited, often with a bias towards people with special education experience who concentrate on the core curricular areas of literacy and numeracy and are not subject specialists.

Galloway and Goodwin suggest the solution may be found in terms of school approach and state:

“An important pastoral task for every school is to help children to use the experience of success and failure constructively. Many children with learning and adjustment difficulties interpret failure as a message about themselves. This becomes more likely when they are also placed in separate

special schools, but it is also evident from the low self esteem of many pupils in the special needs departments of ordinary schools. The teacher's task is to show pupils that failure carries a message about the task and not about them.”(6)

Reid (1986), considered the implications of social change in terms of what a school has to offer and sees this as a natural focus for whole school development. He states that school's require to :

“meet the fluctuating needs of society and local communities during the dawn of a technological age.”(7)

Reid goes on to say that one of the major tasks facing school is the preparation of youngsters for the Twenty First Century and the implied increase in leisure time which is inevitable in an increasingly automated work force requiring a less labour intensive input.

Clearly a relevant curriculum which takes account of such inevitable developments is crucial. Equally the result of ignoring such future changes would gradually become apparent in terms of pupil attitudes and attainments.

Reid also argues that whole school developments must embrace the pastoral as well as the academic and targets the second year of secondary education as a natural focus for initiating pastoral involvement given the statistical evidence of pupil drop out at this stage. Although this may be an appropriate method of intervening in a

downward spiral of behaviour for pupils of that age, it fails to include those pupils whose difficulties are not manifested in a disruptive acting out fashion or by school refusal. The same criticism may be made of many primary schools which only respond to the "crisis" of aggressive or obviously deviant behaviour. Some of the studies already mentioned help to illustrate the extent of the problem and refer to two very detailed studies of behaviour problems carried out by Rutter (1970), in the Isle of Wight and also by Rutter (1975), in an inner London borough. The results established that teachers considered 19% of the children to be deviant in the London sample as opposed to 11% in the Isle of Wight sample. Those pupils who showed signs of psychiatric disorder were 25% in London and 12% in the Isle of Wight.

The analysis of such figures suggested that more children exhibited deviant behaviour in the London sample because of social disadvantages in terms of schools and family circumstances which were not present in the Isle of Wight, and that the same factors were an influence on the statistics showing psychiatric disorder. Given the extent that these two areas differ as a result of social and family influences, the approach of intervention in the early years is one which may initially seem worthwhile. This has the inherent difficulty of identifying those most likely to display behaviour difficulties in their secondary school career. In many cases such behaviour has not been apparent in the primary school. Similarly in terms of psychiatric disorder, Reid states under 50% had problems

which commenced in childhood, and that over 50% only started to display them in adolescence.

6.5 CONCLUSIONS

Teachers have a fairly clear idea of what they consider to be behaviour which is a cause for concern, however the difficulty in establishing a consensus of opinion amongst the teaching profession (excepting in very general terms) stems from teachers having different levels of experience, training, tolerance to stress, and having different expectations or standards of what is acceptable and unacceptable behaviour.

They also have different personalities/approaches to bring to the fore when confronted with problematic behaviour. How an individual teacher responds to such behaviour both in terms of classroom management and referral to a colleague may either discourage or perpetuate it.

The role or ethos of the school, be it the primary or secondary stage, is clearly influential in terms of the effect it has on its population. Finally, the physical location of the school in areas which are of high or low deprivation has an influence on the frequency that behaviour which is a cause for concern may occur.

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3. REID, K. (1966, p124) **Disaffection from school**, (London, Methuen).
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CHAPTER 7

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PILOT STUDY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter details the purpose of the research, and is concerned with the procedures which were followed in order to collect data for the research programme. It describes the method by which the pilot study was constructed, how the final questionnaire was constructed, and how the sample was selected for study.

7.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

The review of the literature in Chapter 6 suggests that within mainstream educational establishments, teachers are exposed to different types of behaviour in pupils which causes concern.; in particular a great deal is written about “acting out” and aggressive pupils who are disruptive in terms of other pupils education, or violent towards both adults and peers.

The extent of this problem has been the subject of continuous debate for decades and several surveys have already been mentioned which attempted to quantify the problem. (Underwood 1955, Rutter 1975, etc). The substantial statistical evidence from such studies coupled with an increased concern in the early 1970’s over the level of disruption within schools fuelled the desire for the “offending pupils” being catered for in units physically remote from the school. An important factor which arose out of this concern for getting the “hooligan element” out of the classroom was the H.M.I. report in

1978, (The Pack Report), which assessed some of these units. This report stated that the term disruptive was an inappropriate description of a population which ranged from aggressive acting out pupils, to introverted withdrawn types, but it noted that the majority had common traits such as distinct underachievement in educational performance.

It is clear that fundamental differences exist between pupils who are deemed to have conduct disorders, and those who are described as having personality problems. It is important that the class teacher takes account of such differences and recognises the need to shape appropriately, methods of educational intervention and the educational objectives which are pursued. For example, the response pattern of these pupils to academic tasks is often not the same and their temperamental characteristics dissimilar. Consequently the way that outside agencies such as social work, psychiatric and psychological services involve themselves is very different.

The pupils with personality problems in either primary or secondary schools, are by and large ignored. Typical of this type of pupil is withdrawn behaviour, i.e. they generally keep themselves to themselves. On the whole they do not disturb others, steal or cause problems through vandalism. In the United States, the Joint Commission on the Mental Health of Children (1970), stated that as many as 8 to 10 percent of school age children may exhibit such problems. In the U.K., the Warnock Report (1977), considered the proportion to be

even higher. Such a percentage may complete a school career with their problems manifesting themselves in terms of academic underachievement never being noticed and appropriate assistance offered.

In contrast, the pupils who have conduct disorders are rarely overlooked for very good reasons. Their behaviour can often be described as outrageous. They disturb the normal flow of education and the entire class may be affected. Their behaviour is considered odd by most people who come into contact with them be they parent, teacher or neighbour.

Within educational settings the teacher's responses may be markedly different towards these two types, not necessarily because of an insightful understanding of the pupil's problems, but within the context of maintaining discipline and control. If a child is quiet, albeit relatively withdrawn, there is no major anxiety from the teacher. The pupil is seen as relatively unproblematic as no classroom disturbance takes place. On the other hand, if the pupil is acting out, aggressive, being manipulative etc, the likely response is punitive. Teachers attempt to exclude such pupils from class or school as quickly as possible with the pupil being held as responsible for his or her own actions, and as such meriting exclusion from an integrated educational setting.

Little account is taken of other factors which may be contributing to the pupil acting in this fashion, such as family influences, social environment, and of course the

school and its educational ethos itself.

As Chapter 6 shows, there has been little research conducted which measures the type of response that teachers make when they come across irregular behaviour in the course of their daily routine.

The main purpose of this research is to establish the different responses that teachers make when exposed to different types of pupil behaviour which are a cause for concern, and if that teacher's response discriminates between the typology of pupil character.

The relationship between teacher responses and other factors in each individual profile such as age, gender, experience and position in school will be explored through correlational techniques as will their opinions on the ethos of their school. This will provide information for comparisons to be made between different schools in terms of their approach to such behaviour and such information will be viewed in the context of social deprivation with schools being categorised as having either a high or a low deprivation population.

7.3 INSTRUMENTATION

The information gathered in Chapter 6, revealed no standardised instrument which measures a teacher's response to pupil behaviour that could be considered suitable for the purposes of this research. The first task therefore, was to compile a list of different instances of behaviour which teachers are likely to meet.

This was achieved by consultation with colleagues from

mainstream secondary and primary schools, and from teachers in the special educational setting who work with pupils who have emotional and behavioural difficulties. It was felt that this would generate a pool of items which could form the basis of the survey.

All teachers found it very easy to make suggestions for items and could readily recall situations which they had found themselves in throughout their career. Eventually some 61 items were collected and when examined it became clear that these items could be categorised under the following headings.

- ◆ **Introverted / withdrawn behaviour**, reflecting personality problems.
- ◆ **Aggressive or acting out behaviour**, reflecting conduct disorder. (This has two further subsections of **destructive behaviour** and **manipulative behaviour** which are often considered to be the manifestation of a conduct disorder).
- ◆ **Physical symptoms**, which are often interpreted as the manifestation of personality problems.

To obtain a useful size of response to these items, individual interview was discarded in favour of a questionnaire which would be mailed or delivered to the respondents. This seemed the most appropriate method of gathering extensive data, both in terms of cost and time. A draft of the questionnaire was constructed consisting of

the following sections:

- ◆ An introductory page giving relevant background information on each respondent such as type of school, position in school gender etc.
- ◆ A response section asking teachers to state the action they would make, if any, when exposed to different types of behaviour.
- ◆ A final section where respondents could suggest other items and make any comment they considered to be helpful in terms of item inclusion and questionnaire design.

7.4 THE PILOT STUDY

Davidson (1970), states that an ideal questionnaire should be:

.....clear, unambiguous and uniformly workable. Its design must minimise potential errors from respondents.... and coders. And since people's participation in surveys is voluntary, a questionnaire has to help in engaging their interest, encouraging their cooperation, and eliciting answers as close as possible to the truth.”

(1)

The purpose of the pilot study was to establish the usefulness of each item in the questionnaire and to highlight any difficulties in the overall presentation and method of responding to each item. Confidentiality of the respondent was stressed and the difficulty of finding time to complete a questionnaire recognised. Munn and Drever

(1990), suggest that the main advantages of using a questionnaire are:

- ◆ an efficient use of time.
- ◆ anonymity (for the respondent).
- ◆ the possibility of a high return rate.
- ◆ standardised questions.

7.5 COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire consisted of 61 items which were spread randomly to avoid clustering of similar items. This is included as Appendix 1. Each respondent was asked to select one of four categories which they considered to be the most likely action they would take if they met such behaviour. These were as follows:

1. Not particularly disruptive but requires minimal correction.
2. Fairly disruptive requiring correction at class level with minimal interruption to the lesson.
3. Disruptive requiring individual correction within the classroom.
4. Extremely disruptive necessitating immediate correction and referral to other personnel.

7.6 THE PILOT SAMPLE

The pilot sample of 134 teachers was drawn from 2 secondary schools and 4 primary schools in the Glasgow area.

At this stage permission was granted by a Divisional Education Officer in Glasgow Division of Strathclyde Regional Council to approach schools preselected by

Psychological Service (Glasgow Division), as being representative of schools in areas of high and low deprivation.

Such schools have been identified in other studies conducted by Psychological Services by using parental applications requesting a clothing grant as the main criteria for establishing the degree of deprivation. This method is described in detail in the Chapter 8. Although this method of selection conflicts with the random element of the main survey, it was all that was practically possible in terms of gathering information.

Edwards (1957), suggests that such questionnaires should be “administered under controlled conditions with standardised instructions.” The nature of this survey proved the use of controlled conditions to be difficult. Mailing a survey which relies on a single individual to distribute to staff could possibly lead to a misinterpretation of the purpose of the research. The method of introduction was therefore considered in detail.

The procedure followed was to make an initial contact with the Head Teacher through the Educational Psychologist serving that particular school. It was anticipated that enlisting the support of the Head Teacher at this stage would ease the common situation of teachers being over exposed to requests of completing surveys of this nature. This being achieved, a meeting with each Head Teacher was arranged to talk in more detail about

the purpose of the exercise.

The instructions for completing the questionnaire, which were in detail, appeared to pose no problems for the teacher. It was made clear that any response was necessarily voluntary, that the information was strictly for the purposes of research only, and that confidentiality of the individual and school would be preserved throughout.

7.7 RESPONSE TO THE PILOT QUESTIONNAIRE

Table 7.1
Pilot Questionnaire Response from Secondary Schools

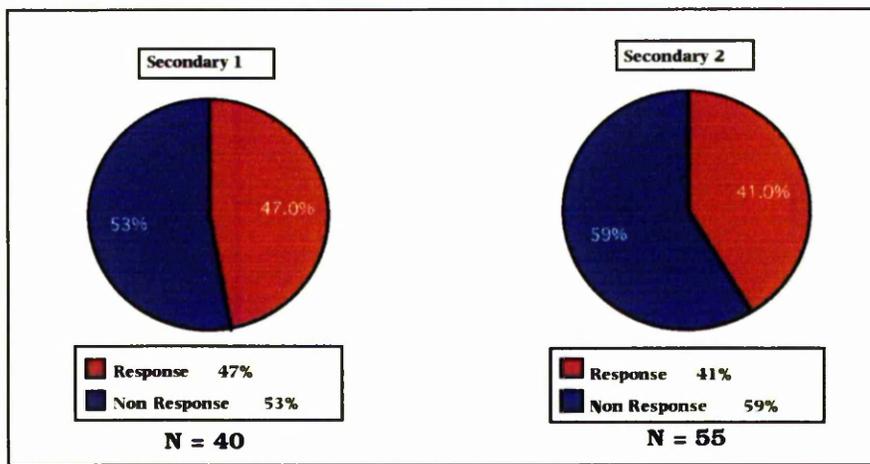


Table 7.1 shows the percentage response to the pilot questionnaire from the secondary schools involved. The combined response from the two schools represents 45% of the total secondary sample.

Table 7.2
Pilot Questionnaire Response from Primary Schools

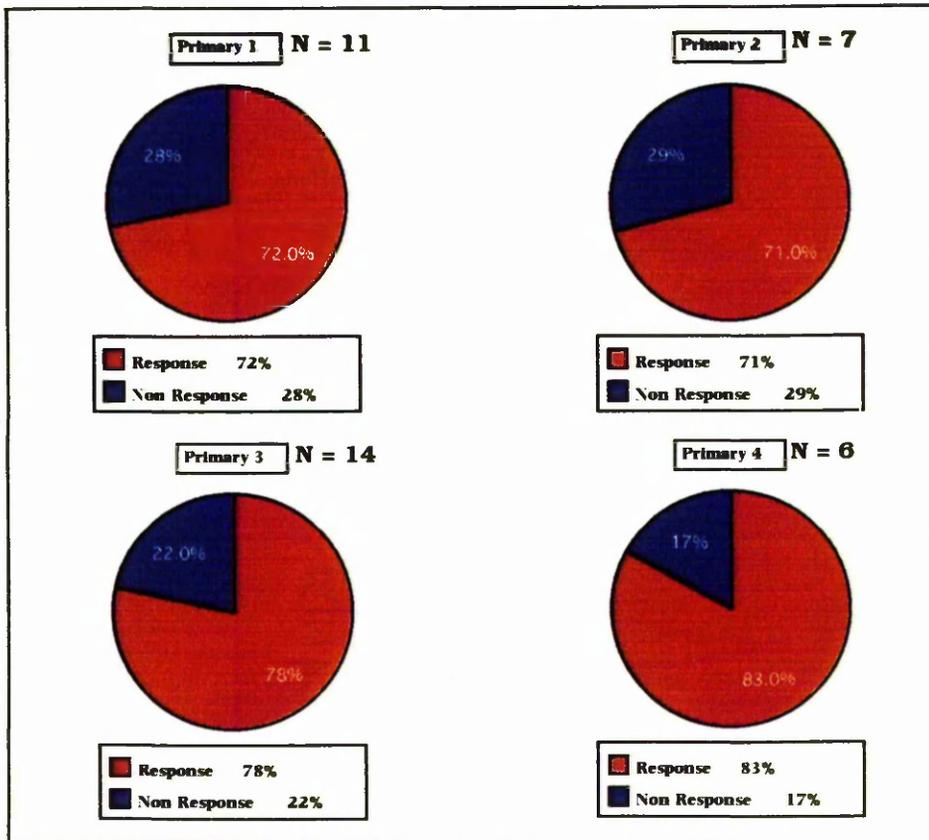


Table 7.2 shows the percentage response to the pilot questionnaire from the primary schools involved. The combined response from the two schools represents 75% of the total primary sample.

This marked difference in response between primary and secondary was of interest. The most obvious factor which the researcher noted was the willingness of the Head Teachers in the primary sector to create a time for the teaching staff to complete the questionnaire. This was achieved by arranging cover for classes over and above contractual pupil contact time.

In the secondary sector, in- school politics were

frequently mentioned and agreement with teaching unions sought before final agreement for the distribution of the questionnaire made. Management also made it clear that teachers would be expected to complete the questionnaire in their own time.

The use of preparation time or planned activity time was a grey area which both “sides” had their own opinion of. It would appear that teachers in the primary sector were given greater encouragement to be involved and this is apparent in the figures for completed questionnaires

7.8 ANALYSIS OF RETURNS

The pilot study established those items which were unsuitable, through for example, ambiguity, vagueness of content or lack of clarity in definition.

Item discrimination was based on the ability of the respondent to select one category out of the four. If selection of a category in each item proved impossible for a variety of possible reasons, that item was deemed unsuitable for inclusion in the final questionnaire.

The analysis of the pilot study at this stage showed 22 items to be problematic for the respondents. The comments which were often alongside such items were of particular value. For example, some items were noted as not being specific instances of behaviour but general descriptions of a particular type of behaviour, and as such, they could not fit into the parameters of the questionnaire as described in the introduction.

The majority of comments suggested that an item which was difficult to respond to was one which required a greater degree of precision in terms of the frequency of occurrence. For example, item 18, “sucking thumb” would merit a more immediate response if it was worded “frequently sucks thumb”.

A great number of new items were suggested for inclusion. They were selected if suitable in terms of the original categories of behaviour.

Comments were also made in relation to the section dealing with “Background Information” For example the section titled “Position in School” was clearly not comprehensive enough and had to be developed to include other titles. There was also no reference to age or gender.

7.9 MODIFIED QUESTIONNAIRE

The layout for the modified questionnaire was to be the same as the used used in the pilot study but with several important additional features.

The main section of the questionnaire was reduced to 50 items and included several of those suggested by respondents in the pilot study. However, the main change was to increase the response categories to 5. This followed pilot suggestions that there was room for an expanded option of response.

For the future analysis of this collection of questionnaire items, the categories of behaviour were regrouped as

- ◆ **Introverted / withdrawn behaviour**
- ◆ **Aggressive or acting out behaviour**
- ◆ **Destructive behaviour**
- ◆ **Manipulative behaviour**
- ◆ **Physical symptoms**

These items are listed as Appendix 3.

It had become clear that important additional information could be elicited in this section in terms of the frequency of occurrence of an item. Respondents were asked therefore to select how often they considered they may encounter a particular item of behaviour in the school. They were asked to choose from the categories of yearly, termly, weekly or daily.

Another section of 15 statements concerning teacher perceptions of general educational matters and their own school ethos and climate was also included. The ongoing review of the literature highlighted the usefulness of such information in a survey of this type in terms of the final analysis of the data. The respondents were therefore expected to choose one of five categories from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

In its new form, the questionnaire was piloted to a small number of teachers, six from the primary sector and six from the secondary sector. These teachers were taken from local schools which had not been involved in the

pilot and were chosen for geographical convenience at this stage. There were no difficulties in the responses, with categories being chosen without any apparent confusion. The additional section related to ethos etc proved to be successful in all respects.

The modified questionnaire is included as Appendix 2.

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1. DAVIDSON, J. (1970) Outdoor recreation surveys : the design and use of questionnaires for site surveys, in **Research methods in education**, (1980, p80), Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (London, Croom Helm).

CHAPTER 8

THE MAIN SAMPLE

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study examines teacher response to different types of behaviour and the incidence of such behaviour.

Teacher opinion of school climate is also sought, as are views on current points of educational debate.

In order to look at the sociological phenomenon of pupil behaviour which is a cause for concern to teachers within the educational system, the questionnaire was distributed to teachers in mainstream primary and secondary schools in Strathclyde Region.

There are approximately 20,000 teachers in the region and it was considered that an approximate percentage of 5% would be a manageable size for the purposes of this research. To aid the practical collection of data, it was decided that the sampling frame should be based on secondary schools and their associated primary schools. This also served the purpose of giving an overview within a particular geographical area, of the frequency of different types of behaviour, from the earliest primary stages, to the end of secondary education.

Permission was granted by the Department of Education to approach schools, and to have access to information stored at Strathclyde Regional Offices.

8.2 THE METHOD OF SCHOOL SELECTION

A stratified sample was sought based on school size with random selection within each strata. Using information provided by data held at Regional Headquarters, schools were grouped into three categories according to size of roll, in simple terms these may be described as small, medium and large.

Using Scottish education Department codes, which are 7 digit numbers, a random computer search produced representative schools for each band. Further selection was determined by the second sampling factor viz socioeconomic status of the area in which the schools were located, specifically areas of high or low deprivation defined in terms of the number of clothing grant requests.

Each school submits annual returns to the Divisional Education Department showing the percentage population of that school which is in receipt of a clothing grant. The Education Department advises that this is a sound indicator in terms of deprivation. This is noted in a study by Reynolds and Flynn (1988), which looked at pupils' perceptions and school climate within the context of high and low deprivation schools. They stated that:

“Clothing grant was finally chosen as the index of deprivation since it correlates highly with other social background indications and has the advantage over free school meals of avoiding the confusion between uptake and eligibility.” (1)

People who are eligible for such income tend to claim it, whilst other census information does not accurately reflect numbers. It also has the advantage of being updated every year. As such, those schools who have more than 25% of the pupil population in receipt of a clothing grant were considered to be in an area of high deprivation, and those below 25% in an area of low deprivation.

Using this procedure, 10 secondary schools were selected, and thereafter 45 associated primary schools. The number of secondary schools in terms of the categories according to roll and deprivation is given in table 8.1

Table 8.1
School Sample

		<u>Secondary School Size</u>			
		0 - 559	560 - 1030	1031 -	
<u>Clothing</u>	No of Schools > 25%	1	3	1	
<u>Allowance</u>	No of Schools < 25%	1	3	1	

8.3 PRESENTATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE TO SCHOOLS

The Head Teacher of each school was contacted by telephone to establish their initial reaction to their school being included in the survey. If this was favourable, then arrangements were made to deliver the questionnaires with an agreed date for collection stamped on each one. It became clear that it would be useful to visit all secondary schools as the common response from Head Teachers was to delegate involvement to a member of staff. Wishing to avoid any possible misinterpretation, a personal approach to that individual seemed prudent. All primary school Head Teachers were willing to respond to postal contact.

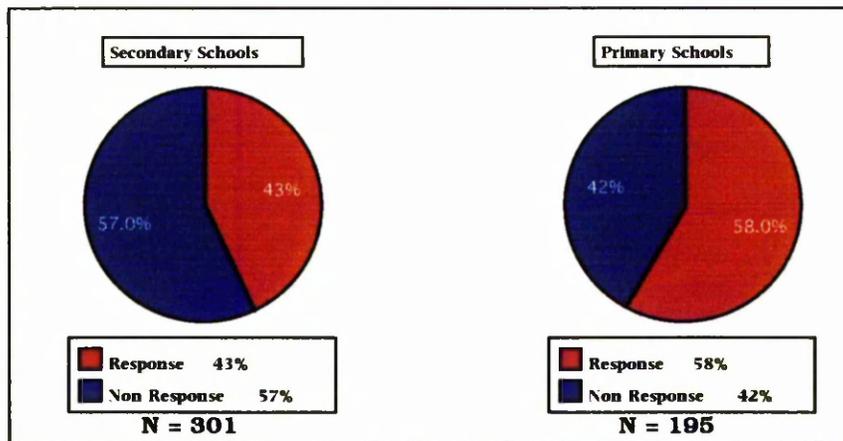
Of the ten secondary schools selected, two Head Teachers

refused to permit the participation of their staff. Other schools were selected to replace them using the procedure already established.

8.4 RESPONSE TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

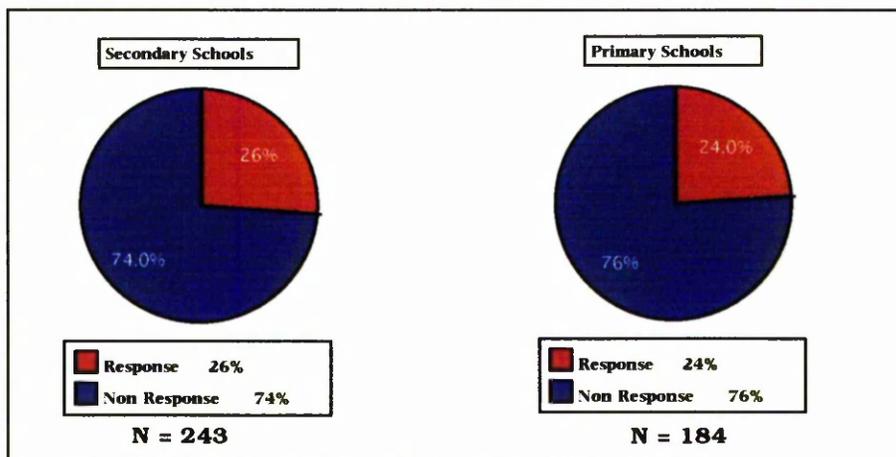
The response rate from Secondary and Primary schools of low deprivation status is shown in table 8.2.

Table 8.2
Questionnaire Response form Low Deprivation Schools



As in the pilot questionnaire, the response from Primary school was higher than that from the Secondary sector. The same factors already described in Chapter 7 would influence teacher response, e.g. time made available etc.

Table 8.3
Questionnaire Response from High Deprivation Schools

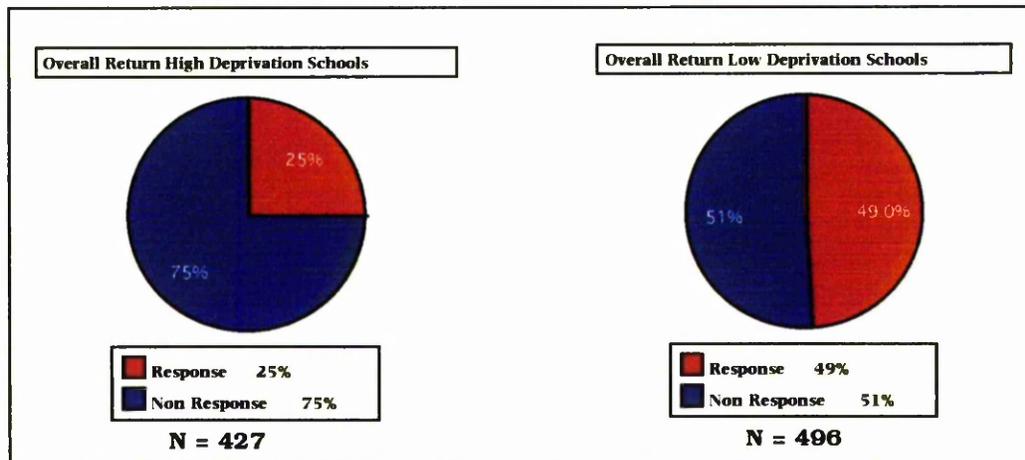


The response rate from Secondary and Primary schools of

high deprivation status is shown in table 8.3.

The response from Primary schools was slightly lower than in the Secondary sector. This issue will be explored in the analysis of the data

Table 8.4
Overall Response from Primary and Secondary Schools



The overall response from schools is detailed in table 10.4. It is clear that schools of low deprivation status were involved to a greater degree than those schools of high deprivation status.

There could be a number of factors which, in general, have brought this about. For example it is generally accepted that levels of teacher stress may be related to factors created by social deprivation, and its influence on pupil attitude towards systems or institutions of authority such as schools.

Such stress may manifest itself in teacher absenteeism, an increase in apathy etc. It would be incorrect to expand on such tentative hypothesis at this point. These issues will be fully addressed as the data analysis develops.

It is nonetheless, important to recognise that whatever the underlying cause of such a response pattern, the sample response from schools of low deprivation status was almost double that from schools of high deprivation status.

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1. REYNOLDS, S. and FLYNN, B. (1988, p8) **Pupil perceptions and school climate in high and low deprivation schools.** (Glasgow Psychological Service, Strathclyde Regional Council).

CHAPTER 9

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The responses to the questionnaire were transposed into numerical form, i.e. A=1 B=2 C=3 and so on, and transferred to a data spread sheet. This sheet followed internal guidelines in terms of lay out and presentation and is included in Appendix 3. A random sample of 10% was cross checked for error. No errors were identified.

The data on each sheet was entered into an ASCII file. This is a file used by MSDOS (Micro Soft Desk Operating System) which was prepared to accept raw data, in this case the data was represented by a number. This resulted in a series of 352 lines, each line containing all the information from each sheet in numeric form, thus forming a text file which could be analysed. Statistical analysis of the data was undertaken using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Microsoft Corporation).

The first step in preparing the raw data for analysis was to create a set of data list commands which allowed the text file containing the survey data to be understood. This was in a fixed column format stating variable names and values. The text file was merged with the data list commands to form a complete file containing 352 cases each with 130 variables ready for interpretation.

The first run of this file highlighted some teething

problems in terms of the values of some of the variables, these were corrected and the initial consideration of the data ready to proceed.

9.2 FIRST STAGE OF ANALYSIS

The first stage of analysis was to establish a frequency count of the responses to all questions. This showed the main figures related to respondent background and this information is listed below.

Size of Response

The total number of responses was 352 from 28 schools.

Respondent Profile

The information from the respondent profile section which collates the personal circumstances and experience of each individual is represented in table 9.1. overleaf.

Table 9.1 Respondent profile

Additional Qualifications		
	Yes	No
N	77	275
%	22	78
Gender		
	Male	Female
N	110	242
%	31	69
Type of School		
	Secondary	Primary
N	190	161
%	54	46
Grade of Post		
	Full Time	Part Time
N	223	13
%	63	4
	Assist Princ	Principal
N	20	55
%	6	16
	Assist Head	Deputy Head
N	17	6
%	5	2
	Head Teacher	
N	18	
%	5	
Age		
	21 - 29 years	30 - 39 years
N	52	105
%	15	30
	40 - 49 years	50 - 59 years
N	115	74
%	33	21
	60 years +	
N	6	
%	2	

9.3 THE QUESTIONNAIRE : SECTION 1

Due to the very large amount of data available, the initial examination of the frequency of responses to questions

was considered within the categories of questionnaire items already named:

- ◆ **Introverted behaviour**
- ◆ **Aggressive or acting out behaviour**
- ◆ **Physical symptoms**
- ◆ **Destructive behaviour**
- ◆ **Manipulative behaviour**

Furthermore, attention was restricted to the extreme responses indicating a level of concern that required class lessons to cease in order to be dealt with, i.e. “D and E” in the questionnaire, and occurring at a frequency of weekly or daily, i.e. “W and D” in the questionnaire. Those responses which indicated a level of concern of less than 5% for response “E” (requiring immediate attention), and less than 1% in terms of response “D” (daily occurrence) were considered for the purposes of this level of analysis suitable for exclusion from further consideration.

9.4 SUMMARY OF RESULTS (1)

Table 9.2 Introverted Behaviour

Q14 Stares out of window and is obviously unaware of the lesson's development				
	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	59	8	37	22
Q 18 Rarely engages other pupils in dialogue				
	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	35	13	15	8
Q 20 Is tearful when rebuked				
	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	34	7	12	4

Within the questionnaire there were 7 questions related to this area, with 3 giving information statistically worth consideration. Table 9.2 shows that between 56% - 71% of

the respondents stated they would take action “D” or “E” if faced with this type of behaviour
 Between 12% - 37% of the respondents stated that they would be likely to meet such introverted behaviour every week, and 4% - 22% said they would experience this on a daily basis.

Table 9.3 Aggressive or Acting Out Behaviour

Q4 Spits at other pupils	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	44	38	3	1
Q6 Responds to reprimand by threatening class teacher with physical violence	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	15	70	1	1
Q8 Physically strikes the teacher	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	12	76	0	0
Q9 Frequently responds in an unpredictable fashion to the teacher's directions.	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	42	28	10	7
Q11 Walks out of class for no apparent reason	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	33	45	4	1
Q12 Is caught attempting to smoke a cigarette in class	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	47	31	16	5
Q13 Is caught stealing from pupils or teacher	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	21	70	3	2
Q17 Displays aggressive behaviour towards other pupils such as kicking and punching	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	37	51	7	1
Q19 Shows aggressive defiance at the slightest provocation	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	49	37	13	6
Q 22 Threatens other pupils with physical violence	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	32	55	13	3
Q 27 Ring leads class in order to undermine teacher	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	30	59	4	1
Q 32 Openly defies the teacher and challenges them to do anything about such	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	47	38	5	2

**Table 9.3 Aggressive or Acting Out Behaviour
(Continued)**

Q 35 Is verbally abusive towards other pupils	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	62	22	19	7
Q 37 Refuses to accept punishment even though was clearly to blame	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	42	44	9	1
Q 38 Openly defies the teacher over an instruction	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	45	42	9	3
Q 39 Is verbally abusive towards the class teacher	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	26	62	3	1
Q 41 Frequently does not do homework	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	51	20	8	1
Q 42 Refuses to comply with expected standards of dress	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	32	24	9	1
Q 46 Seems to make a point of being in a position which earns disapproval	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	50	21	22	7

Within the questionnaire there were 19 questions related to this area. All were considered. Table 9.3 shows that between 71% - 91% of the respondents stated they would take action "D" or "E" if faced with this type of behaviour. Between 1% - 22% of the respondents stated that they would be likely to meet such introverted behaviour every week, and 1% - 7% said they would experience this on a daily basis.

Table 9.4 Physical Symptoms

Q 21 Often falls asleep during class lessons	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	30	38	2	1
Q 23 Appears with self inflicted scars	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	20	60	8	3
Q 31 Frequently stammers in normal conversation	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	19	34	3	6
Q 40 Has twitches or tics of the face or body	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	20	32	3	4

Within the questionnaire there were 8 questions related to this area with 4 being considered. Table 9.4 shows that between 43% - 80% of the respondents stated they would take action "D" or "E" if faced with this type of behaviour. Between 2% - 8% of the respondents stated that they would be likely to meet such introverted behaviour every week, and 1% - 6% said they would experience this on a daily basis.

Table 9.5 Destructive Behaviour

Q 25 Deliberately damages school equipment such as books, chairs etc	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	36	51	7	2
Q 30 Defaces property e.g. graffiti	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	40	42	10	1
Q 44 After completing a task destroys his own work	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	44	30	4	1

Within the questionnaire there were 5 questions related to this area with 3 being considered. Table 9.5 shows that between 74% - 86% of the respondents stated they would take action "D" or "E" if faced with this type of behaviour.

Between 4% - 10% of the respondents stated that they would be likely to meet such introverted behaviour every week, and 1% - 2% said they would experience this on a daily basis.

Table 9.6 Manipulative Behaviour

Q 2 Fabricates stories in order to achieve status with peers	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	31	6	22	4
Q 3 Tries to negotiate work e.g. "Do these 5 tasks" "I'll do 3 today and the rest next time"	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	44	2	16	5
Q 10 Seeks excuses in order to move around the class	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	45	5	42	25
Q 28 Tries to monopolise teacher attention, nuisance when teacher is busy with pupil	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	63	10	34	17
Q 45 Constantly seeks help when he could easily manage by himself	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	52	9	14	1
Q 47 Will only apply himself to task in hand when watched or compelled	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	58	15	33	25
Q 48 Has an erratic attendance pattern at particular lessons	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	29	43	18	3
Q 49 Feigns illness in order to avoid class work	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	44	28	10	2
Q 50 Tries to divert the teacher's attention from the class lesson	Response D	Response E	Frequency W	Frequency D
%	52	7	20	9

Within the questionnaire there were 10 items related to this area. All were considered. Table 9.6 shows that between 37% - 73% of the respondents stated they would take action "D" or "E" if faced with this type of behaviour. Between 6% - 42% of the respondents stated that they would be likely to meet such introverted behaviour every week, and 1% - 25% said they would experience this on a daily basis.

9.5 THE QUESTIONNAIRE : SECTION 2

The second section of the questionnaire dealt with general statements related to behaviour which is a cause for concern, and statements concerning school climate and ethos. Table 9.7 is a breakdown of the extreme responses of "Strongly Agree" i.e. "A" in the questionnaire, and "Strongly Disagree" i.e. "E" in the questionnaire.

9.6 SUMMARY OF RESULTS (2)

Table 9.7
Responses to School Climate/Ethos Questions and
General Questions

Q 51 Behaviour which merits concern in secondary schools is on the increase	Response A	Response E
%	36	6
Q 52 School psychologists could help reduce the incidence of such behaviour	Response A	Response E
%	8	8
Q.53 Much of the pupil's behaviour can be attributed to the home situation	Response A	Response E
%	56	1
Q.54 Pupils who exhibit behaviour which is a cause for concern take up the teacher's time to the detriment of those pupils who do not	Response A	Response E
%	78	1
Q.55 Such pupils would have had a greater chance of succeeding at secondary school if their primary had alerted the new school of the pupil's difficulties	Response A	Response E
%	36	2
Q.56 Teacher training colleges do not adequately prepare teachers to cope with behaviour which is a cause for concern	Response A	Response E
%	63	1
Q.57 In some instances, teacher inexperience is a significant contributory factor in such behaviour escalating	Response A	Response E
%	36	2

Table 9.7 Continued

Q.58 The stress factor present in every day teaching has increased in recent years because disruptive behaviour has increased	Response A	Response E
%	60	1
Q.59 Mainstream schools should now be able to cater for all pupils except for the odd exceptional one	Response A	Response E
%	18	14
Q.60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour	Response A	Response E
%	57	2
Q.61 The climate of your school is rewarding to pupils	Response A	Response E
%	46	1
Q.62 The climate of your school supports innovation in teaching and curricula	Response A	Response E
%	47	1
Q.63 The climate of your school favours staff development	Response A	Response E
%	40	3
Q.64 The climate of your school is supportive to those in difficulty	Response A	Response E
%	41	3
Q.65 The climate of your school is controlled yet relaxed	Response A	Response E
%	42	2

Table 9.7 shows that the 10 general questions had response “A” ranging from 23% to 78% and response “E” ranging from 1% to 6%.

The 5 school climate questions had response “A” ranging from 41% to 47% and response “E” ranging from 1% to 3%.

9.7 CONCLUSIONS

Table 9.8 shows the response range of category “D” and “E” and frequency count both weekly and daily for each category of questions.

TABLE 9.8
Level of Concern and Frequency of Response Rate

Category	Level of Concern	Frequency Weekly	Frequency Daily
Aggressive	71% - 91%	1% - 22%	1% - 7%
Introverted	41% - 71%	12% - 37%	4% - 22%
Physical Symptoms	43% - 80%	2% - 8%	1% - 6%
Destructive	74% - 86%	4% - 10%	1% - 2%
Manipulative	37% - 73%	6% - 42%	1% - 25%

This suggests that aggressive and destructive behaviour would, in general, be more likely to interrupt the lesson taking place than the other categories of behaviour. Such behaviour however, occurs relatively less often than the categories of introverted and manipulative behaviour. Physical symptoms, whilst giving cause for concern, occur least of all.

Table 9.9 shows the response range to the categories "A" and "E" in the second section of the questionnaire, and the implications of these figures will be considered in Chapter 10.

TABLE 9.9
Response Range for General and Ethos Questions

Category	Response "A"	Response "E"
General Questions	23% - 78%	1% - 6%
School Ethos	41% - 47%	1% - 3%

Given the wealth of information available for analysis, a more focussed understanding of the data was achieved by selecting the extreme responses to the questionnaire. Although it is recognised that possible trends representing the middle range responses (Level of Concern A, B and C, and Frequency A and T) will not be addressed, the consistent application of this selection criteria generates information which can be used to clearly

illustrate the issues that this thesis is attempting to explore.

The purpose of this study is to explore the causes of types of behaviour, the responses made to such behaviour and the frequency with which they occur. This first stage of analysis concludes that although aggressive and destructive behaviour would require immediate attention, introverted and manipulative behaviour which are slightly less likely to interrupt lessons occur more frequently. Manipulative behaviour however, has emerged as the category with both a high level of concern and also a high degree of incidence. To support further analysis in examining the relationship between the many factors at play, Chapter 10 will now consider in detail, the responses made to this category.

The variables of gender, age, position in school etc will be explored related specifically to manipulative behaviour. Whilst it is accepted that there is scope for further comparative analysis between manipulative behaviour and the other categories, (in particular aggressive and acting out behaviour) all within the context of these variables, such considerations could be the focus of future research and will not be addressed within the parameters of this thesis.

CHAPTER 10

STATISTICAL INFORMATION FROM SECOND STAGE OF ANALYSIS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

The survey has targeted schools from three different sizes and which were categorised as having a high or low deprivation status. This stage of analysis attempts to examine the frequency of responses related to the category “Manipulative Behaviour” and analysis will be as follows:

- ◆ Frequency count of responses to questionnaire items in relation to size of school and high or low deprivation status
- ◆ Frequency count of responses to questionnaire items in relation to size of school and high or low deprivation status and gender of respondent.
- ◆ Frequency count of responses to questionnaire items in relation to size of school and high or low deprivation status and age of respondent (2 levels 21-49 years and 49 years and over).
- ◆ Frequency count of responses to questionnaire items in relation to size of school and high or low deprivation status and grade of post of respondent (2 levels, promoted and unpromoted).

10.2 CREATING COMMAND FILES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

To process this stage of analysis, the file containing the data required to have a number of “command files” created to isolate the variables associated with the manipulative behaviour category.

A further command file was created specifically to select the schools according to size or deprivation status. Schools were identified by a 7 digit S.O.E.D. number using the “Select If (School EQ).” command.

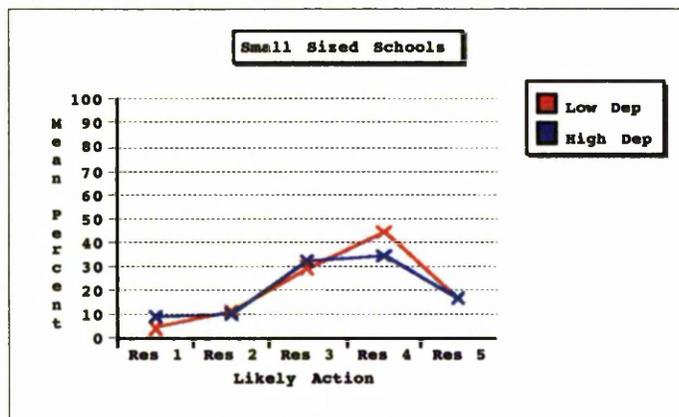
Both of these commands were superimposed by a further command to select responses related to gender, age and grade of post. For example, “Select If (Gender EQ1).” would limit computer analysis to males, and so on. The information this analysis provided was modified to give a mean percentage for each response category of the “A” part of each question. This gave an average indication of the likely action respondents would take. For the “B” part of each question, the mean was also calculated to give the average annually, termly, weekly or daily frequency rate of occurrence.

These “mean” figures were transferred to a spreadsheet from which charts could be created to assist the comparison of data.

10.3 GENERAL ANALYSIS FOR SIZE OF SCHOOL AND HIGH AND LOW DEPRIVATION (LIKELY RESPONSE)

Figures 10.1 to 10.3 illustrate the average likely response to manipulative behaviour in schools of different sizes, which are classified as being of high or low deprivation status. "N" = the number of respondents.

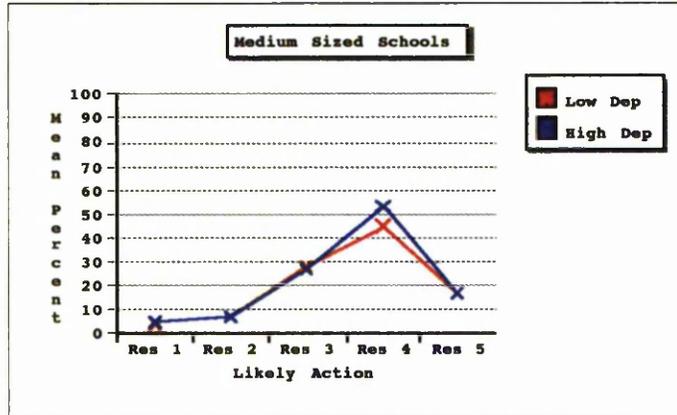
Figure 10.1
Teachers Likely Action In Small Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 35 High Dep N = 28

Figure 10.1 shows that the most likely action that teachers in small schools would take when presented with manipulative behaviour on the part of a pupil, is one where the lesson would have to stop in order for the situation to be addressed. This is also more likely to be the case in schools of **low** deprivation than in schools of high deprivation.

Figure 10.2
Teachers Likely Action In Medium Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 178 High Dep N = 43

Figure 10.2 illustrates a similar pattern where quite clearly, in medium sized schools, the cessation of lessons is necessary to tackle the problem. In contrast with small schools, this response is more likely to be the case in **high** deprivation schools.

Figure 10.3
Teachers Likely Action In Large Sized Schools

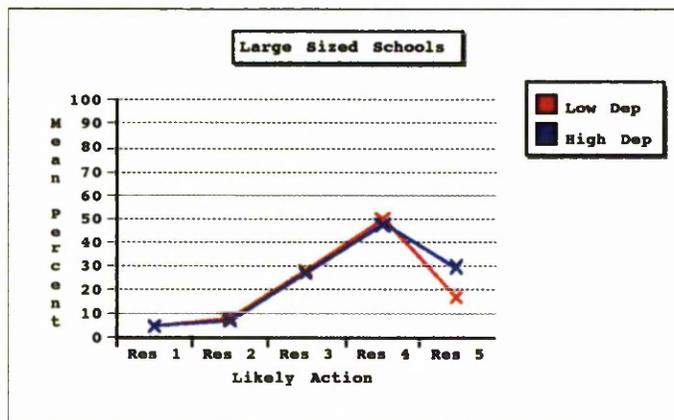
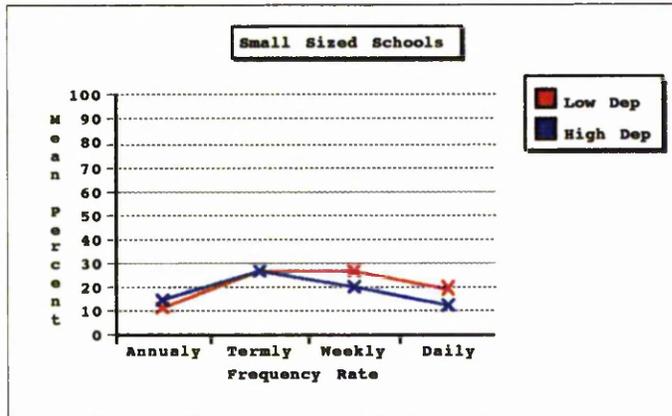


Figure 10.3 continues the pattern with the most likely option being that of stopping the lesson, with this happening slightly more often in **high** deprivation schools.

10.4 GENERAL ANALYSIS FOR SIZE OF SCHOOL AND HIGH AND LOW DEPRIVATION (FREQUENCY)

Figures 10.4 to 10.6 illustrate the actual frequency of such behaviour.

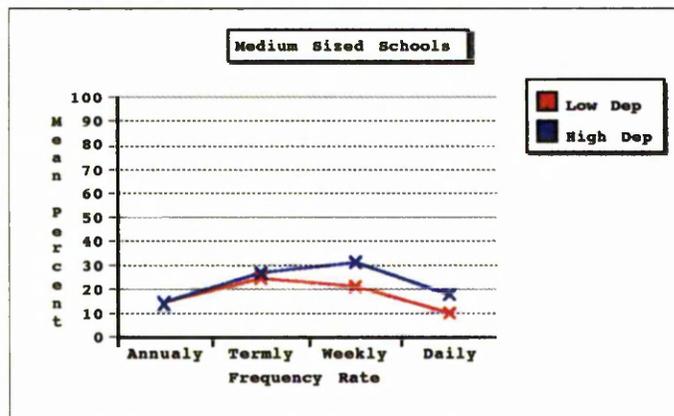
Figure 10.4
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 35 High Dep N = 28

Figure 10.4 shows that in **small** sized, **low** deprivation schools, 28% of the respondents stated they meet this type of behaviour on a weekly basis, dropping to 20% for daily occurrence. **High** deprivation schools gave figures of 20% and 12% respectively.

Figure 10.5
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools

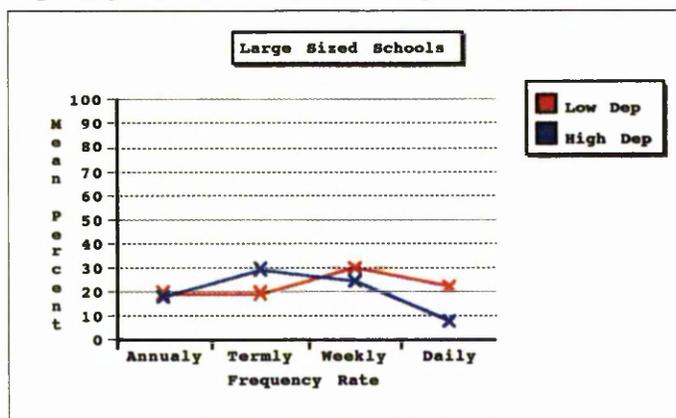


Low Dep N = 178 High Dep N = 43

Figure 10.5 shows an increase in frequency with 30% of

the respondents in **medium** sized, **high** deprivation schools experiencing such behaviour weekly dropping to 20% on a daily basis. In **low** deprivation schools this is being 20% and 10% respectively.

Figure 10.6
Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 22 High Dep N = 37

Figure 10.6 shows that 29% of the respondents in **large** sized, **high** deprivation schools experienced such behaviour termly, reducing to 24% weekly and 9% daily. In **large** sized, **low** deprivation schools, 30% of the respondents dealt with such behaviour each week, falling to 22% on a daily basis.

10.5 SUMMARY (1)

The data in Figures 10.4 to 10.6 illustrate that pupils' manipulative behaviour is more likely to occur in :

- ◆ small sized, low deprivation schools
- ◆ medium sized, high deprivation schools
- ◆ large sized, low deprivation schools

Although this behaviour occurs to a greater or lesser degree in terms of size and deprivation, if this is viewed

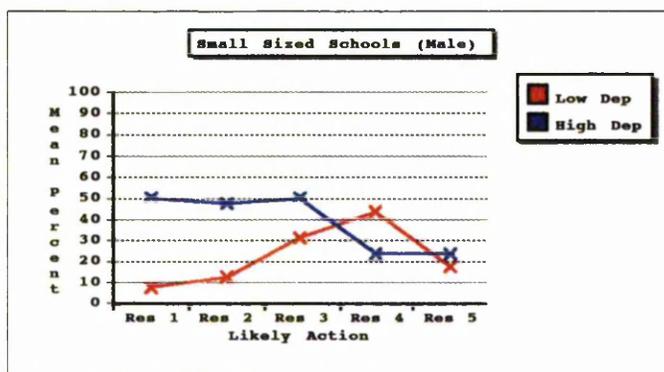
within the context of the likely action taken, in general, such behaviour is occurring at a level which seriously disrupts the teaching situation on a regular basis.

Regardless of deprivation status or size, a minimum of 10% of the respondents considered it to be a daily happening with the most likely action being to stop the teaching process.

10.6 ANALYSIS FOR : SIZE OF SCHOOL, HIGH AND LOW DEPRIVATION, AND GENDER OF RESPONDENT (LIKELY RESPONSE)

The relationship between size of school and deprivation status was further explored by looking at the influence of gender on response to the questionnaire items related to manipulative behaviour.

Figure 10.7
Male Teachers Likely Action in Small Sized Schools

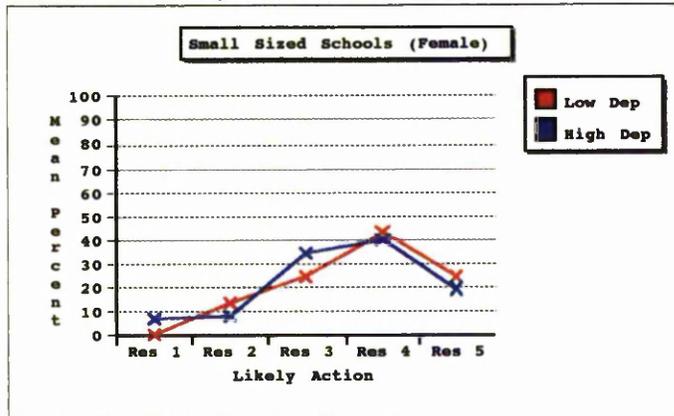


Low Dep N = 18 High Dep N = 3

Figure 10.7 shows that 50% of **male** respondents in **small** sized, **high** deprivation schools are likely to ignore such behaviour. Only 21% stated they would stop to deal with it. Those in **low** deprivation schools took the opposite stance with 42% stating they would cease teaching should

such behaviour occur.

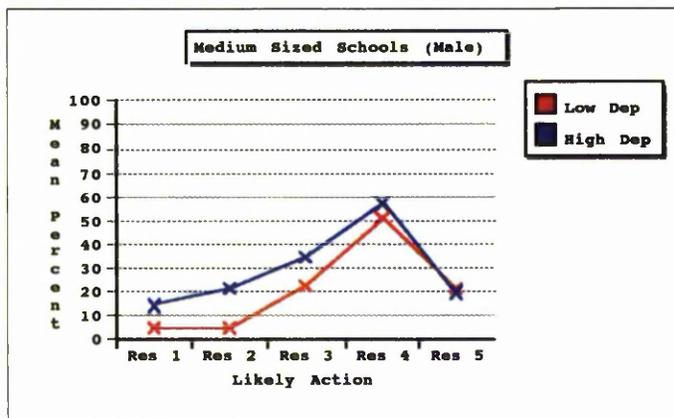
Figure 10.8
Female Teachers Likely Action In Small Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 17 High Dep N = 22

Figure 10.8 shows the likely response that **females** in **small** sized schools would make. There is little difference when taking into account the deprivation status of the schools. 40% of both **high** and **low** deprivation schools said they would stop teaching to deal with the problem.

Figure 10.9
Male Teachers Likely Action In Medium Sized Schools

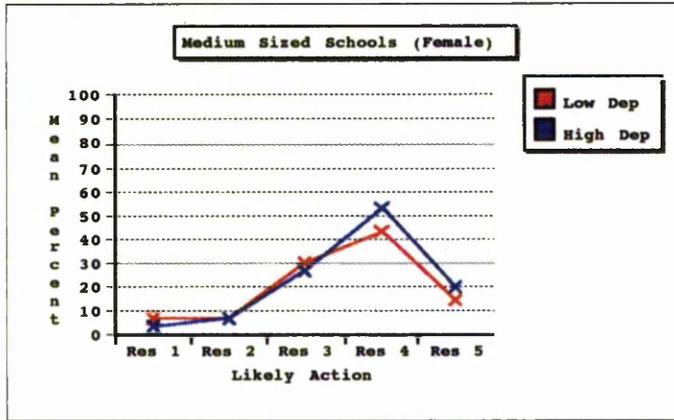


Low Dep N = 52 High Dep N = 7

Figure 10.9 shows 57% of **males** in medium sized **high** deprivation schools are likely to stop the lessons, 50% of those in **low** deprivation schools would also do so.

Figure 10.10

Female Teachers Likely Action In Medium Sized Schools

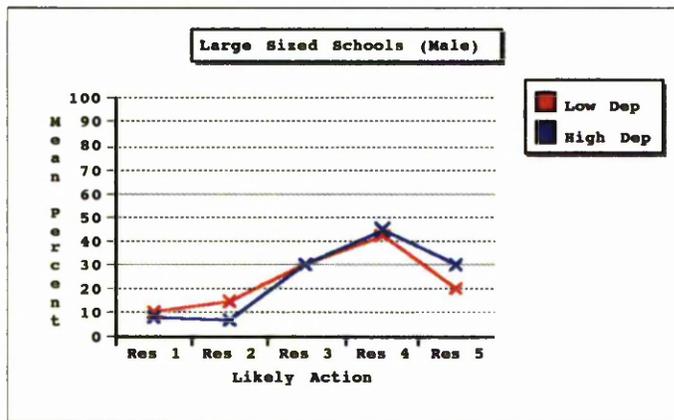


Low Dep N = 126 High Dep N = 36

Figure 10.10 illustrates a similar difference in the case of **females** in **medium** sized schools with 53% in **high** deprivation schools and 42% in **low** deprivation schools stating they would stop the lesson to deal with the incident.

Figure 10.11

Male Teachers Likely Action In Large Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 10 High Dep N = 19

Figure 10.11 shows that there is very little difference in the actions that **males** in **large** sized schools of **high** or **low** deprivation are likely to make. Both suggest that 41% of respondents would stop the lesson if faced with such

behaviour.

Figure 10.12
Female Teachers Likely Action In Large Sized Schools

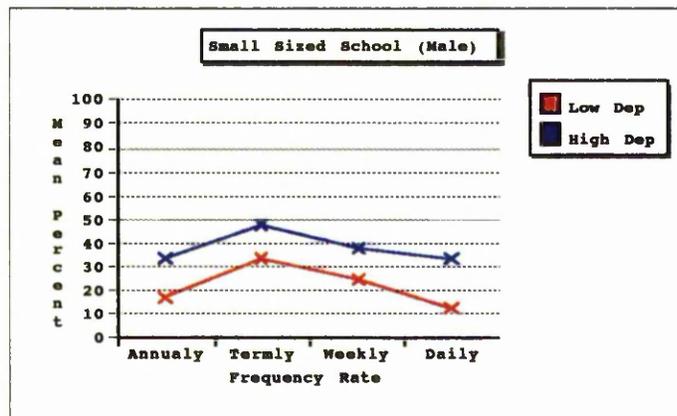


Low Dep N = 12 High Dep N = 18

Figure 10.12 also shows a very similar response would be made by **females in large** sized schools with 50% of respondents in **high** deprivation schools likely to stop the lesson, and 57% in **low** deprivation schools taking such action.

10.7 ANALYSIS OF FREQUENCY OF MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOUR CONSIDERING : SIZE OF SCHOOL, DEPRIVATION STATUS, AND GENDER OF RESPONDENT

Figure 10.13
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools : Male Respondent

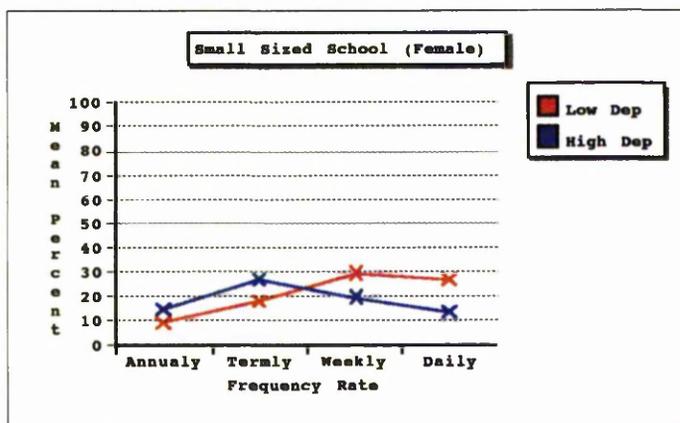


Low Dep N = 18 High Dep N = 3

Figure 10.13 shows there is a marked difference in the

frequency of this type of behaviour as viewed by **males**, in **small** schools of **high** and **low** deprivation status. Those in **high** deprivation schools see such behaviour occurring more frequently than those in **low** deprivation schools

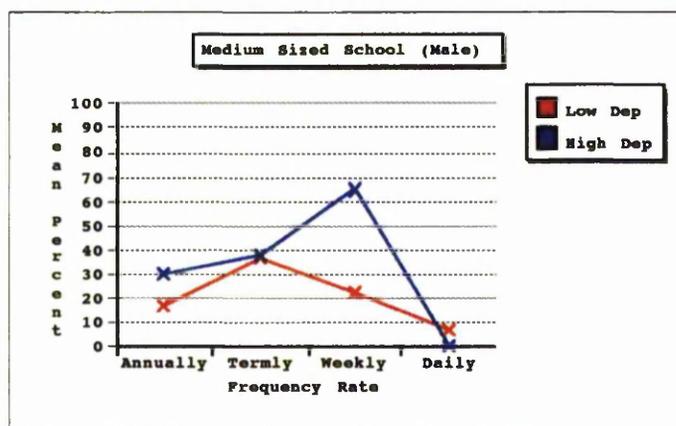
Figure 10.14
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools : Female Respondent



Low Dep N = 17 High Dep N = 22

Figure 10.14 suggests that **females** in **small** sized schools consider such behaviour occurs more often both weekly and daily, in schools of **low** deprivation.

Figure 10.15
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools : Male Respondent

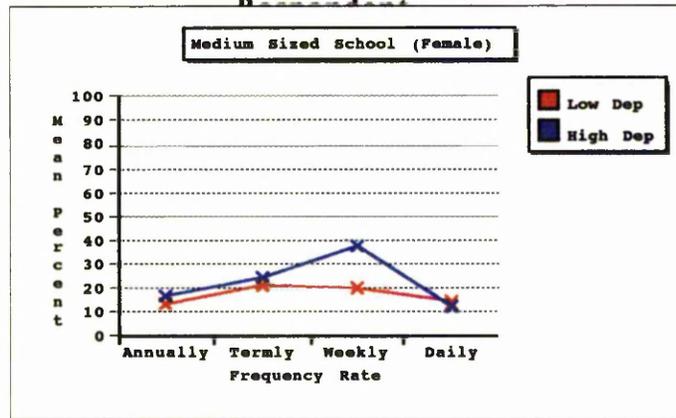


Low Dep N = 52 High Dep N = 7

Figure 10.15 suggests that **male** respondents in **medium** sized schools consider this type of behaviour occurs more

often on a weekly basis in schools of **high** deprivation status.

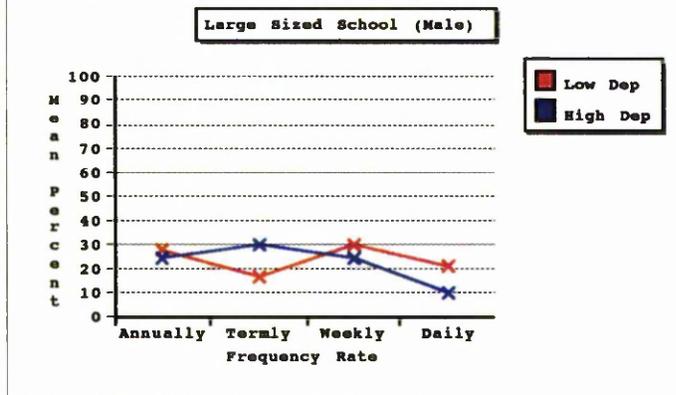
Figure 10.16
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools : Female



Low Dep N = 126 High Dep N = 36

Figure 10.16 continues this trend and also suggests that **female** respondents in **medium** sized schools consider that this type of behaviour occurs more often on a weekly basis in schools of **high** deprivation status

Figure 10.17
Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools : Male

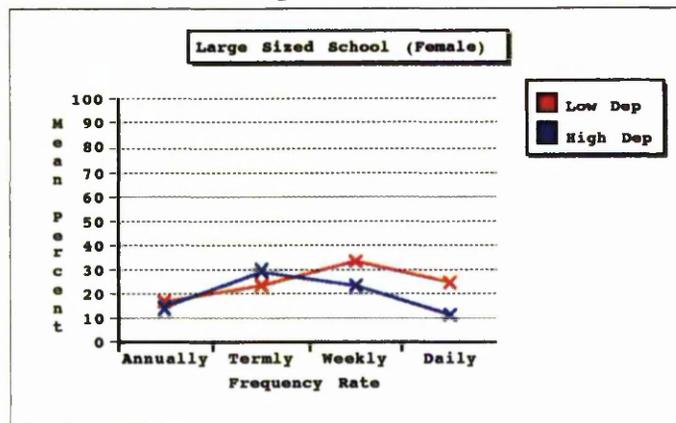


Low Dep N = 10 High Dep N = 19

sized schools consider this type of behaviour occurs more regularly on a weekly and daily basis in schools of **low** deprivation status.

Figure 10.18

Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools : Female Respondent



Low Dep N = 12 High Dep N = 18

Figure 10.18 continues this trend and also suggests that **female** respondents in **large** sized schools consider that this type of behaviour occurs more often on a weekly and daily basis in schools of **low** deprivation status

10.8 SUMMARY (2)

The data in Figures 10.13 to 10.18 illustrate that manipulative behaviour is more likely to be experienced by :

- ◆ **males in small sized high** deprivation schools
- ◆ **males in medium sized schools of high** deprivation
- ◆ **males and females in large sized schools of low** deprivation

If this is viewed within the context of the likely action

taken by a respondent, as illustrated in Figures 10.7 to 10.12, over 20% of male respondents in small sized schools of high deprivation would stop lessons if such behaviour is encountered.

Almost 60% of male respondents in medium sized schools of high deprivation would do the same.

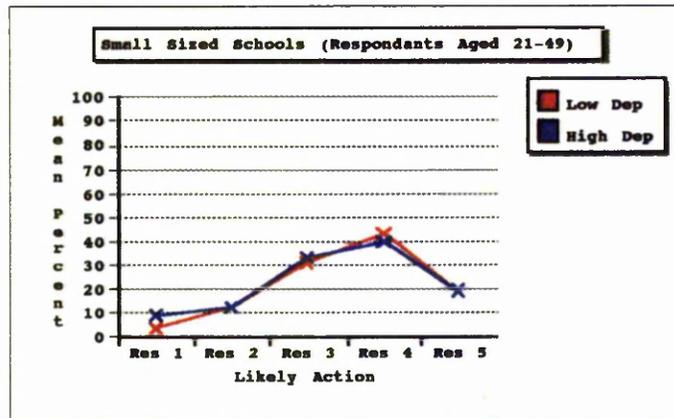
In large sized schools of low deprivation, almost 60% of female respondents would stop the lesson to deal with manipulative behaviour, with 40% of males doing similar.

These findings would suggest that gender is an issue in terms of the respondents observation of the frequency of occurrence of manipulative behaviour. Although male and female teachers in these categories would, in general, make a similar response when encountering such behaviour, it would appear that males encounter manipulative behaviour more often than females in small and medium sized schools, furthermore this is likely to be the case in schools of high deprivation status.

This issue of gender will be expanded in the next chapter where further information will give insight into its relationship with pupil behaviour.

10.9 ANALYSIS OF RESPONDENTS LIKELY ACTION TO MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOUR CONSIDERING : SIZE OF SCHOOL, DEPRIVATION STATUS, AND AGE OF RESPONDENT

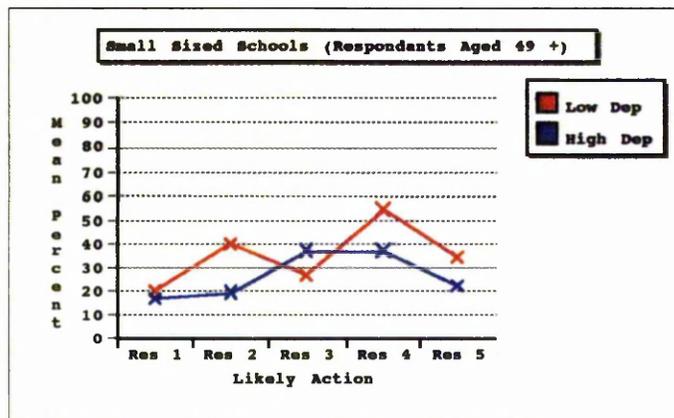
Figure 10.19
Likely Action of Teachers Aged 21 - 49 in Small Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 30 High Dep N = 19

Figure 10.19 shows a similar pattern of likely response to manipulative behaviour between teachers aged 21 - 49 years in small sized schools of both high and low deprivation status. 40% stated they would stop the teaching process to deal with the difficulty.

Figure 10.20
Likely Action of Teachers Aged 49 + in Small Sized Schools

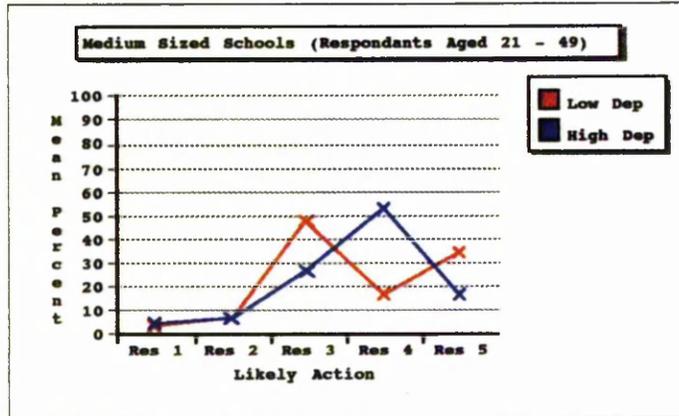


Low Dep N = 5 High Dep N = 6

Figure 10.20 suggests that 55% of teachers aged 49 +

years in **small** sized schools of **high** deprivation are likely to interrupt the class lesson compared to 35% of those in low deprivation status schools.

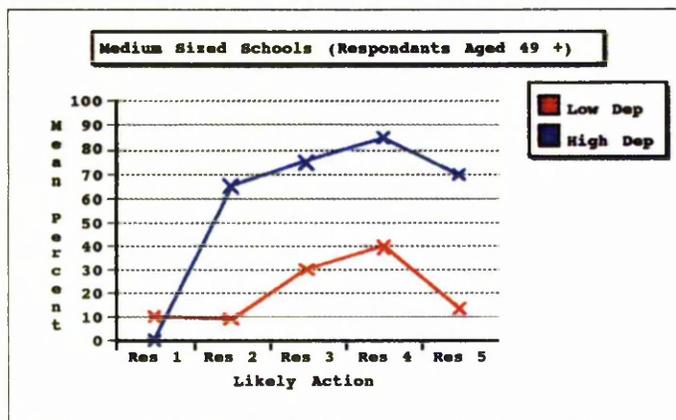
Figure 10.21
Likely Action of Teachers Aged 21 - 49 in Medium Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 128 High Dep N = 41

Figure 10.21 shows the likely response to manipulative behaviour between teachers aged 21 - 49 years in **medium** sized schools. Between 15% - 55% of those in schools of **high** deprivation would stop the lesson compared to 15% - 35% in schools of **low** deprivation.

Figure 10.22
Likely Action of Teachers Aged 49 + in Medium Sized Schools

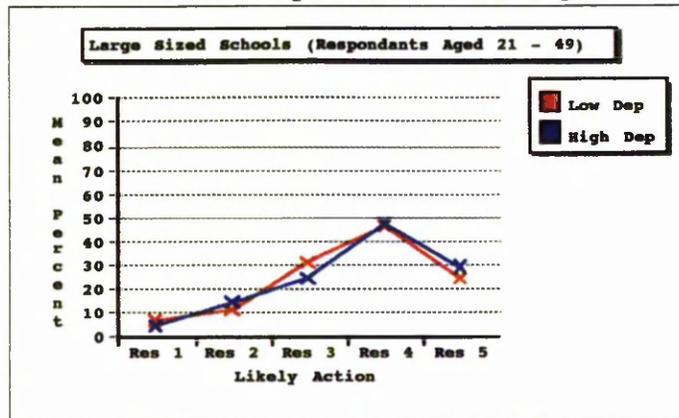


Low Dep N = 50 High Dep N = 2

Figure 10.22 shows the difference of likely response of

teachers aged 49 + in **medium** sized schools. Between 70% - 85% of those in schools of **high** deprivation would stop the lesson, compared to between 12% and 38% in schools of **low** deprivation.

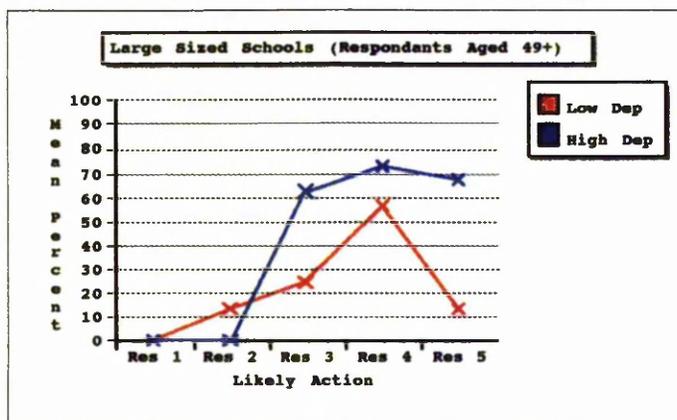
Figure 10.23
Likely Action of Teachers Aged 21 - 49 in Large Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 14 High Dep N = 34

Figure 10.23 suggests that respondents aged 21 - 49 years in **large** sized schools of both **high** and **low** deprivation would take very similar actions in terms of manipulative behaviour

Figure 10.24
Likely Action of Teachers Aged 49 + in Large Sized Schools



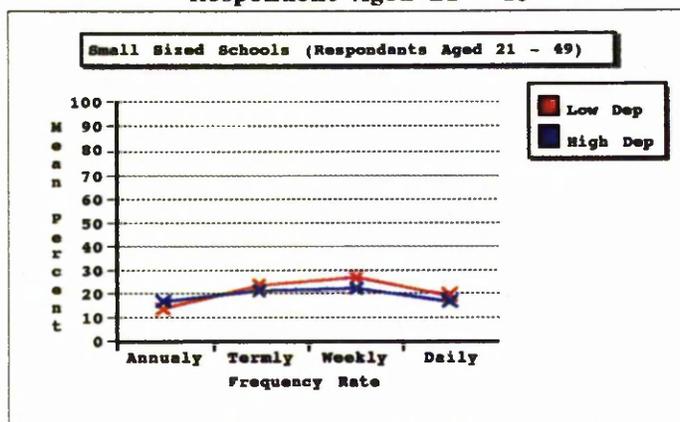
Low Dep N = 8 High Dep N = 3

Figure 10.24 illustrates the likely response that

respondents aged 49 + years in **large** sized schools would make. Between 68% and 73% in schools of high deprivation would stop the lesson compared to between 12% and 57% in schools of low deprivation.

10.10 ANALYSIS OF FREQUENCY OF MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOUR CONSIDERING : SIZE OF SCHOOL, DEPRIVATION STATUS, AND AGE OF RESPONDENT

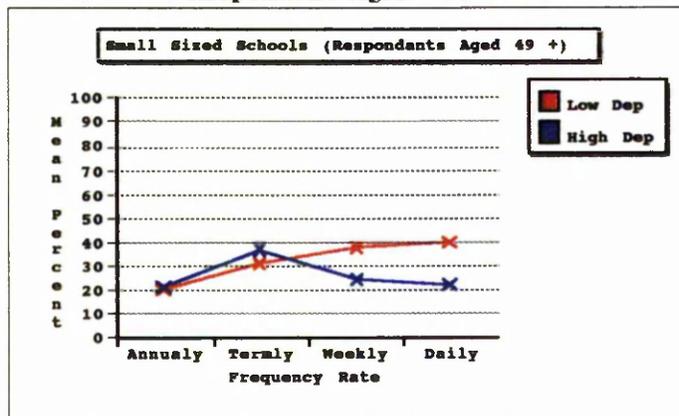
Figure 10.25
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools
Respondent Aged 21 - 49



Low Dep N = 30 High Dep N = 19

Figure 10.25 shows that respondents aged 21 - 49 years, in **small** sized schools of **high** and **low** deprivation experience such behaviour at a similar rate, and it occurs most often on a weekly basis.

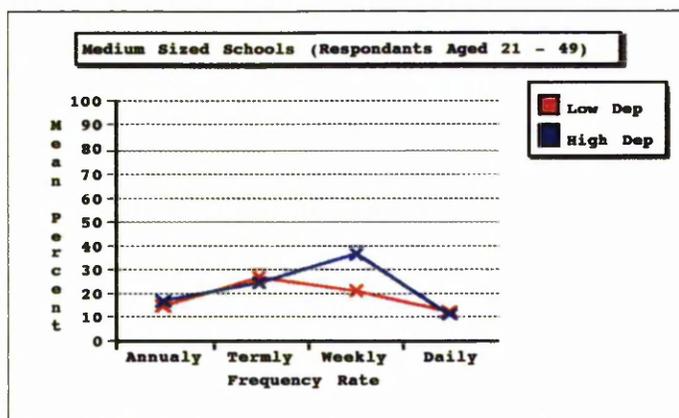
Figure 10.26
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools
Respondent Aged 49 +



Low Dep N = 12 High Dep N = 18

Figure 10.26 shows that respondents aged 49 + years in **small** sized schools experience such behaviour more often in schools of **low** deprivation and it occurs most often on a daily basis.

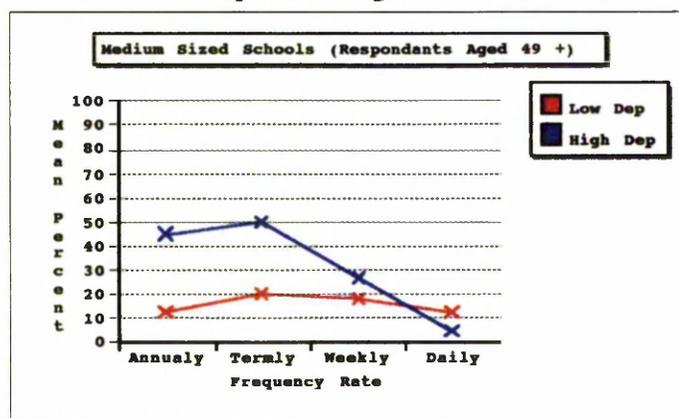
Figure 10.27
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools
Respondent Aged 21 - 49



Low Dep N = 128 High Dep N = 41

Figure 10.27 shows that respondents in **medium** sized schools, aged 21- 49 years experience this behaviour most frequently on a weekly basis in schools of **high** deprivation.

Figure 10.28
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools
Respondent Aged 49 +

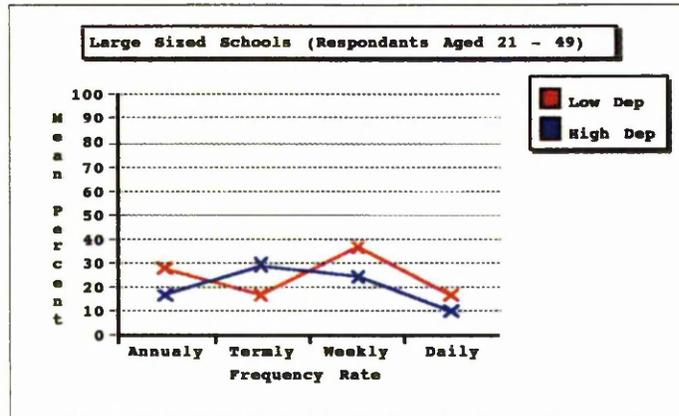


Low Dep N = 50 High Dep N = 2

Figure 10.28 shows that respondents in **medium** sized

schools, aged 49 + years experience this behaviour most frequently on a termly basis in schools of **high** deprivation.

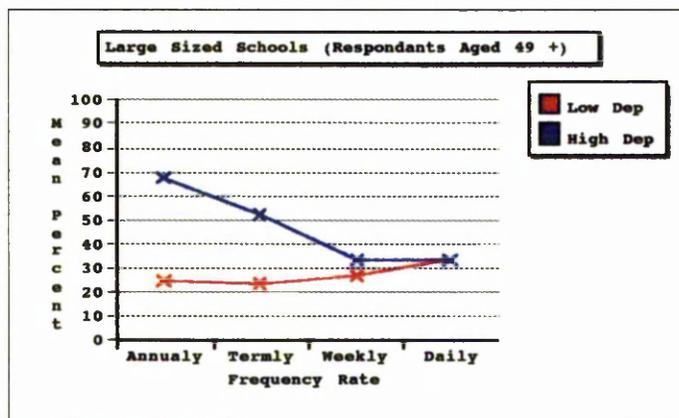
Figure 10.29
Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools
Respondent Aged 21 - 49



Low Dep N = 14 High Dep N = 34

Figure 10.29 shows that respondents in **large** sized schools, aged 21 - 49 years experience this behaviour most frequently on a weekly basis in schools of **low** deprivation.

Figure 10.30
Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools
Respondent Aged 49 +



Low Dep N = 8 High Dep N = 3

Figure 10.30 shows that respondents in **large** sized schools, aged 49 + years, experience this behaviour more

frequently in schools of **high** deprivation.

10.11 SUMMARY (3)

The data in Figures 10.25 - 10.30 illustrates that manipulative behaviour is more likely to be experienced by :

- ◆ respondents aged **49 +** years in **small** sized **low** deprivation schools.
- ◆ respondents aged **49 +** years in **medium** sized **high** deprivation schools.
- ◆ respondents aged **49 +** years in **large** sized **high** deprivation schools.

If this information is viewed **within** the context of the likely action taken by a respondent as illustrated in Figures 10.19 - 10.24, it appears that respondents aged **49 +** years would be more likely to stop lessons if such behaviour is encountered, in particular in **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation, and in **large** sized schools of **high** deprivation.

These Figures describe a situation where respondents aged **49 +** years state that they encounter manipulative behaviour more often than respondents aged **21 - 49** years. Furthermore, they would also be more likely to stop the teaching process to address the problem when it arises.

Age is clearly an issue in terms of experiencing this type of behaviour and in the way such behaviour would be dealt with. This poses the question of why should older

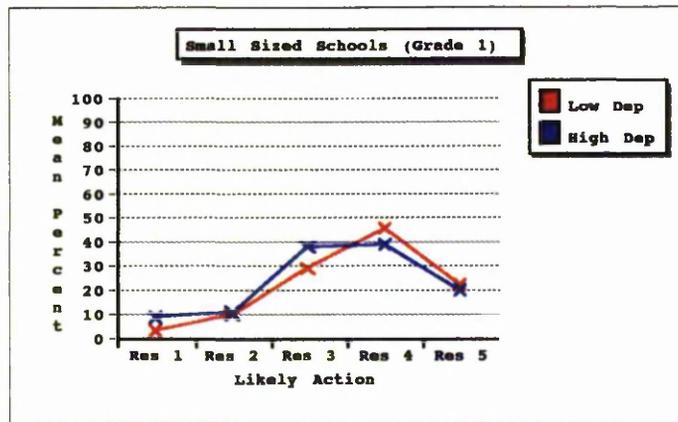
teachers who have a wealth of teaching experience and maturity be subjected to this behaviour by pupils. The answer may possibly lie in the school environment which the teaching profession claims to be exposed to at the present time, and the increase in daily stress which teachers express concern over has been well documented. Indeed the exodus of people from teaching intensifies each year with the average age seeking early retirement becoming lower and lower.

It is likely that mature individuals consider they have made their contribution to a profession which they feel is changing beyond recognition, and that the behaviour problems they now face are a product of such changes. The method of dealing with these problems is simply one of passing the responsibility to those in higher authority.

The outcome of such a strategy is fairly predictable. Pupils realise that the response to their inappropriate behaviour is several steps away from the person it is directed at, and they are given little reason to moderate their actions. As with the other issues being discussed, these factors will be expanded further in the next chapter.

10.12 ANALYSIS OF RESPONDENTS LIKELY ACTION TO MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOUR CONSIDERING : SIZE OF SCHOOL, DEPRIVATION STATUS, AND GRADE OF RESPONDENT

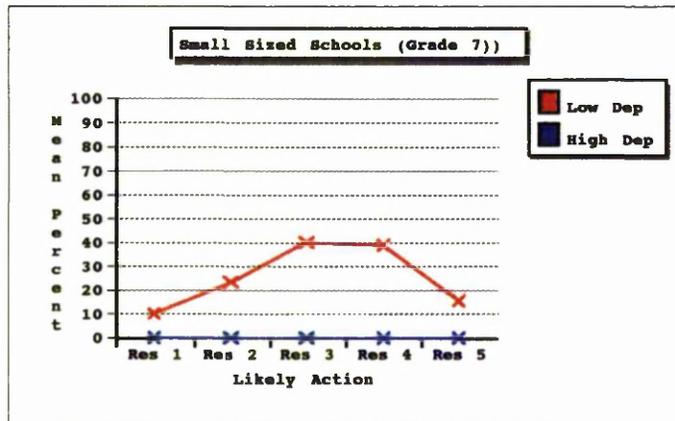
Figure 10.31
Likely Action of Grade 1 Teachers in Small Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 25 High Dep N = 24

Figure 10.31 shows that respondents in **Grade 1** in **small sized schools** of both **high** and **low** deprivation would take very similar actions in terms of manipulative behaviour with 40% - 50% stopping the lesson.

Figure 10.32
Likely Action of Grade 7 Teachers in Small Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 10 High Dep N = 1

Figure 10.32 shows that there were no respondents **Grade 7** in **small sized high** deprivation schools and 40% of those

in low deprivation schools would stop the lesson.

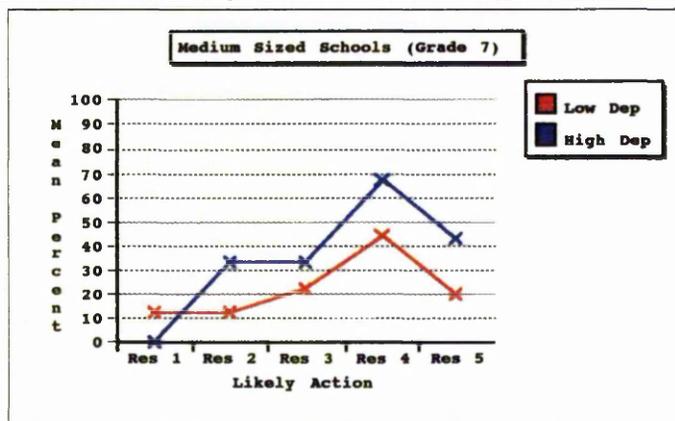
Figure 10.33
Likely Action of Grade 1 Teachers in Medium Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 161 High Dep N = 40

Figure 10.33 shows that 50% of **Grade 1** respondents in **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation and 42% in **low** deprivation schools would stop the lesson to deal with this behaviour.

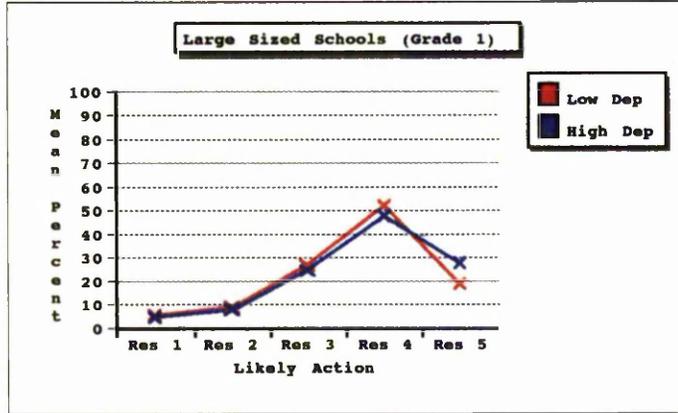
Figure 10.34
Likely Action of Grade 7 Teachers in Medium Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 17 High Dep N = 3

Figure 10.34 shows that 70 % of **Grade 7** respondents in **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation would stop the lesson, and 43% in **low** deprivation would stop the lesson.

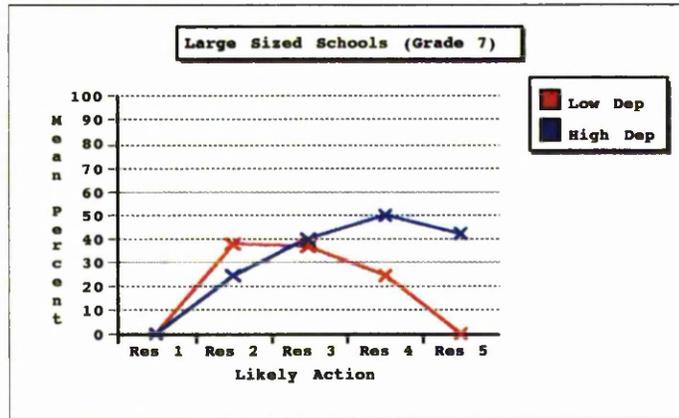
Figure 10.35
Likely Action of Grade 1 Teachers in Large Sized Schools



Low Dep N = 18 High Dep N = 33

Figure 10.35 shows that 50% of **Grade 1** teachers in **large** sized schools of **high** and **low** deprivation would stop the lesson.

Figure 10.36
Likely Action of Grade 7 Teachers in Large Sized Schools

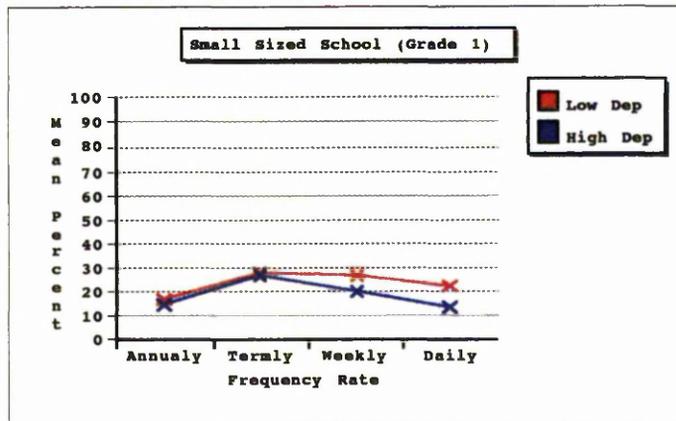


Low Dep N = 4 High Dep N = 4

Figure 10.36 shows that 50% of **Grade 7** respondents in **large** sized schools of **high** deprivation would stop the lesson, compared with 25% in **low** deprivation schools taking such action.

10.13 ANALYSIS OF FREQUENCY OF MANIPULATIVE BEHAVIOUR CONSIDERING : SIZE OF SCHOOL, DEPRIVATION STATUS, AND GRADE OF RESPONDENT

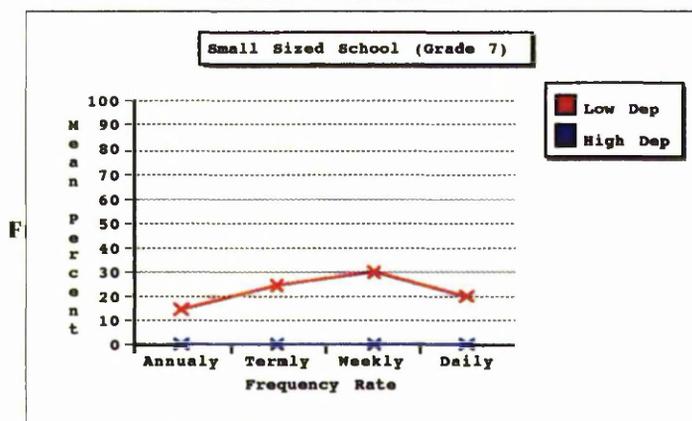
Figure 10.37
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools
Grade 1 Teachers



Low Dep N = 25 High Dep N = 24

Figure 10.37 shows that **Grade 1** respondents in **small** sized schools of **low** deprivation are more likely to experience manipulative behaviour than those in schools of **high** deprivation.

Figure 10.38
Frequency of Behaviour in Small Sized Schools
Grade 7 Teachers

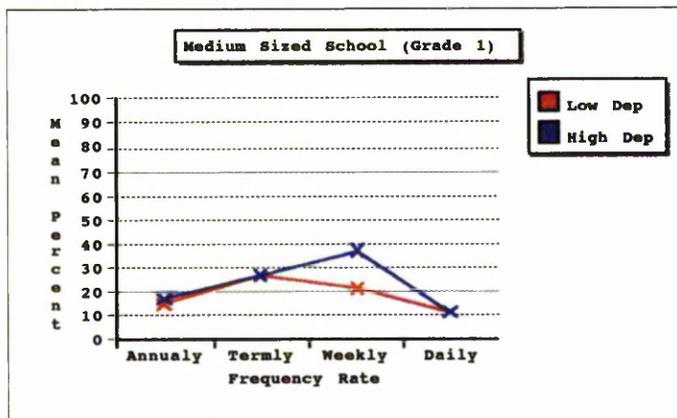


Low Dep N = 10 High Dep N = 1

Figure 10.38 shows that in **small** sized schools of **high**

deprivation there were no **Grade 7** respondents, and 30% of those in schools of **low** deprivation schools experience this behaviour on a **weekly** basis.

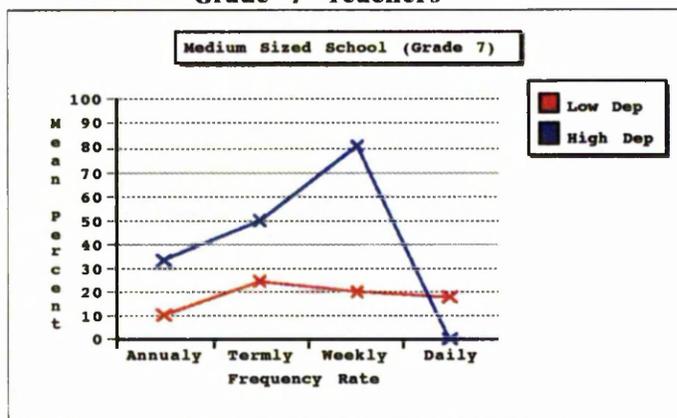
Figure 10.39
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools
Grade 1 Teachers



Low Dep N = 161 High Dep N = 40

Figure 10.39 shows that **Grade 1** respondents in **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation are more likely to experience manipulative behaviour than those in schools of **low** deprivation.

Figure 10.40
Frequency of Behaviour in Medium Sized Schools
Grade 7 Teachers

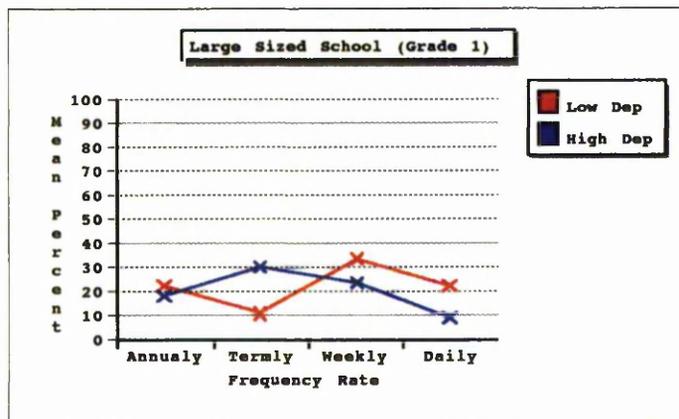


Low Dep N = 17 High Dep N = 3

Figure 10.40 shows that **Grade 7** respondents in **medium**

sized schools of **high** deprivation are more likely to experience manipulative behaviour than those in schools of **low** deprivation, with the exception of a daily basis where it is met by 20% in **low** deprivation schools, and 2% in **high** deprivation schools.

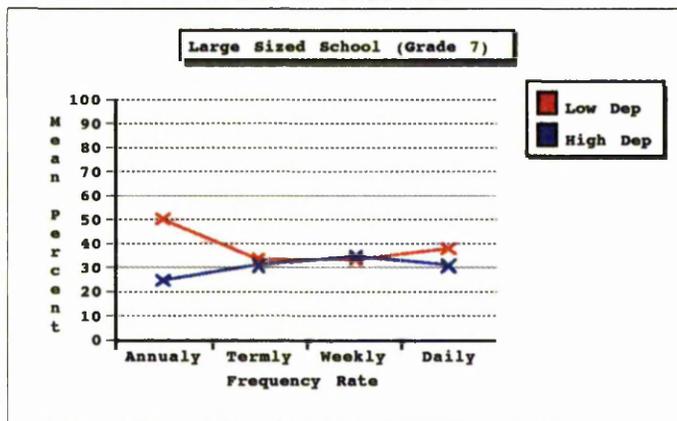
Figure 10.41
Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools
Grade 1 Teachers



Low Dep N = 18 High Dep N = 33

Figure 10.41 shows that **Grade 1** respondents in **large** sized schools of **low** deprivation are more likely to experience manipulative behaviour on a weekly and daily basis than those in schools of **high** deprivation.

Figure 10.42
Frequency of Behaviour in Large Sized Schools
Grade 7 Teachers



Low Dep N = 4 High Dep N = 4

Figure 10.42 show that **Grade 7** respondents in **large** sized schools of **low** deprivation are slightly more likely to encounter such behaviour than those in similar sized schools of high deprivation.

10.14 SUMMARY (4)

The data in Figure 10.38 - 10.42 suggest that manipulative behaviour is more likely to be experienced by :

- ◆ **Grade 1** respondents in **small** sized schools of **high** deprivation.
- ◆ **Grade 1** respondents in **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation.
- ◆ **Grade 7** respondents in **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation.
- ◆ **Grade 1** respondents in **large** sized schools of **low** deprivation.
- ◆ **Grade 7** respondents in **large** sized schools of **low** deprivation.

Figures 10.35 - 10.37 describe a situation where **Grade 1** and **Grade 7** respondents state that they are more likely to encounter manipulative behaviour in **small** and **medium** sized schools of **high** deprivation status, and in **large** sized schools of **low** deprivation status.

If this information is viewed within the context of the likely action taken by a respondent as illustrated in Figures 10.32 - 10.35, it appears that **Grade 1** respondents, in small, medium, and large sized schools, of

both **high** and **low** deprivation status, would stop the teaching process on an equal basis to address the problem. **Grade 7** respondents of **medium** and **large** sized schools of **high** deprivation status are more likely to stop the lesson than those in schools of low deprivation status.

This section has identified that unpromoted teachers in schools regardless of size or deprivation status would adopt the same tactics when presented with manipulative behaviour. In **high** deprivation, **medium** and **large** sized schools, the promoted staff would take similar actions.

The next chapter will develop this feature by drawing on other information. This will provide a clearer understanding of the factors at play here and allow a more informed analysis to take place.

CHAPTER 11

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENERAL / SCHOOL ETHOS QUESTIONS AND GENDER, AGE AND GRADE OF POST

11.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 10 examined the relationship between teachers' responses to pupils' manipulative behaviour by gender, age and grade of post, in terms of size and deprivation status of school.

A number of factors appeared which have been briefly discussed in terms of possible cause, for example the incidence of pupils' manipulative behaviour appears to be related to the size of school and to the deprivation status of the school.

Gender, age and grade of post of the teacher also influence the frequency and the method of dealing with disruptive behaviour.

These relationships were further explored in terms of the teachers answers to the second section of the questionnaire (questions 51 - 65) concerning general questions about education and school ethos. To establish any link between such relationships and these questions, crosstabulation tables were constructed to determine the existence of any statistical association.

As in previous data analysis, a command file was created to isolate the various components in addition, further statistical commands were included thus creating a 5 x 2 table which allows a Chi sq value to be calculated. The following sections detail the items shown to be statistically significant.

11.2 SIGNIFICANT ITEMS

Table 11.1
Analysis of Teacher Response in terms of
Gender, Grade of Post and Age.

Q53 Much of the pupil's behaviour can be attributed to the home situation				
GENDER	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	16	* *
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour				
GENDER	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	15.93	* *
Q62 The climate of your school supports innovation in teaching and curricula				
GENDER	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	25.42	* *
Q61 The climate of your school is rewarding to pupils				
GENDER	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	13.14	*
Q65 The climate of your school is controlled yet relaxed				
GENDER	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	13.107	*
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour				
GENDER	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	13.06	* *
Q58 The stress factor present in every day teaching has increased in recent years because disruptive behaviour has increased				
GENDER	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	10.47	*
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour				
GENDER	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	11.71	*
Q58 The stress factor present in every day teaching has increased in recent years because disruptive behaviour has increased				
GENDER	Large Low Dep	Chi Square	10.47	*
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour				
GENDER	Large Low Dep	Chi Square	10.9	*
Q63 The climate of your school favours staff development				
GENDER	Large Low Dep	Chi Square	9.67	*
Q54 Pupils who exhibit behaviour which is a cause for concern take up the teacher's time to the detriment of those pupil who do not				
GENDER	Large High Dep	Chi Square	6.78	*
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour				
GENDER	Large High Dep	Chi Square	11.88	* *
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour				
GENDER	Large High Dep	Chi Square	13.63	*
Q55 Such pupils would have had a greater chance of succeeding at secondary if their primary had alerted the new school of the pupil's difficulties				
GRADE OF POST	Small Low Dep	Chi Square	9.43	*
Q61 The climate of your school is rewarding to pupils				
GRADE OF POST	Small Low Dep	Chi Square	9.104	*

**Table 11.1
(Continued)**

Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour					
GRADE OF POST	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	14.86		* *
Q56 Teacher training colleges do not adequately prepare teachers to cope with behaviour which is a cause for concern					
GRADE OF POST	Large Low Dep	Chi Square	10.68		* *
Q56 Teacher training colleges do not adequately prepare teachers to cope with behaviour which is a cause for concern					
GRADE OF POST	Large High Dep	Chi Square	15.22		* *
Q55 Such pupils would have had a greater chance of succeeding at secondary if their primary had alerted the new school of the pupil;s difficulties					
GRADE OF POST	Large High Dep	Chi Square	11.236		*
Q62 The climate of your school supports innovation in teaching and curricula of disruptive behaviour					
AGE	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	15.7		* *
Q56 Teacher training colleges do not adequately prepare teachers to cope with behaviour which is a cause for concern					
AGE	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	15.12		* *
Q62 The climate of your school supports innovation in teaching and curricula of disruptive behaviour					
AGE	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	15.7		* *
Q60 Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour					
AGE	Medium Low Dep	Chi Square	15.12		* *
Q51 Behaviour which merits concern in secondary schools is on the increase					
AGE	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	15.94		* *
Q52 School psychologists could help reduce the incidence of such behaviour					
AGE	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	27.96		* *
Q53 Much of the pupil's behaviour can be attributed to the home situation					
AGE	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	22.18		* *
Q55 Such pupils would have had a greater chance of succeeding at secondary if their primary had alerted the new school of the pupil;s difficulties					
AGE	Medium High Dep	Chi Square	15.94		*
Key : 0.05 > p > 0.01 *					
Key : 0.01 > p **					

The items included in Table 11.1 illustrate those which were significant. When the crosstab tables for these items were examined in detail, a number of interesting observations were made.

Gender : when gender was considered in relation to these questions, the 14 items listed showed that of those respondents who strongly agreed with such statements, in every case almost 50% more females than males supported this point of view. The majority of the items were from medium and large sized schools of high and low deprivation status.

Grade of post : when a teacher's position in the school was considered, 6 items were shown to be significant. In general, there was a marked disagreement between promoted and unpromoted staff with unpromoted teachers indicating that they strongly agreed with statements far more so than promoted staff in similar settings.

Age : when age was considered, 8 items were shown to be highly significant and all occurred in medium sized schools of low and high deprivation status.

In low deprivation status schools teachers aged 49 years + "strongly agreed" with the statements much more so than those aged 21 - 49 years.

In schools of high deprivation this was not the case with no respondent age 49 years + strongly agreeing with the statements. In marked contrast to this, between 12% and 68% of those aged 21 - 49 years supported this view.

11.3 CONCLUSIONS

Tables 11.1 illustrates the statistically significant responses to the second question of the questionnaire. Gender is clearly an important issue. In all cases, female respondents, regardless of school size or deprivation

status, have taken a different stance from their male colleagues. The position held in a school produced interesting variations with a marked disagreement between promoted and unpromoted staff noticeable. For those highly significant items, school size influenced this difference to some extent, but in general unpromoted staff favoured the opinion "strongly agree" much more so than promoted staff. When the age of a respondent was taken in to consideration, responses varied according to size of school and deprivation status, but in general, teachers aged 21 - 49 years in high deprivation schools strongly agreed more so than teachers aged 49+ years.

This chapter has shown there are obvious divisions of opinion concerning attitudes towards school ethos and the education system in general. The factors outlined in this section suggest serious implications for whole school practice in providing an environment for pupils and staff that is rewarding academically and socially. The final chapter of this thesis will attempt to address some of the issues and offer possible practical methods or approaches which schools could embrace to tackle the problem of supporting pupils who exhibit behaviour which is a cause for concern.

CHAPTER 12

DISCUSSION

12.1 THE AIMS REVISITED

The main aim of this study was to explore the network of relationships between types of pupil behaviour, school size and social deprivation in the context of primary and secondary schools in Strathclyde Region. The purpose of the study was to establish the frequency of behaviour deemed problematic, and the likely response of a teacher when this behaviour is encountered.

In the first instance, a working definition of the term “maladjustment” (the name commonly used to describe behaviour outwith the norm) was established. Underwood’s six basic types of disorder were endorsed and although criticised by others (to some extent justifiably), his overview of the problem is recognised as being of practical value, (Warnock,DES 1978).

The extent of maladjustment is widely documented and the implications of a number of studies were considered, each of which suggested possible percentages of girls and boys per head of population surveyed who exhibited behaviour which was maladjusted. Key studies in this respect were carried out by Underwood and Rutter and in addition to detailing the extent of the problem, a clearly established link between maladjustment and social class was identified, though the detailed nature of the causal link not fully understood

Such studies helped to focus local authority attitude, and

enhance teacher awareness of difficult behaviour. Of importance to this thesis is the subsequent development of educational provision to cater for maladjusted pupils. It is recognised that such behaviour covers a wide range of behaviours, from aggressive and acting out, to introverted and withdrawn. Of equal concern was the evidence that the majority of such pupils underachieve in relation to their educational potential. School systems have had to recognise therefore that such pupils could have a deficit in two respects, i.e. social and emotional and a lowered academic performance.

Given the statistics outlined in previous chapters, the frequency of occurrence of behaviour which is a cause for concern is clearly at a level which not only affects the education of the individual concerned, but also has the potential to have an adverse influence in the overall school environment, both within the classroom, and outwith.

This final chapter will examine some of the possible reasons behind teacher responses and teacher opinions in relation to this area of growing concern within the teaching profession. It will conclude with some recommendations which could assist schools in supporting pupils who have social and emotional needs. In particular, reference will be made to the “hidden curriculum” which contributes to school ethos.

12.2 INITIAL DATA ANALYSIS

The accumulated data generated a frequency count of the responses of all the questionnaire items. Of the 5 categories of behaviour, levels of teacher concern varied considerably. For example when faced with aggressive behaviour, the likely

action taken by the vast majority of teachers would be to stop the lesson. This response is only to be expected. For the educational process to continue, discipline and order within the classroom must be maintained. There are levels and types of behaviour which are more, or less, unacceptable. Aggressive behaviour however, stands alone in requiring an immediate response to prevent a situation deteriorating further.

Regardless of what point the lesson is at, and regardless of pupil involvement and cooperation, all must stop until it is resolved. Although the safety of the other pupils could be at risk, the main issue is that the status and credibility of the teacher is being challenged. When faced with aggressive behaviour, the likelihood of being able to work within the normal disciplinary system decreases in direct proportion to a pupil's inability to apply reason to the situation, and teachers must draw on their own personal reserves to manoeuvre successfully through the situation. The agreed consensus of order within the educational establishment, such as school rules, expected teacher/pupil relationship etc, fails to protect the teacher in these circumstances, and the wrong action here will have repercussions for future lessons and how that teacher is perceived not only by the pupils throughout the school, but also by colleagues. The pupils who were involved may or may not make up their differences at a later date, but the teacher will have no opportunity to reclaim lost status.

Only a very small number of teachers said that they encountered such behaviour on a daily basis. This is somewhat at odds with the frequently articulated claim from the teaching profession that classroom aggression is on the increase. Is it the case that as pressures related to work increase, be they the

demands of the Scottish Office Education Department, or Regional, Divisional, and school generated expectations, that perceptions of emotive events, (in this instance aggressive behaviour) may be skewed and that the actual occurrence of violence is still relatively small. Whatever the reason, those teachers who responded to this study have stated clearly that they do not meet aggressive behaviour on a regular basis. They are equally sure however, what action they would take should they encounter it.

When faced with introverted behaviour, the majority of teachers stated that they would stop the lesson, however this was significantly less than their response to aggressive behaviour. Thus a major attitudinal difference amongst teachers is highlighted. A pupil may appear isolated from peers, withdrawn and uncommunicative, indeed may be deeply distressed but teachers are less likely to stop the lesson to deal with this. The teachers' perspective is that there are more options available; they can consult others, take advice, counsel the pupil but most important of all, there is no sense in which teachers feel that the response has to be immediate. In essence, the lesson is not being disrupted therefore the matter can wait. A situation exists therefore, where a pupil's learning is being adversely affected and although noticed by the teacher, is not treated with the same degree of urgency that aggressive behaviour would be. The data accumulated from this questionnaire suggests that teacher response to problem behaviour is determined by the extent to which it may affect the teacher personally. Teacher response therefore is not necessarily driven by concern for pupils.

The survey invited teachers to comment on the occurrence of physical symptoms or destructive behaviour and whilst a significant number of teachers stated they would take action to stop the lesson, such behaviour actually occurred very rarely, and further investigation would be outwith the scope of this study.

Manipulative behaviour, whilst slightly less likely to stop the lesson compared with aggressive behaviour, was encountered by a significant number of teachers on a daily basis. This category of behaviour stands alone for a number of reasons both with regard to how teachers may respond and to the frequency with which it occurs. Manipulative behaviour presents a major problem to class teachers, largely because of its invisible and intangible nature. For example, a pupil shows aggression or introversion through some personal physical demonstration. Such actions are central to the category of behaviour itself, they either display it or they do not. Physical symptoms and destructive behaviour are also usually visually apparent. Manipulative behaviour however, may run in parallel with the lesson without being obvious. The methods employed by pupils such as trying to divert the teacher's attention from the class lesson (Questionnaire item No. 50), or constantly seeking help when they could manage on their own (Questionnaire item No. 45), are designed to disrupt the work taking place in an indirect manner. An important feature of manipulative behaviour is that it does not usually come about by mere chance, or through external stimuli such as those which may produce the other behaviour types, it is more likely to be brought into the class setting in a premeditated manner. This makes it very hard for the teacher to deal with and the

situation may escalate to the point at which the lesson has to be stopped without the teacher being fully aware of what is taking place. Aggressive or destructive behaviour require early intervention, but manipulative behaviour has to be prevented from the onset, yet because of its very nature, is difficult to pre-empt

Having identified manipulative behaviour as a key area of concern, the second stage of analysis examined in detail the role played by interrelated factors in shaping responses to pupils who display this type of behaviour.

12.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF DETAILED ANALYSIS

Teachers' likely responses to pupils who exhibit manipulative behaviour were analysed in relation to school size and school deprivation status with the frequency of such behaviour also being established. These factors were further examined in relation to the gender, age and grade of post of respondent.

Statistical evidence indicated that the levels of manipulative behaviour reported were highest in schools of low deprivation status, both small and large sized, and in schools of high deprivation status which were of medium size. Possible reasons for this have already been suggested in that staffing compliments are likely to influence the occurrence of types of behaviour and that there may be a cut off point in terms of school effectiveness in relation to school roll and the number of teachers on the staff. In brief, high deprivation schools have a more favourable teacher : pupil ratio due to Strathclyde regional Council's Social Strategy, and a higher number of pupils who may have Records of Needs, (i.e. identified as requiring a

specialised input) which also merits additional visiting teacher input. It is in the medium sized schools of high deprivation that staffing is stretched to its limit .

In schools of medium size, the teacher : pupil ratio differential between high or low deprivation schools does not compensate adequately for many of the problems created by deprivation and such circumstances foster manipulative behaviour. In large sized schools, an exceptionally well defined system of support strategies which address pupil difficulties is required. The staffing complement and the pastoral role of the schools also take on added importance. Although it is recognised that such systems should exist in all schools, they have additional significance in large sized schools in that if the pastoral elements of school life are not supported and developed, school ethos suffers alarmingly.

Medium sized /high deprivation status schools have featured repeatedly throughout the observations of the previous chapters as being likely to generate most pupil problems. This is now developed in more detail taking into consideration the other variables of “gender”, “age” and “grade of post”.

Gender:

When the variable “gender” was used as an isolating factor, it was established that those teachers most likely to experience manipulative behaviour were males in small and medium sized schools of high deprivation status. In large, low deprivation schools, male and female teachers were equally likely to encounter it. Male and female teachers would take similar actions when faced with this behaviour, regardless of school

size and deprivation status. Male teachers state quite clearly that they experience manipulative behaviour more often than females and a number of questions are raised. Do females see the situation developing at a very early stage and deal with it instantly, do pupils feel that males are more of a “fair” target than females and direct their energies towards them. Such suggestions are difficult to establish, but what can be said is that males are experiencing a problem in particular schools, and that an understanding of the influence gender may have in dealing with behaviour which is a cause for concern should be explored in terms of developing whole school strategies to deal effectively with such behaviour.

Age:

When the variable “age” was used as an isolating factor, older teachers (aged 49 years plus), were most likely to experience manipulative behaviour. It was evident that this is most likely to be the case in small, low deprivation schools, and in medium and large high deprivation schools. These were also the teachers who would be most likely to stop the lesson when faced with manipulative behaviour. There are a number of topical theories related to age and experiencing difficult and demanding behaviour. These theories usually cite “case” studies of teachers who long for retirement and for whom teaching is a changed occupation from that which they entered a number of years ago. In exploring teacher attitude to contemporary education Reid (1986) includes comments such as :

“I’m retiring next year. Looking back, I wish I’d gone earlier. Teaching is not what it used to be. Morale is appalling, standards are very low and discipline has

become a dirty word. Today, I'm looked on as a kind of old fashioned fuddy-duddy. Thirty years ago my outlook was the norm." (1)

Such statements are common occurrences in the staff rooms of most schools. Within the teaching profession, the talk of early retirement, packages with enhanced pension rights etc is generally attributed to changes in work load and unacceptable attitudes towards teachers from the pupil population. Those who are older are treated by pupils in a different fashion from their younger colleagues. Is this because they are less tolerant, having "seen it all before" and see little sense in trying to understand it, thus encouraging a response of stopping the lesson sooner rather than later. It would not be unreasonable to expect that teaching experience, coupled with maturity, would also give a greater understanding of pupil difficulties and that older teachers should have a very wide personal repertoire to deal with such behaviour. It would be useful for a future study to separate the promoted older teachers, and the unpromoted older teachers for analysis. This would perhaps isolate the "jaded" teacher factor more clearly. Whatever the underlying cause, this study indicates that age can certainly be used to predict likely teacher response to pupil behaviour.

Grade of post:

When the variable "grade of post" was used as an isolating factor, comparisons were being made between promoted and unpromoted staff. Manipulative behaviour is more likely to be encountered by unpromoted teachers in small, low deprivation schools. Promoted staff are more likely to encounter it in medium, high deprivation schools and compared to all others

they would also be more likely to stop the lesson.

The factors of school size and deprivation status are once again indicated. Where teacher control is challenged in these middle sized schools of high deprivation, referrals to other colleagues increases accordingly.

12.4 MAIN FINDINGS OF GENERAL / ETHOS QUESTIONS

In this section of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to consider topical educational issues and the school system within which they operate. As in the previous section, this is considered in terms of “gender”, “age” and “grade of post”.

Gender:

Gender was clearly indicated as an important variable. In all responses there was a stark difference between the reported experiences of males and females. Female teachers, regardless of school size or deprivation status, took a different stance from their male colleagues.

This should be considered within the context of the information from the first section of the questionnaire, where it was established that males experience manipulative behaviour significantly more frequently than females. The question is raised of the link between teacher attitude and a type of behaviour which is directed towards a particular gender.

The following illustrates this point. When asked to respond to the statement “Pupils who exhibit behaviour which is a cause for concern take up the teacher’s time to the detriment

of those pupils who do not “, (Questionnaire item No. 54), females ‘strongly agreed’ significantly more so than males. This was also the case for a number of other questions such as the statement “The climate of your school is controlled yet relaxed” (Questionnaire item No. 65). The issue here is that females appear to respond more positively to behaviour which is a cause for concern, by strongly endorsing their own school’s approach to issues such as pupil support and staff development.

Males clearly experience a type of behaviour significantly more so than females, and they also do not appear to share the positive view of their school that their females colleagues have. This attitude is repeated throughout the responses to the other ethos questions.

Age:

When the age of a respondent was taken in to consideration, responses varied according to size of school and deprivation status, but in general, teachers aged 21 - 49 years in high deprivation schools strongly agreed with the statements made, far more so than did teachers aged 49 years plus.

There was a clear distinction between the experiences of younger and older teachers regardless of school size or deprivation status. Those over 49 years of age were more likely to experience manipulative behaviour. Again this poses the question. Do pupils feel they are more likely to get away with this behaviour with older teachers, or are older teachers, with the benefit of years of experience more

effective in identifying and responding to this behaviour?

As with gender, these differences are reinforced when the responses of teachers to questions in the second section of the questionnaire are contrasted with the above and the following issues emerged. All the significant responses recorded came from medium sized schools with a marked difference associated with deprivation status. In low deprivation schools, teachers of age 49 years plus strongly agreed with statements significantly more than did those aged 21 - 49 years. In high deprivation schools the opposite was the case with those aged 21 - 49 years in strong agreement. Clearly there is a significant difference of opinion amongst teachers which is related to the three variables of school size, school deprivation status and the age of the respondent. It is likely that the resulting inconsistent approach may contribute to an environment within which pupil exploitation can be nurtured, consequently promoting manipulative behaviour.

Grade of post:

The position held in a school illustrated a disagreement between promoted and unpromoted staff and a number of interesting variations were apparent. Those highly significant items which indicate strong agreement, such as the questionnaire item "Teacher training colleges do not adequately prepare teachers to cope with behaviour which is a cause for concern" (Q.56), only reflect the response from promoted and unpromoted staff in medium sized high deprivation schools, and large low deprivation schools and in this instance there was a

consensus of opinion.

There are a number of issues which are influencing factors. For example, are promoted staff more concerned with the general discipline of a school and less likely to ignore such behaviour. Members of the school management clearly have responsibilities that class teachers do not and are perhaps more likely to embrace school ethos. Does their response stem from having taken on ownership and responsibility for the institution in a way their unpromoted colleagues have not? There are also practical issues related to schools which can influence the involvement of teachers in the disciplinary process. In medium and large schools, it can be argued that the class teacher is likely to have a very full timetable and fuller class sizes approaching maximum, referring this behaviour to a promoted member of staff therefore, becomes the most obvious course of action. As a result, the total number of times a promoted member of staff becomes involved in these incidents would be high. In smaller schools, a class teacher could have more time to deal with behaviour difficulties and therefore the referral rate to promoted staff could be lower. It is also the case that in smaller schools, the staffing structure is such that there are less promoted staff who can offer assistance. Does this result in unpromoted staff having to develop coping strategies in the light of the available support? It is certainly the case that where grade of post is considered, there is no common thread running through all responses such as found in terms of gender. Instead the issues are related to specific sizes of schools and their deprivation status.

12.5 CONCLUSIONS

This study has established how often particular types of behaviour occur in primary and secondary schools and the most likely action a teacher would take when encountering such behaviour. Manipulative behaviour was identified as meriting more detailed analysis and this was pursued taking account of the variables of age, gender and grade of post of the teachers surveyed. These variables were considered within the parameters of school size and school deprivation status.

The studies referred to in the early chapters used tools such as the Bristol Social Adjustment Guide for analysis, and therefore **quantify** an area of concern. In relation to the nature of this problem however, this study attempts to be more **qualitative** by asking educational practitioners to comment on specific instances of behaviour, each of which varies from the norm of expected pupil behaviour. In other words to establish not merely the extent of pupil disturbance, but also clarify the actual behaviour which they may exhibit in school.

It has become evident that manipulative behaviour is an issue which must be addressed within schools, and that this is more urgent in certain types of schools, particularly those of medium size and high deprivation status.

The question of why particular types of behaviour should occur more or less often in different types of schools is central to this study. Behaviourist Theory states that all behaviour is learned and that behaviour is continued

depending on its effect on the environment. In the school situation, manipulative behaviour would either cease or continue as a response to the school environment.

Psychoanalytical theory suggests that schools require to provide an environment which reduces anxiety, if this is not done circumstances are created which reduces a pupils' ability to learn. The development of school systems which have been formed in response to pupil difficulties and which draw on such theories are well documented. They have followed a variety of approaches which, dependent on the degree of pupil problem experienced, fall somewhere on a continuum of provision which embraces mainstream classroom support to separate off site provision. A feature common to all is a modified curriculum which is taught in smaller than usual class groups.

One common criticism of these initiatives, many of which saw their beginnings in 60's and 70's developments related to problem behaviour, was the widespread assumption that external factors such as home background were the major influences on a pupil's development. This reinforced teacher attitudes that there was little they could do to effect change in pupil behaviour. As the provision of separate education was shown to have little effect on the problem, there was a gradual change to developing the resources available within the mainstream provision. This was forming the idea that change could be brought about and that schools do in fact matter. A number of studies making comparison between off site provision and mainstream schools supported this view and mostly came to the conclusion that change in pupil behaviour was not brought about by this type of

intervention. To paraphrase Galloway and Goodwin (1987), although various studies have shown that up to 20 per cent of pupils may have special educational needs at some time in their school careers, that does not say anything about where or how those needs should be met. Both the 1981 Education Act and Warnock suggest that for the most part such needs could be met in mainstream education.

McLean (1992) also states :

“More and more questions have been asked about the models upon which child centred supportive services are based. No difference has been found in the outcome of children “treated” compared to those not given any help.....This has implications for the support services work in the schools.” (2)

It is worthwhile remembering comments in previous chapters that schools have the capability to adapt to the diverse needs of a pupil population yet as Galloway and Goodwin observed, few teachers recognise their potential to influence a pupil’s academic progress and behaviour.

There is a single common point, both in terms of theoretical understanding, and in the practical application of such theories. It is now clearly recognised that a school is influential in terms of pupil behaviour, be it the application of behaviourist techniques to eradicate or develop certain behaviour, or the use of psychodynamic theory to nurture individuals. That is not to say however that schools are being effective. Looking at such theories in isolation merely

reinforces the concept that the source of difficulty lies in the pupil. The data provided by this research has illustrated that pupils are responding to different teachers in different ways, and that teacher response is largely influenced by the way that behaviour affects them directly. This chapter will conclude with an overview of the practical implications the findings of this thesis would suggest.

12.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

◆ Meeting the Needs of Pupils

If schools are to successfully meet the needs of pupils who are exhibiting behaviour which is a cause for concern, there are a number of issues which must be addressed. The content of the curriculum and the methods of curriculum delivery cannot be viewed in a vacuum and should therefore, be considered within the framework which these take place i.e. school ethos. The recent publication of McLean's research into factors which relate to promoting positive behaviour in schools deals with these issues thus:

“The overall functioning of the school as a social organisation affects pupil attendance, behaviour and attitude.....What and how much is learned obviously depends on both the curriculum and pedagogic skills used by the teachers. These are the essential elements in successful schooling but they are only allowed to have their optimal impact through the school ethos.” (3)

Put simply, if school ethos is poor, the needs of pupils are

less likely to be met successfully.

It is worthwhile remembering comments in previous chapters that schools have the capability to adapt to the diverse needs of a pupil population yet, as Galloway and Goodwin observed, few teachers recognise their potential to influence a pupil's academic progress and behaviour. Schools must clearly understand the diverse needs of their pupil population and take planned, long term measures to develop an ethos, particular to that school. The "quick fix" response to pupil difficulties, (often associated with behavioural difficulties) cannot solve issues which have developed over many years

◆ **School Type and its Influence on Behaviour**

What must be remembered is that particular types of schools are more likely to experience pupil behaviour problems. The difficulties associated with deprivation and size of school are clear and the authorities responsible for the long term strategic planning for these schools must take this into account when considering issues such as the financing of additional resources, be they material or personnel.

The current emphasis in education is to address the majority of pupil difficulties within mainstream provision. Strathclyde Region's statement "Every Child is Special, A Policy For All" (1992), states very clearly that pupils should be placed in the "least restrictive environment where their needs can be met." and that where units which meet particular needs are required,

“These will be attached to, and managed within, the overall framework of the mainstream establishments. In addition, they may offer consultancy support on an outreach basis to other schools.” (4)

This policy statement emphasises the need for whole school planning which takes account of individual pupil needs, and which builds support into their 5-14 development programme. It also recommends the use of support at regional and divisional level to assist such initiatives.

◆ **School Planning To Take Account of Pupil Needs**

Although this Regional statement is a particularly positive document and acknowledges that every child has individual learning needs, the differences of opinion amongst teachers which this research has established shows that whole school approaches, although possibly being adopted, are limited in their success. One probable cause could be a reluctance to recognise the importance of this type of staff development when other more formal core curricular initiatives are demanded at Divisional and Regional level.

This difficulty must be addressed by individual schools making it clear that the development of school ethos and caring classroom climate should be a systematically planned aspect of a school's life, and not left to an individual's reaction to a situation. In relation to this,

school management must realise that there are differences in teacher attitudes which are based on gender, age and grade of post, and that pupils adopt a different attitude to teachers based on that teacher's gender, age and grade of post. In terms of promoting effective attitude change amongst staff, the inservice training which is set aside to tackle the issue of reducing behaviour which is a cause for concern, would be more effective if it targeted the specific clusters of teachers identified according to the findings of this study.

◆ **School Policy to Classroom Practice**

The basic premise that every child has the right to an educational experience which is appropriate to their individual learning needs is accepted within our society. Policies are endlessly produced giving support to positive discrimination and non-segregation, the evidence of these policies in action however, is regularly called to question.

The school system must recognise that it is the responsibility of all teachers, the managers of schools, and in the first instance the teacher training system to actively implement such directives. At school level, Barr (1994) recognises some of the pitfalls related to effective policy planning for pupils with social and emotional difficulties and says :

“A policy is more than just a statement of principles and intent. It is also the mechanisms (even the detail of the mechanisms) that are set

up to convert these principles into practice.” (5).

Although pupils bring their own values and experiences to schools with them, schools must strive to be a rewarding and positive place which recognises that the whole child should be supported and helped, and growth and change nurtured within all individuals. There is little doubt that schools can also be a negative experience which fail to recognise the needs of the individual, and that the interaction taking place between teacher and pupil is a two way process.

In conclusion, schools must recognise that a good quality educational environment is unlikely to happen by chance and the transition from policy statements to classroom practice must occur within the process outlined above. Above all we must remind ourselves that from the pupil’s perspective,

Schools Do Make A Difference.

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PUPIL BEHAVIOUR IN SCHOOL

Throughout the last ten years, I have been working with pupils who have behaviour, and or learning difficulties. I am currently undertaking research at the University of Glasgow which focuses on behaviour difficulties, circumstances which encourage such behaviour, and teacher attitude towards pupils who may exhibit such behaviour. Your help is sought in this initial phase of the research and I would be indebted if you would complete this questionnaire. The information you provide will be treated as confidential and only used for the purpose of my research. I will make arrangements to uplift it from your school on

Thanking you in anticipation

D. McGorry

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

TYPE OF SCHOOL

Secondary

Primary

Special

Day

Residential

POSITION IN SCHOOL

Head Teacher

Ass. Head Teacher

Principle Teacher

Ass. Principle Teacher

Teacher

Years of Service in School

Total Years of Service

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following list of pupil behaviour traits may be regarded as disruptive either in the class or in other parts of the school and could occur in what would usually be described as a typical lesson. As an initial part of our investigation into disruptive behaviour, we are seeking your help in rating the seriousness of these behaviour traits. We are proposing 4 categories of seriousness for each trait. Please indicate by circling the number which you think best describes how you would respond to the behaviour if it occurred in you class/school. The description of each category is as follows.

1. Not particularly disruptive but requires minimal correction.
2. Fairly disruptive requiring correction at class level with minimum interruption to the lesson (where relevant).
3. Disruptive requiring individual correction within the classroom (where relevant).
4. Extremely disruptive necessitating immediate correction and referral to other personnel.

INSTANCES OF BEHAVIOUR

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Refusing to follow rest of class to door when dismissed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. Aggressive behaviour towards other pupils, punching, nipping etc. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. Shouting out. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Appendix 1

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|--|---------|
| 4. Being verbally abusive to peers. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 5. Being verbally abusive to teacher. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 6. Ring leading in order to undermine teacher. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 7. Making sexual advances to pupils of the
opposite sex. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 8. Making rude noises. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 9. Dropping books, pencils. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 10. Breaking pencils. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 11. Loosing rubbers. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 12. Attending without books, pencils, jotters
which are known to be a requirement of
the lesson. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 13. Swinging on chairs. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 14. Refusing to participate in class lessons. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 15. Trying to negotiate work e.g.
Teacher: "Do these 5 tasks".
Pupil: "I'll do 3 today and rest next time. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 16. Staring out of window. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 17. Retreating under table after teacher rebuke. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 18. Sucking thumb. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 19. Soiling. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 20. Talking in class. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 21. Eating in class. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 22. Running along corridors. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 23. Threatening violence towards peers. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 24. Threatening violence towards teacher. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 25. Destroying own work. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 26. Destroying other pupils' work. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 27. Destroying teacher's work. | 1 2 3 4 |

Appendix 1

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|--|---|---|---|---|
| 28. Showing aggressive defiance at the slightest provocation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. Refuses to accept punishment even though was clearly to blame. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. Sly and scheming. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. Often tells lies. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. Spiteful to other children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. Feigns ill health. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. Urinates on another pupil. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. Frequently late for class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. Avoids eye contact with teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. Rarely engages peers in conversation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. Prefers individual work to group work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. Refuses to undress in front of other pupils at P.E. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. Is tearful when rebuked. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. Plays practical jokes on others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. Seeks excuses in order to move around classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. Openly challenges teacher's opinion on lesson. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. Appears with self inflicted scars. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. Appears with self engraved tattoo. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. Fabricates stories in order to achieve status with peers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 47. Is unduly greedy with food. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. Stutters or speaks in halting fashion. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49. Variable and unpredictable responses to teacher. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 50. Pretends to masturbate. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 51. Shrinks from any affectionate approach
e.g. walking beside adult. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 52. Breaks up games if losing. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 53. Does not look after or value possessions. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 54. Physically strikes teacher. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 55. Sleeps in class. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 56. Under influence of alcohol. | 1 2 3 4 |
| 57. Smokes in class. | 1 2 3 4 |

If you have other examples of instances of behaviour please list them in the spaces provided and rate such behaviour accordingly.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 1. _____ | 1 2 3 4 |
| _____ | |
| 2. _____ | 1 2 3 4 |
| _____ | |
| 3. _____ | 1 2 3 4 |
| _____ | |
| 4. _____ | 1 2 3 4 |
| _____ | |
| 5. _____ | 1 2 3 4 |
| _____ | |

PUPIL BEHAVIOUR IN SCHOOL

Throughout the last ten years, I have been working with pupils who have behaviour, and or learning difficulties. I am currently undertaking research at the University of Glasgow which focuses on behaviour difficulties, circumstances which encourage such behaviour, and teacher attitude towards pupils who may exhibit such behaviour. Your help is sought in this initial phase of the research and I would be indebted if you would complete this questionnaire. The information you provide will be treated as confidential and only used for the purpose of my research. I will make arrangements to uplift it from your school on

Thanking you in anticipation

D. McGorry

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Name of School _____

Years of service in this school []

Total years of service []

Additional qualifications _____

PLEASE CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER IN THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS**Gender**

Male 1

Female 2

Type of School

Secondary 1

Primary 2

If primary, circle stage involved, circle more than one if required

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Grade of Post

Teacher Full Time 1

Part Time 2

Ass. Principal Teacher 3

Principal Teacher 4

Ass. Head Teacher 5

Depute Head Teacher 6

Head Teacher 7

Age

21 - 29 1

30 - 39 2

40 - 49 3

50 - 59 4

60 + over 5

Teachers have stated that the following items of pupil behaviour, and other qualities, may be regarded as giving cause for concern either by interrupting the lesson or disturbing the school to varying degrees. After reading each of the items carefully, we would like you to respond by selecting one of the categories outlined below which you feel most appropriate to each item. There are no right or wrong answers.

LEVEL OF CONCERN

If you feel an item gives no cause for concern circle "A"

If you feel that an item gives cause for concern but requires no action then circle "B"

If you feel that an item gives cause for concern and requires minimal attention at class level circle "C"

If you feel that an item gives cause for concern and requires individual attention within the classroom setting circle "D"

If you feel an item gives cause for concern and requires immediate attention and referral to other personnel then circle "E"

OCCURRENCE

If you have not experienced this item then circle "N"

If you have experienced this item then circle "Y"

FREQUENCY

If your response is "Y" then we are interested in the frequency of such experiences and the last four categories can give an indication of this.

If you experience an item rarely such as once a year then circle "A"

If you experience an item slightly more frequently such as on a termly basis then circle "T"

If you experience an item on a regular basis perhaps weekly then circle "W"

If you experience an item on a daily basis then circle "D"

For example if you consider item 1 falls into category "C" and is something you have experienced regularly such as once a week your response would look like this

1. Avoids eye contact with other people in normal conversation A B **C** D E **Y** N A T **W** D

Appendix 2

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. Avoids eye contact with other people in normal conversation | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 2. Fabricates stories in order to achieve status with peers | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 3. Tries to negotiate work e.g. Teacher "Do these tasks" Pupil "I'll do some today and the rest next time" | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 4. Spits at other pupils | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 5. Shrinks from any affectionate approach such as a hand placed on the shoulder | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 6. Responds to reprimand by threatening the class teacher with physical violence | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 7. Prefers to be involved in individual work rather than group work | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 8. Physically strikes the class teacher | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 9. Frequently responds in an unpredictable fashion to the teacher's directions | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 10. Seeks excuses in order to move around the class | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 11. Walks out of the class room for no apparent reason | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 12. Shows no regard for own or anyone else's possessions | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 13. Is caught stealing from pupils or the teacher | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 14. Stares out of the window and is obviously unaware of the lessons development | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 15. Retreats under a table following a rebuke from the teacher | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 16. Frequently sucks thumb | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 17. Displays aggressive behaviour towards other pupils such as punching and kicking | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 18. Rarely engages other pupils in dialogue | A B C D E Y N A T W D |

Appendix 2

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| 19. Shows aggressive defiance at the slightest provocation | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 20. Is tearful when rebuked | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 21. Often falls asleep during class lessons | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 22. Threatens other pupils with physical violence | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 23. Appears with self inflicted scars | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 24. Refuses to undress in front of other pupils at P.E. | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 25. Deliberately damages school equipment such as books, chairs etc | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 26. Wets or soils them self during a lesson | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 27. Ring leads class in order to undermine the teacher | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 28. Tries to monopolise teacher attention and is a nuisance when teacher is busy with another pupil | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 29. Is noticeably underweight | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 30. Defaces property, e.g. graffiti | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 31. Frequently stammers in normal conversation | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 32. Openly defies the teacher and challenges them to do anything about such | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 33. Destroys other people's work | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 34. Is caught attempting to smoke a cigarette in the class | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 35. Is verbally abusive towards other pupils | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 36. Is unduly greedy with food | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 37. Refuses to accept punishment though clearly to blame | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 38. Openly defies the teacher over an instruction | A B C D E Y N A T W D |
| 39. Is verbally abusive towards the class teacher | A B C D E Y N A T W D |

Appendix 2

40. Has twitches or tics of the face or body A B C D E Y N A T W D
41. Frequently does not do homework A B C D E Y N A T W D
42. Refuse to comply with expected standards of dress A B C D E Y N A T W D
43. Attempts to play the system by going to other members of staff in order to manipulate a situation A B C D E Y N A T W D
44. After completing a task destroys his own work A B C D E Y N A T W D
45. Constantly seeks help when he could manage by himself A B C D E Y N A T W D
46. Seems to make a point of being in a position which earns disapproval A B C D E Y N A T W D
47. Will only apply himself to task in hand when watched or compelled A B C D E Y N A T W D
48. Has an erratic attendance pattern at particular lessons A B C D E Y N A T W D
49. Feigns illness in order to avoid class work A B C D E Y N A T W D
50. Tries to divert the teacher's attention from the class lesson A B C D E Y N A T W D

Appendix 2

In this section your opinion is sought concerning various general statements related to behaviour which is a cause for concern, and statements concerning school climate or ethos. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements by circling "A" if you strongly agree, "B" if you mildly agree, "C" if you are undecided, "D" if you disagree and "E" if you strongly disagree.

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 51. Behaviour which merits concern in secondary school is on the increase | A B C D E |
| 52. School psychologists could help reduce the incidence of such behaviour | A B C D E |
| 53. Much of the pupil's behaviour can be attributed to the home situation | A B C D E |
| 54. Pupils who exhibit behaviour which is a cause for concern take up the teacher's time to the detriment of those pupils who do not | A B C D E |
| 55. Such pupils would have had a greater chance of succeeding at secondary if their primary had alerted the new school of the pupil's difficulties | A B C D E |
| 56. Teacher training colleges do not adequately prepare teachers to cope with behaviour which is a cause for concern | A B C D E |
| 57. In some instances, teacher inexperience is a significant contributory factor in such behaviour escalating | A B C D E |
| 58. The stress factor present in every day teaching has increased in recent years because disruptive behaviour has increased | A B C D E |
| 59. Mainstream schools should now be able to cater for all pupils except for the odd exceptional case | A B C D E |
| 60. Outside agencies are too ready to blame schools for the occurrence of disruptive behaviour | A B C D E |
| 61. The climate of your school is rewarding to pupils | A B C D E |
| 62. The climate of your school supports innovation in teaching and curricula | A B C D E |
| 63. The climate of your school favours staff development | A B C D E |
| 64. The climate of your school is supportive to those in difficulty | A B C D E |
| 65. The climate of your school is controlled yet relaxed | A B C D E |

CATEGORIES OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Introverted Behaviour

1. Avoids eye contact with other people in normal conversation.
2. Shrinks from an affectionate approach such as a hand placed on the shoulder.
7. Prefers to be involved in individual work rather than group work.
14. Stares out of the window and is obviously unaware of the lesson's development.
18. Rarely engages other pupils in dialogue.
20. Is tearful when rebuked.
24. Refuses to undress in front of other pupils at P.E.

Aggressive or Acting Out Behaviour

4. Spits at other pupils.
6. Responds to reprimand by threatening the class teacher with physical violence.
8. Physically strikes the teacher.
9. Frequently responds in an unpredictable fashion to the teacher's directions.
11. Walks out of the classroom for no apparent reason.
12. Is caught attempting to smoke a cigarette in the class.
13. Is caught stealing from pupils or the teacher.
17. Displays aggressive behaviour towards other pupils such as kicking and punching.
19. Shows aggressive defiance at the slightest provocation.
22. Threatens other pupils with physical violence.
27. Ring leads class in order to undermine the teacher.
32. Openly defies the teacher and challenges them to do anything about such.
35. Is verbally abusive towards other pupils.
37. Refuses to accept punishment even though was clearly to blame.
38. Openly defies the teacher over an instruction.
39. Is verbally abusive towards the class teacher.
41. Frequently does not do homework.
42. Refuses to comply with expected standards of dress.
46. Seems to make a point of being in a position which earns disapproval.

Physical Symptoms

16. Frequently sucks thumb.
21. Often falls asleep during lessons.
23. Appears with self inflicted scars.
26. Wets or soils them self during a lesson.
29. Is noticeably underweight.
31. Is unduly greedy with food.
40. Has twitches of the face or body.

Destructive Behaviour

25. Deliberately damages school equipment such as books, chairs etc.
30. Defaces property, e.g. graffiti.
33. Destroys other people's work.
34. Shows no regard for own or anyone else's property.
44. After completing a task destroys his own work.

Manipulative Behaviour

2. Fabricates stories in order to achieve status with peers.
3. Tries to negotiate work, e.g. Teacher "do these five tasks" Pupil "I'll do three today and the rest next time.
10. Seeks excuses in order to move around the class.
28. Tries to monopolise teacher attention and is a nuisance when teacher is busy with another pupil.
43. Attempts to play the system by going to other members of staff in order to manipulate a situation.
45. Constantly seeks help when he could easily manage by himself.
47. Will only apply himself to task in hand when watched or compelled.
48. Has an erratic attendance at particular lessons.
49. Feigns illness in order to avoid class work.
50. Tries to divert the teacher's attention from the class lesson.

