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Communication — the Key to Conduct?

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COMMUNICATION — THE KEY TO CONDUCT?

SUMMARY

In Scotland, educational inclusion seeks to accommodate the diversity of the individuality of pupils and presumes that the vast majority will be educated in mainstream primary and secondary day schools. The focus of this investigation was the concept of the capable teacher, in the specific context of supporting children whose behaviour is considered inappropriate for a standard mainstream primary school. The study examines government recommendations and initiatives for the inclusion of such pupils appear not to be working. It also tries to understand the concept of capable teachers as perceived by teachers themselves.

The study was conducted through emergent approaches which evolved from literature and empirical data. The opinions of primary teachers and head teachers were surveyed and these results shaped further data gathering from the reflective diaries of practitioners and literature.

There are two main theoretical outcomes from this work. First is the recognition of a radically different lens through which to view indiscipline in schools. Conduct is seen as an issue of communication, and the teacher's communication in the first instance. This lens provides a framework for teachers to consider how classroom interactions may contribute to instances of inappropriate behaviour. The second theoretical outcome is concerned with emotional competence. The area of emotional competence defined as relationship management was shown to articulate closely with communicative pragmatics. This alliance with a body of theoretical knowledge that is already influential in other areas of educational support gives the concept of emotional competence much more credence in education.

Three practical issues also arise from this study. Teacher educators should perhaps consider developing a framework within which they could address aspects of communicative pragmatics and their importance to graduating teachers. Second, there could be consideration of alternative ways in which government priorities for education can be achieved. Rather than targeting only the teacher, this study suggests considering a range of issues, which together, or independently, may be factors in causing disaffection and indiscipline in classrooms. Third, this study suggests a change in teaching on behaviour management, in both undergraduate and postgraduate courses. This study has taken the whole issue of teacher response to issues of inappropriate conduct in the context of school and classroom and embedded it within the area of pragmatics, providing a different lens through which to view behaviour.

Ann M Grieve

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CHAPTER ONE

AN OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

Introduction

In Scotland currently, there is much discussion about the creation of a more inclusive education system. A precise definition of inclusion is not necessary here other than to acknowledge that it is difficult to achieve a definition that distinguishes inclusion from concepts such as integration and mainstreaming (United Nations, 1994). For operational purposes, it may be sufficient to say that, in Scots law, educational inclusion accommodates the diversity of individual pupils and presumes that the vast majority will be educated in mainstream primary and secondary day schools. Such inclusion must not only take account of those students with physical disabilities or those with learning difficulties but must also take account of children whose behaviour is considered inappropriate for a standard school and classroom setting. This particular group of children have been brought to attention by the press frequently in recent years for a number of reasons. Public perception is that there has been an increase in the number of students with difficulties of inappropriate behaviour. Teachers are portrayed by the media as demoralised and unable to cope with these students. At the same time, there are counter pressures from the makers of educational policy. An inclusive education system cannot be seen to be excluding (physically) such youngsters from school, and therefore from formal education. Consequently, SEED (the Scottish Executive Education Department) commissioned a group (The Discipline Task Group — DTG) in 2001 to look at this perennial problem, and that group came up with recommendations which are referred to in detail later in the study. These recommendations were later followed by an action plan to be taken forward by the government, local authorities and schools to tackle issues of conduct in schools.

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

A Grounding in Practice

My interest in the issue of pupil discipline evolved from practical experience as a support teacher and staff tutor, responsible for supporting those teachers who, in turn, supported pupils whose behaviour was deemed to be inappropriate for mainstream primary classrooms. In those rôles I became aware that the causes of behaviour which

challenged teachers were most often seen as being attributed to a range of causes. For example, it might be related to social background, poor parenting, or wholly child centred, such as a child with a condition such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. This concerned me because the attribution of causes of inappropriate classroom behaviour to factors out with the remit of education allowed some educators to relinquish any responsibility for effecting positive change.

Two main issues became the rationale for the investigation. The first was a need to consider why some teachers felt unable to manage successfully the inappropriate behaviours they encountered in classrooms, despite, as mentioned earlier, a range of initiatives and strategies designed to reduce or alleviate instances of misconduct in primary classrooms.

The second issue concerned the initiatives and strategies themselves. It appeared that there was an element missing, an element which related to the successful implementation of the plans which had been designed to assist teachers in managing indiscipline in the classroom. To what extent were there grounds for believing in the missing element, and what might be its characteristics?

The thesis, then, is a quest for enlightenment; a journey towards a deeper understanding of the complex phenomena surrounding issues of pupils' "challenging" behaviour. The study therefore takes, in part, a phenomenological approach. It begins with an examination of a number of philosophical issues about phenomena related to pupils' behaviour, such as the purpose of education and the concept of inclusion, and then, later in the thesis, relates these to the experience of teacher participants in the study.

However, the author was also influenced by the writing of Glaser & Strauss (from 1967) on grounded theory. This study does not follow the procedural prescriptions of either of these authors for grounded theory. Instead, it draws strength from one of their central tenets, namely, that theory might emerge from the study's data which would generate answers for the puzzling questions that were being addressed. The notion of emergence, which resonates with the principles of grounded theory, was a powerful influence on my choice of procedures.

Letting the Theory Emerge

Briefly, it will now be helpful to outline the processes which allowed theory to emerge. These processes will be discussed in more detail in subsequent chapters, in the specific contexts in which issues of methodology arise.

Initially the concepts of a definition of education and its purpose were explored, followed by the construct of inclusion. Then a phenomenological approach was taken by investigating practitioners' experience of inclusion. The methodological approach returns then to emergent theory by exploring the concepts of behaviour management, school and teacher effectiveness. There then follows the construction of a conceptual framework for assessing teacher effectiveness which is then used to inform the second round of data gathering. The construction of the conceptual framework used, in part, a further analysis of literature. It also used data gathered by nominal group technique (NGT) from a group of experienced practitioner. The NGT identified and ranked the major characteristics seen by the participants as contributing to teachers' effectiveness in supporting children with issues of conduct. The second collection of data was in two parts. First there was a survey of teachers' opinions on which characteristics they considered most effective is supporting children whose conduct was considered inappropriate. Second, there was an analysis of the textual descriptions contained in practitioner' reflective diaries. Aspects of a phenomenological approach relate to the data gathering. The use of the conceptual framework allowed practitioners' statements to be grouped into "meaning units" (Cresswell, 1998, p.50) and for an essence of practitioners' experience to be constructed. It endeavoured, through the use of the reflective diaries in particular, to understand teachers' experiences of supporting children whose behaviour challenged either their expectations or the expectations of the school community (Cresswell, 1998).

A return to the literature was made as new issues emerged from the analysis of the data. This was to extend the complex, holistic picture experienced and described by practitioners (Cresswell, 1998) and to relate it to new insights from the literature.

The use of several approaches in what is essentially a qualitative study allowed the gathering of evidence of the diverse concepts which may have an influence on the complex issues which affect behaviour in schools.

The complexity of the issues

Education can have a number of aims, but underpinning this thesis is an awareness of a concern among policy makers that education in the 21st century in Scotland has as its most pressing aim, the creation of citizens who can contribute effectively to our economic status. Effective education in Scotland is becoming overly concerned with the basics, literacy and numeracy. Statements about raising attainment in these areas are to be found in many government documents ranging from “Quality initiatives in Scottish schools” (HMI, 2000) to “Educating for excellence” (SEED, 2004). There is a system of national tests against which attainment in literacy and numeracy can be measured “and targets for improvement set” (HMI, 2000, p. 10). Indeed, for nearly a century, there has been a recurrent concern that the education system may be in danger of becoming like an assembly line, dating from the proposals, in 1911, of the Scot, John Adams (see, for example, MacKay, 1989) and Bobbitt’s (1918, 1924) proposed application of Taylorism (in factories) to the schools (Tyler, 1949). In the assembly line approach, educators may claim to value diversity but may actually be more concerned with trying to diminish difference in the interests of measurable educational outcomes. This investigation discusses a range of aims for education. Chapter Three considers whether those adopted by Scottish government are clearly thought out, well disseminated, clearly understood and mutually compatible.

The move towards a more inclusive education system in Scotland (as elsewhere in the world) has caused much discussion on the construct of inclusion and how it is implemented in policy and practice. Therefore Chapter Four considers the language of inclusion to prepare the reader for Chapter Five in which there is a comparison of the rhetoric of inclusion with inclusion as it is practised. Centrally made decisions, with no input from practitioners, do not always effect positive change. However, in the present national policies there is room for local authorities and schools to retain some autonomy over practice. It was therefore necessary to ask to what extent teachers conform to policy requirements or whether they acknowledge difficulty in applying policies which may not square with their own beliefs and values concerning education.

Many strategies recommended in literature and in government documents for dealing with issues of conduct suggest an approach in which the locus of control of a child's behaviour is with the teacher, rather than with the child. Much government documentation (e.g. DTG, (SEED) 2001b) relies almost exclusively on a behavioural management approach, rather than considering a number of approaches. Chapter Six investigates methods of working with children who are experiencing difficulty with conduct in school. There is a critique of a range of methods and a discussion on which approaches were more likely to fit with the principles of multi-disciplinary working (another current government imperative) and of maintaining inclusion within mainstream schooling, while at the same time complying with the broad aims of Scottish education as discussed earlier.

There is a growing trend, in Scotland as well as world wide, to measure and to judge school effectiveness. Often this is seen in terms of performance and its implications for those engaged in the search to promote quality in education and raise standards. This trend may be grounded in the curriculum reform of the late 1960s and early 1970s and is centred on setting objectives, the achievement of which can then be measured, as was the aim in Bobbitt's system at the start of the 20th century. It is clear why such an approach appeals in terms of accountability, and also in terms of setting "standards". Standards can be seen as units of measure that make it possible to calculate the performance of schools, teachers and pupils. Such an approach does not take into account methods from other disciplines, such as health and social work, which are partners with education in managing issues of conduct, and who may make different types of judgement calls on what is effective service. Not only that, but the rhetoric of achievement appears to be a return to the language of a medical or deficit model of educational support, in the sense that there is a fault with the student and that a prescription should be issued to cure it. This type of thinking does not sit comfortably with current advocacy of the move towards a rights model, where the need for educational support is seen in terms of an entitlement to receive that support.

Chapters Seven, Eight and Nine discuss effective schools and effective teachers. Chapter Ten proposes a conceptual framework that will allow better understanding of the forces which determine the nature of achievement, pupils' conduct and teacher effectiveness.

The penultimate section of the thesis, Chapters Eleven and Twelve, will be a reflection on the findings. It will be introduced by a study based on questionnaires and reflective diaries from teachers identified by management key witnesses, and examined in the light of the conceptual framework of Chapter Ten. This empirical study will lead to the main discussion of issues underpinning policy and practice in Chapter Thirteen.

The final section, Chapters Fourteen and Fifteen, returns to the literature in light of the findings, and seeks to refine the conceptual framework into one which is concerned with transactions in classrooms. The notion of transaction is explored to show how it may be used as a radically different lens for viewing issues of conduct in the schools. That lens lets the issues of conduct be seen in terms of acts of communication, bringing conduct inside a different body of theory and rhetoric for its understanding. Anchoring conduct in that body both asserts the new knowledge that is the outcome of this study, and leads to a conclusion of suggestions for further investigation.

Chapter Sixteen gives a brief overview of the main findings of the study and acts as a general reflection on the exercise.

CHAPTER TWO

EDUCATION — TOWARDS A DEFINITION

The Context

Education is a broad term that is used in daily currency but it has a wide variety of meanings. Those involved in formal education may make little attempt to clarify the term, yet perhaps it is important for them to reflect on the ideas central to their activities. Methodologically, the fieldwork of this thesis will be built on a search for emergent theory. The same notion of emergence will be applied in this chapter in the search for a strong operational definition of education in this opening section, to give a sound basis for the whole investigation. Definitions will be discussed and brought to life in the context of formal education in Scotland and will be the basis for investigation in the chapters which follow.

What is Education?

It is difficult to pin down education to a single, clear definition in the context of this thesis. The concept “education” overlaps with others such as “teaching”, “learning” and so on. It has even been said, “Education is what survives when what has been learned is forgotten” (Skinner, 1964, p. 484). Professionals, government and society in general may have differing beliefs about the purpose of education and so the meaning they assign to education differs (Peters, 1967; Yero, 2001). Education in a formal sense is inextricably linked with the manner of teaching, and interactions. These interactions can be with another person, for example teachers, or with the curriculum and its presentation.

Scheffler (1968) suggests that there are a number of methods of discussing definitions — the stipulative, the descriptive and the programmatic. A stipulative definition of education is one where a number of definitions may be considered, but one is referred to explicitly. Those making the definition clearly stipulate the meaning they intend to use, regardless of others. A descriptive definition, on the other hand, considers various definitions and puts them into contexts. A descriptive definition tends to try to capture the common use of the term. A programmatic definition, on the other hand, is a

combination of both stipulative and descriptive definitions, composed for the purposes of argument.

A stipulative definition of education can relate to social institutions concerned with the transmission of certain aspects of culture through focused teaching and learning: in such a case, it is clearly a very broad descriptive definition. In contrast, other less formal contexts which could be covered by a definition of education might not include the characteristics of focused teaching and learning. In another context still, education might take place by dint of experience.

A description definition of education appears to suit this debate, as will be shown in the conclusion of this chapter.

Peters (1966) and Eisner (1979) agree that the word education has both normative and descriptive qualities. It has normative qualities because it is value laden. It is important to recognise this, because it is impossible to educate intentionally without making a value commitment, which may be implicit or hidden. People will have different views on what is desirable, and depending on their values may define education in a programmatic manner, with aims that are extrinsically or intrinsically esteemed. It may not be necessary to justify education in terms of quantifiable outcomes, required by those with a bias towards gathering countable data, but instead justification may evolve from a “coherent articulation of a view and presentation of the grounds for holding it” (Eisner, 1979, p. 43). Descriptive theory as applied to education attempts to concern itself not with the way things are but the way they ought to be. In this respect it differs from descriptive theory as applied to science. This theory attempts to explain what has occurred and how. Both normative and descriptive theories interact so that each influences the other. Once models have been established, these influence the descriptive theories that support them. In other words, they influence the curriculum. Soltis (1968) describes this descriptive theory in terms of a programmatic definition — one that combines both the descriptive and the prescriptive, that is, with an element of how the “ought to be” is to be achieved.

If education is a normative term then learning and education may not always be the same thing (Eisner, 1979). Dewey (1902) suggests that education is a process of

development and growth. The idea of growth is inherently normative. Dewey identifies the value of growth and justifies its significance in argument. To Dewey, growth extends human intelligence, secures meaning from experience and involves acting in a manner that is innately worthwhile. Education, for him, implies that something worthwhile has been achieved and a morally acceptable process of transmission has achieved this intentionally. Peters (1966) suggests that education has to fulfil three criteria. Education must be a worthwhile exercise, with the gaining of something valuable. Education must also result in the gaining of knowledge that goes beyond the acquisition of skills or information. Thirdly, education must involve understanding of what is being learned and what is involved in that learning. Peters seems to be defining education in a programmatic sense, in that there are value judgements being made about what is valuable, what is worthwhile and in whose judgement. Peters (1966) argued that cognition is of great importance in the process of education. However, structures of cognition are shaped by the society in which we live. We inherit from our past the structures of thought of mathematics, science, history and aesthetic arts, for example. So, implicitly, our education is being influenced by the values of others. Peters argued that cognition in education is important so that the learner can make links with other aspects of the mind in, for example, character formation and emotional development, which are beyond cognition (Peters, 1973).

Eisner defines education as a process that fosters growth of individuals in the development of “modes of intelligence that enable individuals to secure meaning from experience” (Eisner, 1979, p. 42). Eisner agrees with Peters that cognition is important, but he also argues that affect is also intrinsic to education. Emotions refine our cognitive skills. McLelland (1996) defines education as the application of the philosophy of life to children’s upbringing. Here again we return to the normative stance on value judgements. Warnock (DES & SED, 1978) talked of education encouraging children to be morally good.

There is a common thread running through these discussions on what education is, or should be, apart from the notion of value judgements about what is meant by “morally good” (Warnock, 1978) and what philosophy is acceptable. Education is described as having implications for the “common good”. This view of education underpins the

notion of choices — children should be encouraged to think about the life that they want to live and think about how they may achieve it. This sounds laudable, but what happens when their values conflict with those of the teacher or the schools or the society in which the school is situated? It could be argued that, in the case of many children who exhibit behaviour deemed inappropriate in classrooms, their values differ greatly from those of their teachers, as they come from different cultures. The notion of different cultures will be explored in more detail later. However, it is an issue that is at the heart of concerns about the students who are described by Blair as socially excluded (House of Commons Hansard Debates for 27 Mar 2000 (pt 5) <http://www.publications.parliament.uk/cgi-bin/ukparl>). The view of education espoused so far suggests that education is about being initiated into activities that are worthwhile in themselves, rather than a means to a valuable end. This is a view of education which is described as liberal, which is a value-laden philosophy of education, and this issue will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Three.

Teaching is an essential part of how knowledge is acquired. If the term education implies that something has been learned then equally we must assume that teaching implies there is an intention for learning to take place. Teaching has occurred when what has been learned has taken place by deliberate intention. Even when the teaching is facilitative, rather than didactic, there is an intention that the child should learn from the resources or support provided. Eisner argues that education is not the same as learning, but this argument depends on a normative definition of education. A child might learn something that would result in them being socially dysfunctional. They could learn to become racist, for example, or a paedophile. They have learned but have they been educated? This point of view is similar to the one held by Peters (1973), discussed earlier, where he states that education has to be worthwhile. Dewey (1902/1990) suggests that experiences can be education, non-education or mis-education. Non-education means that a student has taken part in an interaction but there has been no significant growth or effect on them. Many experiences in daily life fall into this category. Mis-education occurs when, as a result of our experiences, we are either unable to make further progress or alternatively cope intelligently with problems in a particular area of activity (Dewey, 1902/1990). The former could be, for example, when a student has had early failure in a curricular area which prevents

them from taking it as a subject choice in later life. The latter could be related to phobias or even indoctrination.

Dewey writes of the process of education being made up of a number of factors. These include an immature undeveloped being and an experienced adult who has certain social aims, meanings and values (Dewey, 1902/1990). One could argue that Dewey's definition could also refer to teaching, and indeed in American philosophy of education, there has been less emphasis on defining education than teaching. Dewey's definition of education suggests that there is a one way flow of knowledge, from the "matured adult" to the student. This involves maximum tutelage from the teacher. Moore argues that there must also be at least a minimal recognition of a special relationship between the pupil and the teacher. This relationship is associated with responsibility. Students must recognise their responsibility to pay some attention, enter into the joint endeavour to some extent, and try to understand what is being transmitted. Teachers, on the other hand, assume some responsibility for the pupil. It is this relationship, at however primitive a stage, that distinguishes teaching from "imparting information" (Moore, 1982).

However, education need not be a mechanistic, didactic matter. More emphasis can be placed on the child taking a more pro-active role in developing skills and knowledge. The teaching that takes place in this situation would be less concerned with transmitting knowledge and skills and more with facilitating the pupils' engagement in tasks that engage and stimulate them in their acquisition of knowledge. Rousseau's educational philosophy reflected such a view. He minimised the importance of book learning, and instead emphasised learning by experience. A similar view of "education in the control of the learner" can be seen in such diverse positions as those of the constructivists (for example, Vygotsky, 1978) who write of children learning as a consequence of their personal involvement in intellectual challenges, and of the behaviourists. For example, Skinner said: "there are two Arabic words for 'teaching.' One, *daras*, means literally to teach; the other, *t'allam*, means to make to learn" (cited by Copeland, 1986, p.13).

Education could thus be seen as an interaction of a number of factors. Education is when students undergo instruction, when they find out something for themselves,

when demonstrations take place, in practical tasks and so on. All of these processes differ from each other but they are all education. “Education is a process concerned with expanding and deepening the kinds of meaning people can have in their lives” (Eisner, 1979, p. 7). The concept of meaning depends not only on a person’s experience of their environment but also on their ability to interpret it. This includes “the ways in which others in the culture have constructed and represented meaning” (ibid, p. 7). Meaning takes many forms and these forms include linguistic, mathematical, kinaesthetic, auditory and visual representations. Whatever the activities engaged in, most people would expect that if education has taken place, then the student’s knowledge and affect and attitude change would be greater at the end of the process than at the beginning. In schools, kinds of meanings are developed and influenced by the curriculum, both explicit and hidden. The curriculum sets out what is to be taught to meet the justified and accepted purpose of education. How the curriculum is taught, that is, the interaction aspect of education needs to be examined. This will be discussed in more depth in a later section of this thesis.

Conclusion

Education can be seen as an essentially contested concept (Winch, 1996), and so it is not surprising that the debate regarding a definition continues. More recently there has been a move towards more modest definitions of education than those discussed here. These include White’s (1982) notion of upbringing and Winch’s (1996) suggestion of preparation for adult life. I believe that far from being uncontentious, these serve further to complicate the issue by the very fact of their minimalist approach, especially in the context of formal education.

No clear definition of education emerges from literature; rather there are a number of inter-related factors which affect what is education. It is a process which involves a combination of gaining of knowledge (beyond skills and information) and understanding of both learning and the process of learning. It involves both the affective and cognitive domains of those “being educated”.

Let us focus on the context of this thesis and the discussion of types of education at the start of this chapter. In that context, it seems that the use of the word education relies on a descriptive definition. This is because of the different views of the various

groups who have a direct interest and investment in the process of education. These groups which include consumers of education such as pupils and parents, those involved as practitioners, particularly teachers, and those in local and central government such as advisors and HMIE. They and their influence will be discussed in Chapter Eight. Any definition of formal education needs to involve both curriculum content and delivery, and this is determined by political forces and dominant power groups. This thesis will endeavour to arrive at an understanding of the various views of education used by both national and local government and discuss whether these views are shared by practitioners.

Similarly the purposes of education are shaped by those in the system with power. The next chapter will discuss the various ideologies of education and the extent to which they underpin current policies and practice.

CHAPTER THREE

THE PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

Context

“Education...enlarges and disciplines the mind and makes it master of its own powers, irrespective of the particular business or profession one may follow” (Webster 1913).

“School should be teaching kids important skills and things for their future lives, it should teach them how to care for themselves and for others. It’s about social skills, not just qualifications” (SCRE, 2002).

“What education is gives us our only criterion for judging and directing what goes on in schools” (Dewey, 1964).

A philosophy of education is needed to influence practice, rather than having educational practice conducted in response to social and political pressures (Dewey, 1964). In order to make qualified and well informed judgements, educators at all levels should engage with the theories of education and in doing so reflect on the underpinning philosophy (GTCS, 2002a).

Engagement with theories of education at government level should enable those making policy to justify them, with reference to underpinning ideologies. It has been argued that education is led by a political agenda (Turner, 1990; Kelly, 1999). This is especially true in countries such as Scotland where the majority of education is state funded and run. Policy makers may covertly encourage us to see their theories as truths and imply that no alternative discourses are valid (see, for example, Postman & Weingartner, 1969; Apple, 1996; Humes, 2003). For this reason if for no other, practitioners need to engage with the philosophy of education. For a broader vision, teachers need to recognise the range of ideologies which may influence them when they try to make an informed judgement about what they believe. The language used in policies is often manipulated to ensure that practitioners get the message they are intended to get, so that they embrace official values (Turner, 1990). There is an

expectation that the terms used, in addition to the underlying assumptions, are clearly understood by educators. Thus, rarely is there acknowledgement of the problems that may arise because of normative expressions such as “standards,” “indiscipline,” “effective learning and teaching” and “good practice” (SEED, 2001b).

Practitioners need to be able to reflect critically, not only on policies, but also on their own and others’ practice. An engagement with the philosophy of education liberates teachers. It allows them to have a realistic understanding of alternative theories and helps to provide a general and coherent view of the final objectives of formal education in our school system.

This chapter first briefly discusses philosophy as it pertains to education. Second, it considers the purposes and functions of education, with reference to

- the acquisition of knowledge, whatever knowledge is considered to be
- socialisation
- a realisation of individual potential.

It then briefly considers the implications of the purpose of education on the development of curriculum and finally it discusses the aims of education in the specifically Scottish context.

A Historical Perspective on the Philosophy of Education

How may we define what educational theories are? In an educational milieu, questions of a philosophical, psychological, sociological and historical nature arise. The study of educational theory could be said to embrace all of these. It could be argued that philosophers limit their activities by dividing philosophy itself into branches — the philosophy of religion, moral philosophy, philosophy of art, of politics and so on. Barrow (1975) argues that there is no discrete branch of philosophy of education, rather, that philosophy for education should be firmly grounded in moral philosophy, because moral issues weigh down all education.

The systematic study of the philosophical understanding of education began in the mid-twentieth century. It began investigating concepts such as education, teaching and indoctrination and, later, clarified aims, content, and methods appropriate to

contemporary society. In this it became a discipline of applied philosophy, bringing many aspects of general philosophy to bear on the challenging dilemmas faced by educationalists. However, these philosophical discussions owe much to earlier philosophers, such as Plato. Themes such as child centred education, pluralist approaches versus dictatorial, and collectivist versus individualist, stem from Plato's "Republic". Bacon, Descartes and Locke in the seventeenth century all argued that learners should make their own observations and discoveries without intervention from external sources. These ideologies did little to change the mainly didactic pedagogy of the time. It was not until the time of Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Froebel that education began to change, and it could be argued that the influences of Rousseau and the others can still be seen in classrooms today. These progressivists brought the notion of development into education, and the concept of readiness to learn through a process where teachers are facilitators. They believed that education should be child centred.

The Purpose and Function of Education

In looking at any purpose, it is helpful to look at what we hope to achieve at the end of the process (see for example, Mill and Dewey). It is the perceived purpose of education that shapes policy, moulds institutions, defines curricula, and influences pedagogy. "Questions about ends ...are questions about what things are desirable" (Mill, 1859/1998, p. 168).

Many philosophers (see for example, Aristotle, Dewey and Frankena) argued that we acquire abilities, skills and traits, which are not inborn. These have been described variously as hexes, habits and dispositions. Although not themselves inborn, it is in our natures as humans to form these dispositions, as Rousseau in his "Social Contract" (1762) and James in his "Social Contract" (1890) argued. Their purpose is for engagement in activities. Whether the engagement that takes place is worthwhile depends to some extent on whether the dispositions are desirable "excellences" or undesirable. And, of course, we are not born with them, they are the result of an interaction between ourselves and other members of society. The engagement that will finally occur as a result of the acquisition of traits and skills may be of a practical, concrete nature or may be more socially inclined. In all cases the experience depends

on the acquisition of similar excellences by other parties. These excellencies might include tolerance, understanding, and the maintenance of a supportive environment.

How do we acquire the abilities and skills that we call excellences and how do we define them? Traditionally, society communicates “ideals, hopes, expectations, standards and opinions” (Dewey, 1916, p.3f) in an explicit way by the elders in that society. The very ideals, hopes and so forth that are “taught,” the excellences that are valued by society, lead us to the conclusion that the philosophy of education must be normative as well as analytical. Moreover, it could be argued that as the values of society alter, then so too does the “curriculum” the younger members are taught. A normative philosophy of education must outline what dispositions or excellences are to be cultivated. A clear purpose must be stated, as this will provide a rationale for the selection of these excellences and the methods to be employed in cultivating them. We need to consider, too, the nature of the interaction by which these traits are acquired. Are these excellences to be taught, rather than learned; transmitted or acquired by practice? That question has been addressed over many centuries from Aristotle and Plato to Dewey at the start of the 20th century and the Scottish Executive at the start of the 21st.

We need also to adopt an analytical approach to the purpose of education. We still need to consider the end purpose but we can do this in a logical fashion by using Aristotle’s “Practical Syllogism”. We make a normative statement about the ends we desire for education (major premise); we follow this with a minor premise that outlines our beliefs about life and society and follow the minor premise with a normative judgement about the dispositions to be encouraged by education. If we apply this procedure to the philosophy of J. S. Mill, for example, the major premise would be “actions are morally right as they tend to promote happiness for all concerned”. The minor premise would be “the development of our intellect, honesty, etc., promotes happiness for all”. Therefore the dispositions that should be developed are our intellect, our honesty, and so on. Having decided on the dispositions we wish to cultivate, the next step is to outline how this should be done. Again we can use the practical syllogism. Continuing with the example used above, the syllogism would take as its major premise “we wish to cultivate intellect and honesty.” The minor

precept should be based on the form of educative interaction we espouse and the final statement should be a conclusion that offers guidance for teachers, for example.

Kant argued that the acquisition of dispositions is in itself a final purpose of education, whereas Dewey and Aristotle argued that it is experiences that are the final outcome. If we consider that the acquisition of dispositions is to engage in activities, then we need to decide whether these activities are concerned with intellect or morality, whether for theoretical or practical purposes, or whether, as Dewey argues, dispositions are bound up with each other.

Education is inextricably bound up with society, and society itself consists of a number of different groups with different interests. These factions can have influence on the end purpose of education (Egan 1997; Winch & Gingell, 1999). Curricula can be influenced by specific interest groups, the prime concern of which could be furthering or maintaining their own status (Young, 1971), and this will be discussed more fully later.

One purpose of education might be the idea of the teaching of particular forms of knowledge that will enable the young to make a realistic and rational assessment of the world (Plato). A second purpose of education could be that of socialisation; the initiation of the younger members of a society into the knowledge, values and responsibilities common to the adults within that culture. A third purpose could be concerned with realising the unique potential of the individual. Each of these purposes will now be discussed in detail.

Acquisition of Knowledge

The whole concept of knowledge is problematic. Knowledge is a normative term, often used in a casual manner and so it is necessary to look at different perspectives on what constitutes knowledge. Epistemology, or the theory of knowledge, is concerned with the nature of knowledge, its scope and its potential. How do we define knowledge? In Western society, the theory of knowledge is largely based on Greek philosophers' accounts. Classical Greek philosophers said that in order for something to be classified as knowledge it had to conform to three criteria. The first was that it had to be believed. Second, the belief had to be justified and third, it had to be true, if

it was claimed as knowledge. This is known as the tripartite definition. For a proposition p to be known it must be true. A person, s , must believe p to be true. Disbelieving p means that p is false or not p . Justification for knowledge means that s is justified in their belief that p because they have adequate evidence for p , or that it is within s 's intellectual rights for holding p . However, Gettier (1963) argued that a belief can fulfil the tripartite definition and fail to be knowledge. He argues that it is possible to be justified in believing a false proposition. Moreover, if s is justified in believing p and on the basis of this deduces q , then they are justified in believing q . Gettier argued further that a person may hold a true belief by accident; by lucky accident, having little or no evidence for the belief (veritic epistemic luck); or having evidence, the gaining of which is a matter of luck (evidential epistemic luck). Gettier proposed, then, that knowledge is a justified true belief where veritic epistemic luck is absent.

Theories have since emerged that place less stress on the justification of the belief. The causal theory suggests that knowledge is based on a true belief that bears an “appropriate causal connection to the fact in question” (Goldman, 1986). If, however, the true belief is acquired by a reliable process or method, this is described as the reliability theory. Finally, and there is an element of this in the reliability theory, a student would not believe p if p was false. All three of these theories are externalist, that is, it is possible to satisfy conditions of knowledge without being aware that they are being satisfied. It is important to have an understanding of this view of knowledge as it gives a basis for the rest of the discussion in this section on how knowledge is acquired.

There are two philosophical stances on how knowledge is acquired. The two approaches are

- rationalism – an emphasis on the rôle of reason
- empiricism – an emphasis on the rôle of experience in the acquisition of knowledge.

Rationalists suggest that knowledge is achieved by the mind somehow independently of the senses. They argue that senses can deceive when they are used as sources of

information. Aristotle suggested that we have knowledge of something when we know the reason for it and its cause. He again used a syllogism, a descriptive syllogism, to show reason. However, there is an element of experience in the concept of knowledge as discussed by Aristotle. He seemed to suggest that the acquisition of knowledge was in some way inextricably linked with our experiences. Plato also suggested that there is an element of experience in gaining knowledge. He argued that some knowledge was innate but we were reminded of it through a particular experience. Descartes believed that not all our ideas were linked to experience, but suggested that knowledge had an individual element in it, and that any justification for claims of knowledge arose from an individual perspective (Hamlyn, 1995).

Empiricists such as Locke, Berkeley and Hume suggested that knowledge was grounded much more firmly in experience. Locke, for example argued that all our ideas arise from experiences. However, he also argued that some knowledge of truths arose partly from intuition and partly from demonstration. In fact, most of the empiricists did agree that some truths were not based on experience; the knowledge of these were, indeed, a priori, not dependent on experience. Mill (1859/1998) on the other hand, suggested that all truths were grounded in experience.

These various accounts of knowledge have been criticised. In Britain there is a belief that knowledge is a “process of acquiring rationally justified true beliefs” (Winch & Gingell, 1999). However, there are further issues to be considered when thinking about theories of knowledge. For example, is knowledge always reducible to facts? If so, whose judgement is a reliable guide to such facts? Is it possible that knowledge is about concepts and their subsequent use? If there is an argument for this view, are there certain practical concepts that may only be acquired under certain conditions, and after application of certain constraints? Who sets the parameters, and whose judgement is involved?

Ryle (1949) suggested that not only could knowledge be factual, it could also be procedural, that is, knowledge of how to do something. Procedural knowledge can not be broken down into facts, and so does not fit with the classical account of knowledge. Yet it accounts for much of what, today, is considered to be knowledge. Dewey (1964) did not believe in a dichotomy which separated factual (in the classical sense) from procedural knowledge. Both Dewey and Ryle argued that the

demonstration of factual knowledge was often displayed through procedural knowledge, for example, knowing how to organise or theorise. Roland (1961) in Soltis (1968) took the argument further and suggested that knowledge involved a disposition to act in a certain manner as a result of the acquisition of both procedural and factual knowledge.

Hirst (1965) in Archambault (1964), pioneered an account of knowledge that argued that rational thinking was determined by “conceptual schemata,” developed gradually over many years. These schemata not only defined terms used in particular concepts but also suggested the ways in which the expressions could be determined as true or not, by testing them against experience. At that time Hirst identified eight forms of knowledge. These were “maths, physical sciences, human sciences, history, religion, literature and fine arts, philosophy and morals.” He considered these forms of knowledge to be the basis of rational thought, and for this reason they should form the basis of any education, if education was concerned with developing a rational mind. Hirst’s theory was based on the supposition that knowledge is connected with truth, as already discussed. He suggested that acquiring knowledge was a theoretical endeavour, and that more and more truths may be acquired without them being used in any way. However, more recently, Hirst (1974) revised his views and suggested an account of knowledge, which is similar to that of Ryle (1949). He talked of expertise and community “transmission”. His stance altered to one that espoused the passing on of valued knowledge that is both theoretical and practical.

Oakeshott (1991) suggests that we should encourage students to access the wealth of learning that started centuries ago and which continues to accumulate in amount and value up till the present time. By doing this, we do not limit our students to the narrow confines of the politics and local experiences that may form the conventional sets of norms and values of one community. Rather, schools become, in some respects, set aside from the community and their purpose is to encourage attitudes and beliefs that are of persistent value. This view fits well with Plato’s suggestion that knowledge is concerned with that which is unchanging, for example, mathematics, and belief is concerned with that which is changing, namely, the material world. O’Hear (1997), however, points out that introducing learners to what is believed to be the best forms of knowledge and experiences is no proof against either individual or

social evil. The acquisition of particular forms of knowledge is therefore essential so that an individual can use them to gain his own perspective on reality. The learning process should equip students with the forms of knowledge that would enable them to arrive at a rational view of reality (Plato). This view of teaching and learning has a distinct ethical position on the status of the learner. Education should enable students to make rational decisions, in the sense that rationality takes account of cognition and affect. It should enable students to decide for themselves, as far as possible, the purpose and process of learning rather than having that purpose decided by those with power to direct them. This is in contrast to Rozema's (2001) view of commodious education, equipping students with information and skills best suited to taking their place in the accepted society.

Education for Socialisation

Education takes place in a societal system, and because of this cannot avoid transmitting to students at least some of the values, attitudes and norms that exist in that society (Durkheim, 1956). Education for socialisation is concerned with a restricted range of norms and values, those that constitute the adult "norms" (Egan, 1997). The purpose of education within a school setting would be that the students would come to an understanding of society and their place in it. They should ultimately possess the values and commitments of that society. The skills they have acquired throughout their education, as an outcome or consequence of schooling would be those that would perpetuate their society.

An emphasis on education which is concerned with the promotion of "useful" knowledge, that is, knowledge of practical skills and personal and social development studies, fitting for society, makes the school a social agency (Egan, 1997). Education that is provided in such a context must constantly change to accommodate the changing needs of the society that influences it. Educators within a system of this nature can perhaps be seen as role models who exemplify the values, norms and beliefs of that dominant culture. Students become saturated with the traditions, attitudes, objectives and proficiencies of the cultural group to which they belong (Dewey, 1899/1964). Schools, even in informal but pervasive ways, organise themselves in a societal manner (Dewey, 1899). This may encourage "conformity to modern social norms" (Egan, 1997). The stress put on the outcomes of citizenship and

a purposeful role in the economy of the country could, he argues reflect a prevailingly socialising influence. Clearly, in education of this sort, there is little room for those who wish to challenge the values and attitudes of the dominant society. In establishments that adhere to this view of education there is a limited place for individuality and free-thinking. They accommodate only a very limited range of non-conformity. Mill (1991) argued that there is a need to strike a balance between “individual independence and social control”. If we agree with this philosophy that an aim of education is the socialisation of the young, then we need to be explicit about the criteria we apply to validate its success. These criteria are also social.

Rozema (2001) argued that there are two types of socialising education, commodious and community. The first considers education for the purpose of producing persons who will “maintain and increase the economy and profit” (Rozema, 2001, p. 238). This education sees the learner as a consumer, and tends towards giving students what they want rather than what might be needed. Many current education policies contain metaphors with commercial imagery or what McMurtry (1991) described as a language of “corporate culture”. The curriculum is content that is to be delivered; it is a product, the success of which is measured in outcomes. There is quality assurance, talk of value for money, and possibly most worrying, competition in the form of league tables. Targets are set and have to be met.

Our society is changing rapidly. It is characterised by new production methods, consumerism and a new economies (Hargreaves, 1994). Novelty is the key. If a course or the curriculum appears old, it must be repackaged to make it acceptable. This involves new funding, new initiatives and new programmes. Socialising education of this sort is socialising for a particular community, one where market economy is of utmost importance, and could be restrictive. This, it could be argued, is moving towards a vocational education. Dewey (1899) talks of an improvement in students’ interest in and engagement with education when it moved away from having an academic focus, with emphasis on exams and results as a measure of success. He argued at that time that the ethos of schools improved when the curriculum included much more “relevant” coursework and where the emphasis was not on academic attainment but on “quality of work” (Dewey, 1899, p. 301). An element of this can be seen in Scottish educational establishments today. There are local authorities which

promote vocational courses, delivered out with the school. This is especially true where students are disenfranchised with what is on offer within mainstream education. Advocates of this instrumentalist form of education would argue that despite the highly specific nature of employment and the inadequacies of a general education in this respect, there is still an argument to bias the curriculum in the vocational direction, at least for some students.

Education of community is more concerned with the human dimension, where the dispositions to be encouraged might include trust, diligence, respect and acquisition of knowledge rather than merely information. In other words, education of the community places greater worth on the moral and intellectual values we use when judging the merit of the information which has such value in commodious education. Schlechty (1990) suggests that in order to fulfil their role in the postmodernist, pluralist society, students need to have an education which encourages responsibility and the ability to work collaboratively, among other skills. The aim behind education of this kind seems to be based on the theory of utilitarianism (as discussed in the writings of Bentham, Hume and Mill). Simply stated, it suggests that, as individuals or collectively, we ought to act in a way that promotes the greatest good for the greatest number in society. Proponents of this way of thinking might argue that it offers a way of judging both the processes and institutions of education in a way that relates them to society. Education is seen as a good thing if it leads to societal benefits. Taken to extremes, this could mean that the collective interest supersedes the individual in all circumstances (as is indicated in the writings of Kant, Hegel and Marx). However, at a more basic level, education of community prepares the student for adult life (Winch, 1996). However, societal change is moving at a fast pace. There is no guarantee that the society for which we prepare our students will bear any resemblance to current society. In the 19th century Mill's writing can be seen as supporting the idea that education for the community would be to cultivate personal autonomy in students. In this way, everyone would be equipped to determine their own goals in life, rather than having them imposed paternalistically. A counter argument might suggest that perhaps state education should not favour aims concerned with self determination, but rather be far more neutral in what is, after all, a multi-cultural society.

Education for Individual Potential

Every human has the propensity for learning. Educators make decisions about what should be learned and why, depending on the particular philosophical perspective to which they adhere. However, this ideology looks not at societal aims, but has as its aim the fulfilment of an individual student's potential. This is a phrase that constantly is used in educational and political rhetoric but we need to look more closely at the complications it may present.

We have no knowledge of what each individual's full potential is going to be. Is it perhaps the case that an educator's view of an individual's potential is in some way influenced by values and attitudes that may be biased or unfounded? Are we referring to the potential of the "matured" student, at the end (if there is such a point) of education? Alternatively, is it possible that we look at the potential at each stage of development of the individual, for example, at pre-five, primary, secondary and further or higher education? What is the potential we seek to encourage our students to fulfil? It is possible that an individual's potential is counter to what is acceptable in a society. Perhaps the idea of enabling students to fulfil individual potential is one highlighted in rhetoric (SEED, 2001) but understood differently by stakeholders in education. The idea of individual potential might mean that all students are valued for their diverse aptitudes. Matthews (1996) argues that we should not treat children as merely prototype adults but that there should be a notion of a completeness or wholeness about the child as a person in their own right. Moltmann (1967) talks about a child's worth as being intrinsic.

Education that seeks to maximise the full potential of an individual does not necessarily seek to impose knowledge on that individual. Some would argue (as did Rousseau and Dewey) that children are naturally disposed towards learning, and so educators need to recognise what tendencies are naturally seeking expression and nurture these by careful selection of resources, materials and methods. In this way teachers will help to evoke and direct educational development within each individual (Archambault, 1964, p. 6).

There is a further difficulty with the notion of individual potential. An education system which seeks to promote an individual's potential will seek to identify, and then

develop, that student's interests and abilities to the maximum. Teachers in a system of this nature would be able to use their professional judgment about the most suitable ways of engaging their students. This slant on education will attempt to minimise pressures by both peers and consumerism in the early stages of education so that more meaningful choices can be made later in life. Nowadays, the rights of all children to education are enshrined in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. This suggests the need for education which promotes individualism, that is, the rights of the individual. A society concerned with this aim of education will organise the education system in a manner that ensures individual rights are respected as a first priority. The tensions between education to promote individualism and to promote individuality are discussed in more detail later in this chapter, looking at education in a Scottish context.

Purpose of Education in Relation to Development of Curriculum

Lawton writes that “the school curriculum is essentially a selection from the culture of a society. Certain aspects of our life, certain kinds of knowledge, certain attitudes and values are so important that their transmission to the next generation is not left to chance” (Lawton, 1975, p. 6). The two messages of this definition stand out clearly

- curriculum is a product of the culture in which it is set, and is intended to help sustain that culture
- curriculum is presented deliberately with the intention that the learner should have access to it (MacKay, 1989, p. 10).

Decisions must be taken as to the sorts of understanding that children should develop. As Lawton writes, a curriculum is the result of a selective process. This process involves cultural, political and economic factors which vie for a place in the “official” knowledge of a nation. The use of the term “education” implies that what has been communicated as a result of interactions between student and teacher is worthwhile (Peters, 1966). What is defined as a legitimate, worthwhile curriculum clearly reveals where the authority lies within a society (Apple, 1996). Political forces colour perceptions of education, and even the language used. Students may be seen as future employees. There are calls for accountability and control in education, deemed necessary to ensure value for money for public funds. Dominant political groups make capital from supposed falling standards, disaffection, illiteracy and violence. These assertions all affect the curriculum. Curricula can be designed to be academic

in nature or more practically based in life. Although originally education was concerned solely with fitting a student for their fairly narrow rôle in their society, it developed, in some cases, to shaping and developing a student's mind. In these cases, curricula were designed to liberate and humanise. Elliott (1975) argued for a rich, profound yet general understanding. An alternative would be discrete, academic forms of knowledge. Nowadays, national standards, and performance driven national tests convince the public that education is being modernised while at the same time valuing traditional ideas of knowledge and values, such as numeracy and literacy. However, one effect of such an approach might be to rank children, "differentiating children more rigidly against fixed norms" (Apple, 1996, p. 32). A common curriculum will not result in unity but will renew divisions. Johnson (Apple, 1996) asserts that the dominant subculture has the power to make the rules. This subculture would be a combination of local government, central government, civil servants, and, in Scotland, the General Teaching Council of Scotland. Johnson claims that children may be disadvantaged if their cultural communities do not conform to the standards that are likely to be recognised before engagement with the curriculum of the dominant subculture is possible. Egan (1997) also contested the idea that a common core curriculum is both desirable and possible. The present Scottish government's focus on issues such as indiscipline, truancy, poor literacy and numeracy seeks to ascribe the cause of the problem to the pupil first and foremost, then teachers, then schools. "Fix" the student, the teacher and the schools and the economy will show an upturn. Fixing the problem currently means small increases in funding and new initiatives in education being implemented, thus further compounding the idea that the problems are based solely in education. Apple (1996), however, suggested that problems such as those mentioned may well be indicative of larger societal problems. For long term solutions we may have to examine economic, social and political contexts, not merely education.

Formal education is today seen as a technical exercise where the curriculum is thought of in terms of outcomes and content. This way of thinking is based on the work of Bobbit (1918, 1928) and Tyler (1949) and was heavily influenced by management theory and practice. It involves a detailed analysis of what it is students eventually need to know in order to perform the numerous and diverse specific activities that comprise human life (Bobbit, 1918). Tyler further argued that as

education was to effect some change in students' behaviour there was a need for a way of measuring these changes (Tyler, 1949). This fits well with the current model of accountability and control in education, argued necessary because of public funding. The curriculum as a product is not based on a pedagogy of teacher-student interaction, or exchange. It is, as mentioned earlier, a product of thinking of education as industry that creates products. However, the view of a curriculum as a product does at least require thinking at the outset about the purpose of formal education.

The Aims of Education in Scotland

In 2002, the Scottish Parliament organised a national debate on education, and as part of this attempted to define what was seen to be the purpose of education. Consultation was carried out with a range of interested parties, and included representation from those who were considered most at risk of social exclusion. It is interesting to note that for many of this group of respondents, the concept of education was one in which they were largely uninterested. This may reflect their personal experience of formal education in schools. They had been largely passive consumers of an education which had been endured rather than enjoyed.

Education as Acquisition of Knowledge

Many respondents in the parliament's consultation, especially those who were the success stories of education, that is, they were in work and socially included, were of the opinion that a merely utilitarian education was insufficient, and fitting pupils for specific employment had little place in formal education as delivered in schools. There was a feeling expressed that there was an over emphasis on an academic curriculum, and that there was too much formal assessment of academic knowledge and target setting for schools and pupils. There was widespread agreement that there should be more emphasis on other aspects of education, but there was little consensus on what these aspects should be. Some felt that education should encourage the gaining of higher order competences such as thinking skills. However, those who represented the group most at risk of social exclusion had little sympathy for the notion of knowledge as a means of enabling students to arrive at a rational view of reality, where that might challenge authority and current social conventions. Others felt that aspects such as key life skills should have a more important role in education, and by including these, formal education would be far more inclusive.

Education for Socialisation

Many respondents felt that education should promote positive values (whatever these were; they were not defined) and promote active citizenship. In contrast, respondents from the consultation's focus groups representing marginalised sections of society were far more pragmatic and felt that the rôle of education was in socialising young people. They had a highly instrumentalist view of education, its socialising rôle being to fit students for a job after schooling was complete. Those holding this view felt that, if they were unemployed after leaving school, education had not achieved its purpose.

Aspects of education for socialisation are reflected in one of the five national priorities for education (SEED, 2000), in education for citizenship. However, it was recognised by many respondents that there was a danger that this would inevitably lead to “young people acquiring a certain set of civic virtues — for example, becoming enthusiastic about the value of community, action against racism and sexism, environmental sustainability, global awareness, etc.” (SCRE 2002, p.10). Respondents considered this inappropriate, and is directly at odds with the view expressed earlier that education to enable people to think for themselves and challenge social conventions was also not to be encouraged. Children act within the particular historical, economic, political and cultural context of their society. Today's Scottish society, as reflected in schools, is diverse and therefore discrepancies of resource and opportunity associated with social class, gender and ethnicity, and particular priorities and structures are expressed through the education system. Our diverse society also constructs key concepts of “children”, “childhood”, “pupil”, “ability”, “effort”, “boy” and “girl” from a variety of social representations and discourses, and educators need to be aware of this and not make assumptions based on a narrow experience (Pollard & Filer, 2000).

Education for Individual Potential

“Everybody should be given the chance to shine” (SCRE, 2002, p. 14)

The perception of many was that education is far too concerned with academic success and less concerned about the “artistic, emotional and imaginative aspects of

education” (SEED, 2000). Respondents to this debate were concerned that the current education system was unable to first identify, and then develop, individual students’ interests and abilities to the maximum. They considered that society was far too consumerist and little attempt was made by schools to minimise the pressures of peers and consumerism. However, this argument again relates back to respondents’ lack of support for students acquiring knowledge to enable them to effect societal change and challenge the current systems. Moreover, there was some discussion over the rights issue where individualism is encouraged, with rights at the top of the agenda. People who had been in public care or who were currently young offenders described classrooms where teachers struggled to give individual pupils attention while other pupils disrupted lessons. These respondents felt that their right to education had been jeopardised by a few. It was felt too that individual potential was still seen in terms of academic success, and those who were not academic found their self esteem eroded.

Conclusion

The view we hold on the purpose of education, on what knowledge is and how it is acquired, influences the way curricula are organised and delivered. Moreover, as there is such a variety of views of the adult stakeholders in school education, there is little chance that a common view will be held by national government, local government and those that are practitioners. On account of the variety of pressures, Egan (1997) argues that society is being unrealistic in what it is asking education in schools to achieve. An example of this in Scottish schools might be the drive for raising attainment, while at the same time promoting citizenship, inclusion and social inclusion (arguably different ideals) and meeting the demands of the market place economy. Egan argues that these aims are conflicting and even mutually incompatible.

Teachers and those who have the power to shape the curriculum need to consider pupil motivation carefully. Research suggests that standards of learning will “rise further and faster if teachers are able to understand the curriculum as *experienced* by pupils — as distinct from the curriculum as *intended* by policy makers” (Pollard, Thiessen & Filer, 1997, p. 3).

The whole question of the purpose of education needs particularly careful consideration when related to an education system that seeks to include all students, including those who have either special educational needs or additional support needs (SEED, 2000; SEED, 2004). Where do those students who have issues of conduct fit into the system? The next chapter seeks to discuss these students' needs in relation to policy and discourse.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE USE OF LANGUAGE IN ISSUES OF CONDUCT AND INCLUSION

Recent Scottish legislation (SEED, 2000) is such that all children are expected to be educated in their local mainstream school, except in exceptional circumstances. In 2004, the Education (Additional Support for Learning) (Scotland) Act clearly identified children whose behaviour is inappropriate in school as having additional support needs. The whole subject of special educational needs or additional support needs (SEED, 2004) is one in which the language used is open to many interpretations. Consequently it is not always clear that participants in debate and practice are working from a position of shared understanding. Language is a flexible human commodity. It is therefore important to scrutinise it carefully from time to time (Barrow, 1975). It is important to know precisely what policy makers, educationalists and philosophers mean by certain critical terms. A common understanding of the language used enables those involved in education to clarify their rôles. It also prevents misunderstandings and assumptions being made, based on individual perceptions of meaning.

This chapter considers the use of language in the context of inclusion and conduct. It comprises three sections. The first section deals with the changes in language of special educational needs in recent history. The second section deals with the difficulties in defining conduct, and how the use of language can affect how children with issues of conduct are supported. The final section explores the language of inclusion.

Language in Recent History

The publication of the report on Special Educational Needs (The Warnock Report) (Department of Education and Science, 1978) followed closely by the Progress Report by HMI in Scotland (SED, 1978) caused a considerable change in language use when referring to the education of pupils with learning difficulties. Warnock shifted the emphasis from “disabilities” to “needs.” This shift meant that those involved in educating pupils with difficulties in learning were encouraged to adopt a more holistic approach. In practice, a holistic approach required that no longer were difficulties to

be seen as wholly within the child but that a broader range of influences and responses had to be taken into account. Thus, consideration should be given to potential barriers to learning from the school environment, the curriculum and the environment outwith the school. Warnock also proposed that categories of disability contained in Regulations of 1954 (Scotland) and 1956 (England and Wales) be abolished and instead proposed their replacement by the general umbrella term of special educational needs. The abolition of specific categories was perhaps wishful thinking. As Farrell (2001) pointed out, we categorise many things in our lives — our jobs, our social or ethnic groups, even our schools. And, in everyday conversation at professional and informal levels, children with special educational needs continue to be referred to according to the particular problems they are experiencing. However, it is clear that although parents and children might value some “labels” or categories (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964) there is not a lot of support for labels such as those applied to children with behaviour difficulties. Indeed, some might argue that this group of pupils does not belong in the group of children most often described as requiring support for learning. In this study, I follow the line of thinking taken by Abdelnoor (1999) who suggested that behavioural difficulties are often the result of a whole set of factors which include the individual, social circumstances and institutions, such as education. Issues of conduct are thus seen as a social “disability” and the pupil has what MacKay and McLarty (2003) term exceptional, additional or different needs. The guidance provided on arrangements for pupils in the Guide to the Education (Scotland) Act (1980) substantiated this view. It required that provision was made for pupils “who have greater difficulty in learning than their peers” (p. 3). The most recent legislation in Scotland (SEED, 2004) recognises a much wider range of students who may require support. This is reflected in the language now used, mirroring the terms used by MacKay and McLarty in 2003, that is, students who have additional support needs. SEED explicitly lists the range of youngsters who may at some time in their education have additional support needs. The range now recognises students with behavioural difficulties as well as gypsy traveller children, those for whom English is an additional language, and those students who could be described as more able. However, the main difficulty in categorising children as having special educational needs, or requiring support for learning or even additional support needs is that we then categorise them further into a sub grouping, such as social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. We replace one label with another (Ainscow, 1991). The

danger with this approach is that it may lead some professionals and parents to assume that all children within that group will respond to a specific form of intervention, solely for that group. Farrell (2001) suggested that there is no evidence to support this assumption. MacGilchrist, Myers and Reed (1997) warned against such an approach, as there is no blueprint for particularly appropriate methodology to meet the needs of all pupils.

Another possible danger of categorising children is to deny the complexity of circumstances that interrelate to create the difficulties a child is experiencing. As mentioned earlier, these circumstances are rarely only within the child but the act of applying a label may suggest that this is indeed the case, and parents and teachers can feel absolved from responsibility. Cooper (in Sanders & Hendry, 1997) points out that all humans exist within a social context and so behaviour is a product of interactions between people, environment and the motivation of the individual concerned. Clearly, then, the issue of inappropriate behaviour is complex and cannot be entirely related solely to the home environment, the community or the school or teacher.

Needs

More recently there has been discussion on whether the idea of “needs” is appropriate (Gray & Panter, 2000). The word “needs” seems to reinforce the deficit model, especially in issues of behaviour, despite the fact that it was intended to focus on a how the difficulties a child experienced within the system might be resolved. Thomas and Loxley (2001) argue that it has allowed many exclusive practices to remain in place in our education system. The idea of needs, when referring to issues of conduct, is unclear. Whose needs? Are the needs those of the school, which requires calmness, order and compliance in order to deliver education? Alternatively we may assume that the child needs something, but this assumption, in the case of conduct, sometimes proceeds to assertions of intent, problem and wrongdoing (Thomas & Loxley, 2001). The whole area of needs in special education has been shaped by medical, charitable and rights discourses. Recently both corporate and market discourses have also entered the special needs equation. These discourses are summarised in the following brief subsections.

A Medical Discourse of Need

A medical discourse, which sees the students as having a deficit, uses language of help, need and care (Fulcher, 1989). In brief, this discourse treats the student as a patient who has few responsibilities because their welfare depends on the knowledge and skills of specialists. Corbett (1993) suggested this model is patriarchal and groups disabled people into a single category without endeavouring to consider personalities and individual traits.

A Charitable Discourse on Need

A charity discourse on the other hand, sees the disabled student as a person who needs assistance, an object of pity or alternatively inspiration. It has been suggested that pity masks fear or guilt towards individuals or perhaps hides aggression (Lacan, 1977; Sinason, 1992). The conceptualisation of the student in this discourse can be uncomfortable and disturbing. They are certainly seen as people with little power and that may well be associated with having few of the rights of conventional citizens. An extreme example would be seeing the student as a beggar for whom any provision is better than no provision, which is their current lot.

A Rights Discourse of Need

A rights discourse has its theoretical basis in the social model of disability. This has the premise that the student's failure to gain access to or participate in education is caused not by the student's disability but by the education system's failure to make appropriate adaptations. In terms of learning, the difficulties arise in the relationship between the student and the resources and tasks available to support learning. The underpinning conceptualisation of the student in this context is that of the valued citizen who is entitled to participation in the routines of their culture and entitled to a fulfilling life.

Corporate and Market Discourse of Need A Medical Discourse of Need

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disabled people into a single category without endeavouring to consider personalities and individual traits.

Fulcher (1981) talked about a corporate discourse, in which special needs labels have become a commodity, a way of getting extra resources. An element of this can be seen in the government's response to difficult behaviour where a label is attracting extra funding. Funding has been made available for the development of alternatives to exclusion and also multi-agency support for pupils with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties (HMIE, 2002a). Closely allied to the corporate discourse is the market discourse. Parental choice, accountability and efficient management have dominated government policies (Allen, in Booth & Ainscow, 1998). It is these policies that led to publication of league tables, and rules for the allocation of resources. Perhaps inadvertently, this may have encouraged a stance where both teachers and parents actively seek formal acknowledgement of perceived individual deficits (Allan, 1999). This resulted in an increase in the number of requests for Records of Needs on the part of both teachers and parents. As Corbett (1998) wrote, "in market driven cultures, labels become of extreme importance and their cultural capital is substantial" (p. 41). With the publication of the Additional Support Needs Act of 2004, the Record of Needs became extinct and was replaced by a coordinated support plan. This plan sets out the steps which will be taken to meet a student's additional needs, in respect of all aspects of their education, and as such is contributed to by all those agencies involved with the student. However, this legislation is not yet in force and it will be interesting to see whether the coordinated support plan is seen as currency for extra resources.

A danger with all these discourses is that they tend to remove the responsibility of the school and the education system itself to examine the educational experiences a student undergoes.

The United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) clearly highlights that children, without exception, have rights. These include the right to education on the basis of equal opportunity (Art.28). Education is moving towards the idea of "entitlement" as opposed to needs. This may necessitate a change in stance of policy makers and those at the chalk face. A rights discourse implies a movement

towards a system that values all students equally. A commitment to a move such as this is dependent on an understanding of the uniqueness of each pupil by all those concerned, from policy makers to teachers. There should also be a commitment to the development of teaching and learning approaches that offer challenge and opportunity for growth for all students. The principles of inclusion and participation go hand in hand with entitlement. Scotland's recent legislation (SEED, 2000) clearly sets out expectations of both local authorities and schools in relation to the rights of all children's educational aspirations.

The Language of Issues of Conduct

The subject of discipline or, indeed, indiscipline is fraught with tensions, as behaviour is a contextual, subjective concept. What is meant by the terms "better behaviour", "positive behaviour", "indiscipline", and "low level inappropriate behaviour"? Phrases such as these highlight some of the problems with terminology. Apart from a subjective element, the words themselves are value laden. The use of "behaviour" and "indiscipline" suggest that there is an element of control or management involved. Everyday language recognises that control can be invested in the self, as in expressions such as "self-control". Yet, regulation can have quite negative connotations when there is an implication that control and management begin and end with the teacher. Kohn (cited by Porter, 2000) argued that there are rarely positive connotations when "behaviour" and "indiscipline" are used to refer to pupils. This issue has also been recognised by Corbett (1998) and McSherry (2001).

In the same way that the language used in policies can influence our perceptions of philosophical underpinning, the language of conduct is equally fraught. Assumptions are made that there is a common understanding of the terms used, yet nowhere are these clearly defined. These undefined terms are not merely used in informal discussions or more formal consultation and liaison between involved parties but are used in consultation documents and national and local policies. No precise definition of the phrase social, emotional and behavioural difficulties (SEBD) could be found in the document Better Behaviour Better Learning document (BBBL) (The Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED), 2001b). Yet BBBL is the pivotal policy document of SEED on behaviour in schools. Instead the authors intimate that "there is no agreement on what counts as a social, emotional or behavioural difficulty — yet

such difficulties clearly exist” (SEED, 2001b, p. 13). This term, and others such as “challenging behaviour” and “positive behaviour” are used throughout this document and the Joint Action Plan for Better Behaviour Better Learning (SEED, 2001c), which is a timetabled plan for transforming practice. These undefined terms need to be contested or else teachers may be in danger of both accepting these poorly-grounded expressions and perpetuating uncritical practice. The whole notion of behaviour as described by these documents is one of negativity. In almost every case the word behaviour is preceded by descriptors such as “inappropriate”, “disturbed”, “disruptive”, “anti-social”, “poor” and “bad”. It is often followed by “management” and “difficulties”. This use of language reinforces the point made earlier, referring to Corbett’s (1998) and McSherry’s (2001) assertions that the word “behaviour” tended to have negative connotations.

Is it possible to define inappropriate conduct, when what is acceptable to one teacher may be unacceptable to another? The line between “misbehaviour” and “disruption” is very fine. Reid (1986) suggests that children naturally are mischievous and disruptive from time to time. If we agree with this view and accept that low-level incidences are normal then how do we establish when they become disruptive and difficult? Do we look at the frequency of the behaviour, the intensity of the behaviour and the type of behaviour (Sanders & Hendry, 1997)? Do we consider which types of conduct are most detrimental to learning? Further, when trying to distinguish between what are normal or abnormal patterns of conduct the boundaries are always inexact and arbitrary.

Wheldall and Merrett (1988) suggest that it is frequently occurring “low level” misbehaviour that is most irritating to teachers and causes most damage to pupil learning. Dyson (2001) too talks of a range of persistent difficulties. However, Johnstone & Munn (1987) argue that even low level misbehaviour cannot be defined as it is too context specific. Researchers such as Lowenstein (1975), Galloway and Goodwin (1987) and Sanders (2000) have defined disruption in a number of ways. These definitions mention interference with the teaching process, with loss of order, and harm to the education of pupils within an establishment. However, these attempts to define misconduct are imprecise and subjective. There is clearly a dichotomy of misconduct, from very serious incidents to relatively minor incidents, and so terms

such as “indiscipline” or “challenging behaviour” are umbrella terms that lack precise definition.

SEED (2001b) attempts to define “bad” behaviour in terms of what it is before it becomes the “better” behaviour of the document Better Behaviour — Better Learning.

The Discipline Task Group (DTG) identified three levels of inappropriate behaviour

- misdemeanours, which have a culminating negative effect on classroom relationships
- more challenging behaviours such as shouting, swearing, arguing with the teacher
- seriously disruptive behaviours defined as defiance, bullying and aggression.

Even this attempt to define inappropriate behaviour is very subjective, as defiance, defined by SEED (2001b) as “seriously disruptive” could be the defiance of a pupil who quietly refuses to complete a set task. This withdrawing type of behaviour has been a concern to behaviour specialists for at least a generation, because it may be overlooked as being less important than over-reactive behaviour (see, for example, Stott, 1974). HMIE (2002a) identified groups of children whose behaviour they considered might pose significant challenges for schools. These children are identified as those at risk of alienation from society; vulnerable children being looked after away from home by local authorities; and children with special educational needs (HMIE, 2002a). Identifying groups of students who potentially may have issues of conduct seems to suggest that the fault lies within the child or its particular community. This is despite the use of the phrase “significant challenges for schools” (HMIE, 2002a, p. 10), which might have encouraged schools to consider their own practices. Undefined terms such as social emotional and behavioural difficulties refer to a range of needs in our students, and also tend to reflect medical, or deficit models. This is despite a move away, in recent years, from what Corbett (1998) described as a medical model and a general move towards a sociological and ultimately a philosophical approach. Unacceptable behaviour is rarely caused by a fault within a child. While inappropriate conduct is a problem for a school, it rarely points to a clinical problem or some deficit within a student, though, of course, there may be some occasions when a child does have a mental health problem.

Gentle Punishments

Historically, bad behaviour was severely punished, but nowadays we have moved towards a gentler, more humane approach that may be more insidious because it ascribes intent and motives (based solely on subjective judgement) to the wrongdoer (Foucault, 1982). The use of the term SEBD has allowed educators to create a category of need, which may involve elements of both medical and psychological perspectives on the one hand and the need for education systems to keep order on the other. There has been a shift in emphasis from a concern with naughtiness that requires sanctions to being unbalanced which requires support (Thomas & Loxley, 2001). There has also been a shift in the ascribing of needs from the needs of the school for calm, order and routine to the child's need for stability, nurture, one to one help or whatever is supposedly required. There has been a tendency for some to accept that the child who misbehaves has an emotional disturbance and therefore a special need. The education system's desire for order has been changed into a student's need. Teachers have a propensity for describing a child with behaviour problems as "disturbed" (Armstrong & Galloway, 1994, in Allan 1999, p. 10). This changes the focus of the response to the needs of the child from the mainstream classroom teacher to someone else. Galloway and Goodwin (1987) describe a perspective where teachers in ordinary schools feel they should not be expected to cope with troublesome pupils. This issue is further discussed in the next chapter, *Realities of Inclusion*. The language of the recent 2004 Act, with the term additional support needs may also reinforce the notion of response to need being the rôle of someone other than the class teacher.

Maintaining order in a school is not a trivial requisite; it is an essential for the efficient management of the establishment. Maintenance of order necessitates rules and disciplinary measures regarding use of space and activities. These measures generally work, especially when there is agreement and consistency of application of sanctions by all members of staff. When they do not, and students do not respond to sanctions (Foucault's "gentle punishments") then the system shifts the emphasis from needs of the school to needs of the student. Unpunctuality, lack of motivation, and rudeness, behaviours described as low level by Wheldall and Merritt (1988), have very little to do with emotional difficulties. Quicke and Winter (1994) agree that at times all children break rules, for a variety of reasons. The concern is over what

identifies the acts and the students that attract the label of “deviant” or SEBD. Is it the acts that concern us or rather the reactions of those involved, especially the reaction of those who wield power?

Labelling a student in the manner discussed also removes a school’s obligation to look at its own practices to ascertain whether its environment or curriculum could be possible barriers to learning (Warnock, 1978). Croll and Moses (2001) found that only 1% of head teachers and 2% of teachers in their study attributed emotional and behavioural difficulties to the school or the teacher. In the recent Education (Additional Support Needs) (Scotland) Act (SE, 2004) there is a requirement that the phrase “additional support needs” should be used instead of the former special educational needs label. It was felt that this term would eliminate the perceived divide between special needs, support for learning, able children and children for whom English is an additional language and would include pupils with SEBD who had previously been excluded. It is stated in the Act that additional support needs should be thought of in terms of “access to an appropriate curriculum and removing barriers to participation, rather than being seen as a deficit model” (p. 2). Warnock (1978) proposed exactly the same thing twenty years earlier. How are these barriers to be removed? Surely a major barrier to participation is the attitude of teachers similar to those described by Croll and Moses (2001)? It is the professionals who wield the most power and it is their perspectives that shape the way students are included or categorised (Allen, in Booth & Ainscow, 1998). The apparent move from the medical model is a welcome one as it shifts the responsibility to teachers and schools and encourages them to take a more direct role in developing practical responses to students. This should be accompanied by more recourse to theories of education to guide and inform practice (Didaskalou, 2002; GTCS, 2003). The metaphor of barriers to participation and learning needs some consideration. It conjures up physical images (Thomas & Loxley, 2001). The physical imagery may lead to a perception that barriers are removed by interventions of a mechanistic nature. There may be some danger, mentioned earlier; that there is seen to be a menu of strategies, which, if enacted, will solve the problems of all issues of conduct. In fact, there have been a number of publications suggesting a range of techniques that can be applied to classroom situations. Although the Joint Action Plan (SEED, 2001c) does not suggest explicitly the use of such packages, the writer believes it to be insinuated. For

example, the use of the phrase “positive discipline” (never clearly defined) is reminiscent of Assertive Discipline (Canter & Canter, 1992) The merits of the behaviourist approach will be discussed in Chapter 5, but the preceding literature in this paragraph would suggest such a form of behaviour management has a powerful influence on current policy. A philosophical approach draws back from the difficulty always lying within the individual. However, it does concentrate on what we value as a society. There must be universal acceptance that our schools, along with other social institutions, have conventions and standards that are rooted in society’s traditions (Speirs, in Clough & Corbett, 2000). Educational establishments model society’s values and at present it seems that society values high academic attainment and conformity. The very fact that the culture of the school promotes conformity means there may be dissent from among the pupils. This dissent may take the form of inappropriate conduct. It has been argued (Corbett, 1998) that we may be getting the anti-social behaviours that our society deserves. The latter part of the 20th century saw mass adult and youth unemployment. There was a shift away from traditional industry and a lack of societal rôle models. The stability of our society was threatened. Historically, young people have behaved in both school and community in a variety of ways that have expressed stress, disturbance or disaffection with the accepted values and practices espoused by that community. Early research into this behaviour tended to identify it with an underlying malfunction of the individual or his or her family. This malfunction required analysis and treatment (Tyerman, 1968). Research in the 1980s argued that disruptive behaviour might be an indication of faults within the educational system itself, rather than the deficit model accepted earlier. Galloway and Goodwin (1987) looked closely at other contexts as well as familial and individual characteristics. We now accept that there is a range of causes for behaviour which is considered inappropriate or difficult. This range includes both the environment of the school and the local community. However, educators need to accept that there are communities within society where the values espoused do not match the values within our schools and education system as a whole. The difference in values is not problematic till the children of those communities come to school and do not fit neatly into the system. Within schools there is an implicit understanding that educators manage conduct by imposing a framework within which certain behaviours are prohibited (Foucault, 1982). Historically, schools have sought to punish or later, exclude students who did not conform to a norm, a course of action no longer

condoned by Scottish government. Now educators must accommodate all students, including those whose behaviour proves challenging to the system.

The Language of Inclusion

There have recently been tensions surrounding the whole inclusion debate (Hornby, 1999; Wilson 1999, 2000; Garner & Gains, 2000). It may be that there is not a shared understanding of what is meant by inclusion. Government, local authorities and practitioners may all be discussing issues of inclusion from discrete viewpoints. The differences in points of views relate to inclusion as a “placement” and participation in common learning experiences as opposed to an approach that welcomes and celebrates diversity and values all pupils for their contribution (Visser, Cole & Daniels, 2002). The emphasis on placements is challenging to schools because of the practicalities that such an approach poses. Schools may feel that they fail to be inclusive because staff members lack skills to support the substantial differences in learners; because the physical environment is inappropriate; or because they feel pressure not to exclude in cases where conduct is involved. There may be tensions in matching the need for inclusive education with meeting targets and raising attainment in a climate of financial control. Corbett (2000) suggested that it is difficult to promote community values, social learning and co-operation, the basis of inclusive education, in such a climate.

Valuing diversity is not unproblematic. Oliver (1992) suggested that inclusion is a process that demands changes in the ethos of schools. It demands a commitment from all members of staff to reducing barriers to participation and to promote learning for all pupils. More than this, it requires the commitment of quality support offered to schools. While recognising that, in inclusion terms, pupils with behavioural difficulties are far more difficult to include than other pupils, many schools do not yet have mechanisms in place to disseminate features of good, inclusive practice. This is despite a number of government initiatives highlighting and attempting to disseminate features of successful inclusion and good practice in all sectors of education (see, for example, SEED, 2001a; HMIE, 2002c; SEED, 2004).

Inclusion and exclusion in education are linked with inclusion and exclusion in society, and this is not only in Scotland or the UK (Corbett, 1998). As with all

concepts, these need to be clarified, defined and have their philosophical underpinnings justified. The situation of increasing unemployment for the young, in particular and increasing wealth for other sectors is mirrored in other European and Antipodean countries.

There are some difficulties associated with looking at the development of new thinking on inclusion. This is because of the segregation in the past of special and mainstream ideologies. This is further complicated by our own constructs of special needs and how these should be responded to. Worse, not all views are explicitly stated; they are often to be inferred from the structures and systems in place in the different sectors of education. How a local authority, a school, a department or a teacher constructs both a problem and its solution depends on traditions of practice in that situation (Clough & Corbett, 2000). A range of beliefs, countless sorts of practice and individual and group struggles have helped to make inclusion a multi faceted issue. It is perhaps because of this that when it comes down to allocation of funds from the public purse and subsequent accountability for funds allocation that the complexities of the issues become apparent . Most would agree with the basic principle that all students should have the same right of access to education but individual interests sometimes surface. Clough and Corbett (2000) categorised some of these interests into five main groupings:

- the psycho-medical model
- the sociological perspective
- the curricular approach
- school improvement approach
- a disabilities studies critique.

In general terms, we have moved chronologically from the psycho-medical model, through the others, towards the disabilities studies critique. However, none of these are entirely separate or exclusive and one can see remnants of perspectives which may appear dated in aspects of practice and policy making today. That point is expanded in the following brief subsections on each of the five groupings.

A Psycho-medical Model of Inclusion

The psycho-medical model, as one might expect, looked at inclusion from a medical viewpoint initially and then more from a psychological aspect. After assessment, a

deficit within the student could be identified and measured by an educational psychologist. No consideration was made of any correlation between the presentation and content of a task and the student's success in performing it. Reactive measures were taken to upgrade the student's basic skills, most often in numeracy and literacy. This was the approach described and argued against by HMI (1978).

A Sociological Perspective on Inclusion

In contrast, the sociological response concentrated on social disadvantage rather than a deficit within the student. Sociologists questioned the rationale for special education and the professional roles associated with it. These were challenged as being symptomatic of oppression, at structural, cultural and institutional level. Professionals had a vested interest in maintaining the status quo as they maintained a position of power (Tomlinson, 1982). A political aspect was introduced to the inclusion debate, again concerning funding and resource allocation. Was it best value investing in the education of students who might not be economically profitable or necessarily useful (Clough & Corbett, 2000)? More positively, proponents of the sociological aspect of inclusion argued that inclusion was not in itself the end, but a means to shaping a society where all forms of oppression were removed (Barton 1998, in Clough & Corbett, 2000). However, one might argue that a sociological response to inclusion discusses only society's shortcomings, and schools' mirroring of these, rather than providing practical suggestions for change.

A Curricular Approach to Inclusion

An almost parallel development challenging the psycho-medical perspective was the curricular approach, which contended that there was a range of curricular changes that could be introduced to facilitate inclusion. These could range from highly individualised planning to the total reorganisation of a whole school day for certain pupils. This style of working is in the tradition of the mid-20th century work of Burt (1937) and Schonell (1942) who advocated managing pupils' special needs by small group coaching at regular intervals, but within a mainstream setting. In this approach, inclusion was concerned with the child being rehabilitated to fit the curriculum. The idea of fitting the child to the curriculum was looked at from the perspective of mainstream educators. There were curricular differences between mainstream and special schools, and so it was believed that mediating the curriculum and its delivery

would increase the chances of the articulation of a special pupil's curriculum with that of the curriculum of "normal" education. How successful was inclusion, it was argued, depended on the curriculum. This view still exists in policies that are many years on from Burt and Schonell. The Joint Action Plan (2001c) makes reference to it when it states that it "will provide guidelines... on the degree of curricular flexibility... within current guidelines" (SEED, 2001c, p. 4).

A School Improvement Approach to Inclusion

Another approach to educational support for many years has been the use of objectives in meeting learners' needs. This involves setting objectives or targets, choosing the materials and the experiences, a choice of teaching methods and finally evaluating the appropriateness of the objectives and the method of their achievement (Warnock, 1978). This approach responded to awareness that, in a large number of cases, special educational needs were compounded or even caused by teaching conditions. School improvement strategies perhaps responded to some of the issues of inclusion arising from linking it with the ideology and commitment to comprehensive schooling. These are still very much at the forefront of both government and school policies. However, school improvements raise a number of interesting questions. What are the improvements to be made and for what purpose? Who defines improvement? Effective schools may not be effective for all, and for all purposes. In the case of issues of conduct, national policy clearly links effective schooling with both improving behaviour and raising attainment, but within the constraints of an, as yet, undefined "flexible curriculum" (SEED, 2001, p. 4). Do effective or improved schools guarantee inclusion? This theme will be further developed later in this thesis, in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight.

A Disabilities Studies Critique Approach to Inclusion

Schools and local authorities operate in ways that are influenced by national policies and legislation. These, in turn, reflect political, social economic and technological changes in society. The disability studies critique places the issue of inclusion in the wider perspective of social inclusion, inclusion in employment and housing. The new Labour Party defined social exclusion as a "shorthand term for what can happen when people or areas suffer from a combination of linked problems such as unemployment, poor skills, low incomes, poor housing, high crime environments bad health and

family breakdown” (<http://www.socialexclusionunit.gov.uk/>, 2002). Oliver (1988) argued that much could be learned from studying the relationship between social policy and education policy. Policy development in one area influences those in separate areas. The Labour Party saw social exclusion as a policy theme. Education had a key role in this theme in the modernisation of the government and in national renewal education was therefore a priority (Catterall, Cryer, & Preston, 1997). It was to be the “main means of delivering economic competitiveness, and in doing so, combating social exclusion” (Lister, 2000, in Alexiadou, 2002). A causal relationship was therefore established between “social inclusion and educational success” (Alexiadou, 2002, p. 72). The issues of social inclusion or exclusion are not clear-cut. There are a number of discourses relating to them, not only in Britain but also in the wider European context. Social exclusion can therefore be perceived differently at the stages of policy making generally and so the educational response can vary (Alexiadou, 2002). However, there are clearly positive correlations among poverty levels, lack of academic achievement and issues of conduct (Croll, 2001).

What, then, is meant by the term inclusive education? In Scotland, as in the rest of Britain, the term inclusion now generally replaces the term integration. It appears to encompass participation, community, curriculum, culture and mainstream. The Index of Inclusion (CSIE, 2002) contains a number of definitions of inclusion all mentioning these concepts. All students should be involved in participation in curricula, culture and school community, not only those with impairments or who are “categorised as having special educational needs” (<http://inclusion.uwe.ac.uk/csie/csiefaqs.htm>, 2002). HM Inspectorate of Education (HMIE) states that a much broader definition of inclusive education is appropriate, in Scotland and elsewhere. No longer should the term be reserved for students who are perceived to have additional support needs in mainstream schooling, but instead should encompass an “entitlement of all pupils to receive a high quality experience from the education system” (HMIE, 2002a, para. 1.4). However, despite the range of concepts that inclusion allegedly encompasses, there may be a tendency for the term to be applied to those who are labelled as being disabled in some way or having additional support needs.

Can there be a discussion on inclusion without reference to exclusion? Does our system see inclusion and exclusion as two separate issues? It is very difficult to talk about one concept without making implications about its opposite (Booth & Ainscow, 1998). The term exclusion is almost entirely reserved for the formal disciplining event where a student is excluded from the school. Exclusion from school is an approach to indiscipline that started after the abolition of corporal punishment in education authority schools in the 1970s. There was a need to devise systems to maintain and promote discipline in schools in the absence of corporal punishment. Many of the approaches adopted led to concerns about the growth of over-elaborate referral systems and the increasing use of exclusion from school as a sanction for disruptive behaviour. Nowadays it is recognised that exclusion raises the important issue of pupils' right to education. "The challenge for schools is to minimise exclusion with its attendant undesirable consequences for the individual concerned, whilst ensuring that the effective education of other pupils is not disrupted" (SEED, 2001, p. 5). HMIE (2002a) appeared to recognise that there is tension between physically including pupils whose behaviour can be challenging, by catering for their individual needs and ensuring that other students' learning is not compromised. They exemplify good practical initiatives which celebrate opportunities rather than difficulties, and appear upbeat in tone. However, talk of accountability, targets and effectiveness changes the emphasis to one of strategic planning which will deliver inclusiveness in schools.

However, the issue of exclusion can be considered in a far more general sense than just a physical exclusion. The "hidden curriculum" — the most important expression of a school's value system, (SCCC, 1991), the ethos of establishment, and the values and attitudes of individual practitioners can all, independently or as a whole lead to a pupil being excluded from the community of the school. HMIE suggest that the art of providing a "high quality educational experience" should be delivered by ensuring conditions are "right" (HMIE, 2002a, para. 1.5) in individual classrooms. This should be achieved by careful planning at schools and local authority level, and by developing a range of specialist provision and support.

HMIE describes ethos, climate and school community. "The ethos established within a school community is of fundamental importance in establishing a climate in which every individual can prosper" (HMIE, 2002a, p. 13). The idea of a community is a

commendable idea and often a metaphor for positive organisations representing a place where there are shared values, and support. Members of the community all have rights which are protected. However, this may also be a false metaphor, for communities have a range of problems and are not always positive for all of their members. In many school communities, both teachers and pupils have unpleasant experiences. The DTG talks of developing a positive learning environment which provides opportunities for a diversity of abilities and experiences to be developed. Schools, they suggest, should take a nurturing rôle in respect of developing the sorts of skills that will enable children to take their place in society (SEED, 2001, para. 1.8). In this manner, all children should feel included and valued.

This chapter has discussed the language used in the context of inclusion and conduct. The next chapter goes on to discuss how some teachers, in a Scottish local authority experience inclusion in reality.

CHAPTER FIVE

REALITIES OF INCLUSION

Introduction

It is clear from the reviewed literature that national and local government and practitioners have disparate, subjective and far from clear interpretations of the concepts of inclusion and behaviour. Education in 21st century Scotland adheres to the principles of the provision of a broad and balanced curriculum, with emphasis on gaining skills which will enable young people to fulfil fully their rôles as citizens. It involves the development not only of their mental and physical capabilities but is concerned also with their personalities and talents (Scottish Executive Education Department (SEED), 2000). Allied to this vision there is a presumption in law that all children will be educated in their local mainstream school (Scottish Parliament, 2000). Within the diverse range of children in mainstream primary schools there are those whose behaviour in class presents a challenge to the teacher. These children are now recognised to have additional support needs (Scottish Parliament, 2004). My experience of working in the field of support made me aware of the tensions that practitioners admit to feeling in including pupils with behaviour which can be inappropriate and meeting government calls for raised attainment for pupils in general.

The first part of this chapter reports on a survey carried out in a Scottish local authority. The survey aimed to gather data regarding the realities of the inclusion of young people with conduct issues. The first section of the survey describes the gathering of the data. The second section presents three main areas of concern which emerge from the data:

- A shared understanding of the terminology
- A shared understanding of the rôles of both class teachers and behaviour support teachers
- Teacher attitudes to inclusion

The second part of the chapter looks in detail at the teacher as a manager. The importance of this rôle emerged from an analysis of the data concerning the perceptions of all the staff involved in working together to support youngsters whose behaviour was perceived as challenging in class.

The Survey

Rationale and Context for Data Collection

Teachers' views on the concept and practice of inclusive education were sought. In particular the views of the available support for maintaining children with troublesome behaviour in class required to be ascertained. Was there was a consensus on what behaviours in classroom made inclusion difficult, and access to support essential? Data gathering was based in schools within one Scottish education authority (anonymised as Coastview). The teachers involved all taught in mainstream primary schools, some as regular class teachers and others as specialist behaviour support teachers. This authority was piloting a programme where schools bid for the services of a behaviour support teacher, drawn from a small team.

Sample

There are perceived to be challenges in the inclusion in primary schools of youngsters whose behaviour is considered difficult to manage. One Scottish local authority set out to meet these challenges by creating an integrated framework for the support of these youngsters. The support system was underpinned by the council's vision of inclusive education as it related to pupils considered to have problems with their conduct. The writer was part of a team of three researchers, commissioned to evaluate the system for the local authority. The writer's rôle in the team was to undertake data gathering in the primary sector and from teachers who were members of the behaviour support team. The questioner was close to the participants but was able to maintain a distance that was appropriate in research terms.

All 53 primary schools in the local authority were included in the survey, and questionnaires were sent to all head teachers. A return of 67% of the schools was achieved. Of those, 47% were from head teachers who had behaviour support teachers allocated to their school as a result of the implementation of the integrated framework of support. The remaining 53% were those who had no such provision. The same

questionnaires were issued by post to all primary teachers, 511 in total. There was response of 201 which can be considered gratifying under the circumstances because the result was achieved by cold calling with no obligation to complete required by the teachers' employer. Of these responses, 147 were from teachers who stated they were aware of the existence of the framework for support and 54 were unaware of it.

In addition to questionnaires, the survey included data gathering by interview from two groups, behaviour support teachers and head teachers. The behaviour support teachers were a team of nine other teachers, all of whom were interviewed informally, using a semi structured framework built on the four themes discussed in the next section. Finally, head teachers were interviewed. The head teachers were selected at random from each of the two groups, those receiving support and those not, by picking school names from a hat. Five were from the 47% of schools accessing the support service and five from the 53% of schools who had no access to this support.

The writer makes no claim for the representativeness of these samples but would argue that they are a considerable body of relevant opinion in the case of the questionnaire study , and an appropriate use of a key witness approach in the case of the interviews.

Procedure

The method chosen for the study drew on the tradition of grounded theory, in that it began with data rather than with any specific hypothesis about including pupils with inappropriate conduct. Instead it aimed to “bracket out” hypotheses (see, for example, Creswell, 1998), and to clarify and give a “thick description” of how inclusion is revealed in school practice. Inevitably, there was also an element of phenomenology in the methods used, particularly in the preparation stage when the study centred on participants' perceptions of what is inappropriate conduct and support. The study progressed through three stages: preparation, data gathering from the field and from documents and the first level of analysis.

Preparation

In order to judge whether teachers clearly understood the ideology behind Coastview's Integrated Support System (a system designed to include all students), it

was necessary to look for key words which were important in defining what the council's Support System was intended to achieve. Preliminary interviews with personnel involved in policy-making within the council frequently used a selection of words and phrases which exemplified what they expected in terms of the rôles of both class teachers and support team teachers. The keywords and phrases selected were "joined up working", "interagency working", "a multi agency approach", and "teamwork across several disciplines". The use of these words in discussion or in questionnaire responses would indicate staff's awareness of the "bigger picture" in supporting youngsters with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties.

A questionnaire was distributed to all head teachers in Coastview's primary sector after piloting this instrument with experienced colleagues. Questionnaires are recognised as a dependable and rapid means of gathering basic data from a target population (Robson, 1998). The rationale for the construction of the questionnaire was as follows. I identified what I perceived to be four important themes (listed below) from experience and the results of the preliminary interviews mentioned above. The dependability of these themes for this stage of the research can be asserted, first, on the grounds that they have a basis in preliminary data — the experience of key witnesses and of the writer herself — and, second, that their relevance was affirmed in discussion with experienced colleagues. These four themes would inform the construction of questionnaires for gathering basic data and for eliciting as much information as possible on inclusion of children whose behaviour caused concern. The themes were as follows.

- Awareness and understanding of support system
- What children were being supported
- Accessibility of support
- Effectiveness of support

I chose to use open ended questions in the questionnaires to enable the participants more freedom to express their thoughts (Robson, 1998). The same questionnaire was then issued to all primary teachers in Coastview authority primary schools (Appendix A). These comprised urban, rural and island schools. Teachers from the support team were interviewed in pairs and the same themes were used to inform the semi-structured interview format.

Data Gathering

The four themes listed above were explored in both the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews but participants were encouraged to digress from them and elaborate upon their perceptions of the organisation and effectiveness of the support on offer. Questionnaires were delivered to participants either through their head teacher or by post and were collected by the researcher, or returned by post.

First Level of Analysis

Interviews were tape-recorded and transcripts made. Notes were also made at the time of interview. Interviewees were given an outline of the four structuring themes as a guide to the interview.

The transcripts, notes and questionnaires were the data for the first level of analysis. A review of the results showed the characteristics summarised in the following bulleted lists under the subsection headings of the Results.

Results

Theme 1 — Awareness and Understanding of Support System

- Most head teachers in primary schools were aware of the support system. Not all demonstrated understanding of its working.
- Class teachers were only aware of the support system if they had a child who was supported by it.

Head teachers were clear in most cases that the support system encompassed the principles of multi-agency working; the idea of a holistic approach to meeting the needs of the young people with social, emotional and behavioural problems. The head teachers in schools which used the system were generally more aware than class teachers of the agencies involved and the principles behind the Integrated Support System. This was in sharp contrast to the understanding of the teachers in most schools. It was clear that most teachers were unaware of what the system actually was. Five only of the 201 teachers made reference to support agencies. One respondent referred to “behaviour support, social work and other appropriate agencies” and another mentioned “teachers, social work, parents and other agencies”.

The other three used “other agencies”, “multi-agency”, and agencies”. A number of teachers said they were unaware of the system, but then described a system in the same terms as those who indicated they were aware of it. This was described by some as speculation: given the terminology they felt they could make an informed guess. It appeared that many of the teachers knew that there was a policy for supporting young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties but related it to their own experience, or that of other staff members in their school, rather than understanding any ideology underpinning it, or knowing how it should fit with the concept of inclusion.

Theme 2 — Who Were the Children Being Supported?

- There were issues surrounding the criteria for provision of support from behaviour support teacher
- Support took a variety of forms
- Most children supported were male

The council had a clear perception of the children who would be supported by the team of behaviour support teachers. However, the individual schools felt that the provision of support needed to have more flexibility, for example, in terms of responding to crisis situations and cases where there was involvement of no other agencies. The behaviour support teachers’ remits were intended to be wide and varied, and to include the five rôles for support outlined in Effective Provision for Special Educational Needs (EPSEN) (SOED, 1994). Some head teachers and teachers indicated a preference for one to one support, out with the classroom. There were 85 pupils supported by behaviour support teachers while the evaluation exercise was being carried out. Of these 73 were male and 12 were female.

Theme 3 — Accessibility of Support

- Procedures were not always transparent
- The system was constantly being altered
- Not all schools had access to support

The council had put in place an operational guide that outlined the rôle and function of the team of behaviour support teachers. This included an audit system which

involved head teachers, staff, other professionals and SEN adviser. Head teachers criticised the audit process because of the amount of paperwork generated and the lack of explicit criteria for support allocation. The system was constantly evolving, management changed and there was also mention made of a lack of continuity of behaviour support teachers. Some schools had no access to the behaviour support teachers because of their location.

Theme 4 — Effectiveness of Support

- Neither class head teachers, class teachers or behaviour support teachers felt that the system was effective
- The training of behaviour support teachers was questioned
- There were issues regarding communication of values and ideals.
- Lack of understanding of the rôles of personnel involved in support
- Lack of understanding of behaviour support teachers' remits
- Allocation of support time was too limited
- There were issues regarding personnel management

There was a wide range of views expressed regarding the integrated support system, but generally the perceptions of most respondents were negative in terms of its effectiveness. Both head teachers and class teachers expressed doubts regarding the qualifications of the behaviour support teachers, and indeed the training of the behaviour support teachers varied. There was a lack of common understanding of both the rôles of the behaviour support teachers and their management. This misunderstanding may also have contributed to the perception that the time allocated to each school for support was considered too short.

The data was then scrutinised for statements that appeared to have significance by a small team of colleagues which included the writer. That scrutiny concluded that three new principal themes were recurring in the data, though the perception of primary school staff and the behaviour support team teachers each differed slightly. These themes concerned (1) shared understanding of terminology, (2) the rôles of the class teacher and behaviour support teacher and (3) attitudes towards inclusion. They will now be discussed in that sequence.

Discussion of Themes from Findings

(1) What is “Inappropriate Behaviour” — A Shared Understanding?

There appeared to be a discrepancy between, on the one hand, what Coastview Local Authority and the behaviour support team teachers in the survey sample considered to be severe conduct issues and, on the other, those considered severe by class teachers. The behaviour team were assigned to support children described as “high tariff” or “at the edge”. Teachers on the other hand, may have been describing a lower level of disruptive behaviour that occurs on a day to day basis. This can be very stressful, but might ultimately be managed by changes in classroom management and in-school support mechanisms, including the allocation of behaviour support teachers and classroom assistants.

I referred a child who I felt had very serious behaviour problems. I heard nothing and just had to cope. It was really stressful. (Class teacher)

I was told that I was there (in a support rôle) to meet the needs of the child/children with the most severe behaviour problems. In reality I am often dealing with a much bigger group. (Behaviour support teacher)

There appeared to be need for some more clarification of support criteria. The issues of criteria for support and the terminology used may also have affected the relationships between the class teacher, the head teacher and the behaviour support teacher. The use of normative terms such as “high tariff behaviour” or even the label “social, emotional and behavioural difficulties” implies there is a common understanding of what is meant by these terms, and it appeared that this was not the case. A shared understanding of what is difficult or inappropriate behaviour in a classroom context is essential for effective and inclusive practice. All adults involved should agree the definition of indiscipline in each classroom before any strategies are put in place. The teacher, as manager, has a leading rôle in the discussion.

(2) Rôles of the Class Teacher and Behaviour Support Teacher

Primary head teachers felt that their understanding of the rôle and remit of those involved in supporting children with conduct issues was clear. The responses regarding the function of the team members were vague, with only four head teachers

explicitly mentioning any of the key rôles of behaviour support teachers such as tutoring, cooperative teaching, consultancy or staff development. Implicit in all responses was the support of specialist services described in EPSEN (SOED, 1994) as “using their unique position to provide exceptional services to individual pupils” (SOEID, 1998a, p. 24). However, as mentioned already, the quality of this service was an issue. Despite alleging that the remit was clear, these head teachers either chose to ignore or not make use of the specific rôles of the behaviour support teacher in consultancy, liaison and co-operative class teaching. Many class teachers were unsure of the rôle of the behaviour support team and some teachers felt that the behaviour support teachers were themselves unsure of their rôle.

Not all the behaviour support teachers could describe their rôle in the same terms as outlined in their official remit. They expressed the view that the rôle of behaviour support teachers across Coastview was diverse and they did not necessarily see this as positive. The actual rôle depended very much on the school and how the head teachers interpreted the behaviour support teacher’s rôle. The behaviour support teachers saw their rôle as wide and varied: for example, support on one to one, in-class co-operative work, supporting and advising class teachers, working with parents, home visiting, devising resources, curriculum support. However, it was evident that whereas a number of class teachers understood the wide rôle and worked with the behaviour support teacher in these ways, many did not appear to understand or appreciate this rôle fully, particularly where it related to in-class support.

In School X I feel my rôle is well understood and my skills widely utilised but in School Y I feel like a highly paid classroom assistant. (Behaviour support teacher)

This comment raises questions about the effectiveness of the mechanisms that authorities and schools put in place to communicate expectations. It is essential that systems ensure that not only senior managers but class teachers understand and support the extended rôle of the behaviour support teacher in school. It is important to emphasise the balance of views, attitudes and expectations. In many schools, the behaviour support teacher’s rôles of collaboration and co-operation functioned very well and were viewed positively. However, the rôle was an issue for a number of

schools where practice was still dominated by a deficit philosophy in relation to disruptive behaviour, in that it was seen as a problem of the child that had to be remedied by the system.

(3) Attitudes Towards Inclusion

The respondents divided into three groups of roughly equal size (around 30 members). The first and largest group included those teachers and head teachers who felt that they could espouse the idea of inclusion, but only where there adequate additional support was available. Such teachers described this support as ideally daily, on a one to one basis and involving the removal of pupils from the classroom if their behaviour became disruptive.

Disruption was defined as disturbing the other pupils' work, and this included taking up a disproportionate amount of the class teacher's time. Across the sample, 33% of teachers felt that the inclusion of pupils with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties was detrimental to the education of others in all circumstances. The reasons given for this included a "lack of time" for teachers to deal with issues of conduct, and issues of "the rights of normal children" to have education.

The views of class teachers were broadly in line with those of head teachers who responded in terms of a balance between the rights of children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties and the rights of others in the class. There were frequent references to "normal children" when discussing inclusion, implying that those with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties were in some way abnormal. This observation is similar to that made by teachers in the study conducted by Armstrong and Galloway (1994) where teachers described particular pupils as disturbed. There is an issue in the use of language of this sort. It perhaps denies the complexity of circumstances that interrelate to create the difficulties a child is experiencing. These complex circumstances may of course be within the child alone but the act of applying labels may suggest that this is indeed the case, and teachers can feel absolved from responsibility. If children are regarded as "abnormal" then this changes the focus of the response to the needs of the child from the mainstream classroom teacher to someone else. No comments were made about adapting or changing methods of teaching or delivery of the curriculum to accommodate the needs of children with behavioural difficulties. This might be because most teachers implied

that the children had to fit the current system, not that the system might have to be altered to include a diverse range of pupils. Some did admit, however, that they felt unqualified to deal with issues such as behaviour.

I am not trained to deal with disruptive pupils. (Class teacher)

It is just assumed that you will be able to handle badly behaved pupils even though no training is provided. (Class teacher)

These comments exemplify the perspective, discussed by Galloway and Goodwin (1987) and described earlier that teachers felt it was not their rôle to support troublesome pupils . This point of view causes some concern, because a positive inclusive school ethos in which all pupils are valued has been consistently shown from research (see for example, Munn, Cullen, Johnstone, & Lloyd (1997); Visser, Cole, & Daniels, 2002) to be an important factor in promoting positive behaviour.

There was a perception among a few teachers that inclusion would never be appropriate for some children because of circumstances external to the school. These teachers felt that, “some children will never fit in no matter what we do due to home circumstances” (Class teacher). Across the sample 32% of respondents felt that children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties deserved a higher quality of support than mainstream schools could offer. They felt that these children would be better catered for in a unit or special school, where it was perceived that appropriately qualified staff would be better able to cater for their needs. Only a few teachers agreed wholeheartedly that inclusion was something which if achieved could positively transform schools.

I believe it is a positive step forward for these children and their families. It raises awareness and positive challenges that need informed approaches, team effort and professional support. (Class teacher)

Teachers and head teachers were in agreement that inclusion of youngsters with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties caused staff additional stress. This may

have been in part caused by what some teachers felt were tensions between raising attainment and including children who are disaffected and disruptive in the classroom.

Head teachers further responded to issues of inclusion by mentioning the alternative – exclusion. This was universally agreed to be the last resort. However, many discussed the procedure known as “agreed withdrawal”. This was an informal exclusion permitted by the council, as an extended “time out” out with the school. This was employed to allow those involved in incidents to calm down, without recourse to formal exclusion procedures. Some head teachers felt they required more guidance on when this procedure could be used. Others however, saw it as a way of “massaging exclusion figures”. There were also comments about inclusion being achieved at all costs, rather than being seen as an issue of young peoples’ rights, or even relating the issues of social, emotional and behavioural difficulties to special educational needs.

Teachers also related issues of inclusion to parents. Some felt that the wider parental community was unaware of the problems that the inclusion of young people with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties in mainstream classes caused. Others placed the blame for those with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties squarely with parents and home circumstances.

Behaviour support teachers, on the other hand, were clearer in their understanding of the concept of inclusion and saw their rôle as supporting children with conduct difficulties in order that they could remain in mainstream schools. However, they saw their rôle as a multi-faceted one, concerned far more with a holistic or all-encompassing approach to behaviour management than the class teachers. This aspect had been eroded until the behaviour support teacher became a provider of respite for the class teacher. Being respite providers reduced their opportunities to address the deep-rooted sources of the behavioural difficulty and of supporting the teacher in maintaining an inclusive ethos within the classroom.

I am seen to be there to provide respite for the class teacher and pupils as opposed to trying to resolve the behavioural difficulties. (Behaviour support teacher)

EPSEN (1994) clearly outlined the rôles of support staff in meeting additional support needs of youngsters and a plan of intervention which was based on phases of support involving a range of personnel. The introduction of plans known as Individualised Educational Plans (IEP) and soon, Coordinated Support Plans, means that clarity of rôles in support need to be addressed. This is because these plans are contributed to by a wide range of people, from pupils to other professionals, both in education and other supporting agencies. Therefore, the issue of rôle clarity brings with it the question of management of rôles and support.

The issue of management of personnel working with students whose behaviour was seen as inappropriate was clearly an issue in Coastview and deserves further consideration. Some might say that the management of personnel is the rôle of the head teacher, and indeed it is, by and large. However, there is perhaps a case to be made for the teacher manager. The concept of management is explored in greater detail now, in the final section of the chapter.

Provision of Effective Support — Teachers as Managers and Leaders

It is clear from the data discussed above that there needs to be an examination of how the rôle of teachers may have to change in order to manage support staff. Perhaps the concepts of a teacher's rôle must be altered so that the functions which other adults perform can be understood by teachers. Many teachers believe that teaching is a solitary activity but the reality today is that there is often another adult present. To maximize the support rôle of another adult, teachers must clearly understand the rôles of those involved and they must be prepared to manage the involvement of other adults.

How well, then, are teachers currently able to adopt the rôle of managers and leaders in the classroom? A useful approach to discussing this question is to see it as an issue of systems, which, in educational terms can be analysed conveniently by Banathy's systems approach (Banathy, 1992; MacKay, McCartney, Cheseldine, & McCool, 1996). This approach has four components; functions, structures, processes and system-environment interaction. At this point, it is worth introducing a small note of caution. These four components have often proved to be useful scaffolding for investigators trying to understand complex systems inside education, such as the

school, the classroom or the education authority. As scaffolding they are tools for operational purposes, rather than absolutes. A consequence of their less than absolute nature is that their boundaries may sometimes seem blurred in the discussions which follow. Therefore, the reader is asked to indulge the writer in accepting her specification of categories for the purpose of the argument which follows, an argument which is not dependent on their having an absolute value.

The first two components — functions and structures — allow us to look closely at the features in operation in a classroom (the structures) to achieve the goals identified by the system (the functions). To examine all the functions and structures which exist in a classroom is beyond the scope of this thesis. Here they will be used to address the means by which teachers attempt to manage the involvement of other adults in supporting positive pupil behaviour. First will come a discussion of two functions:

- how behaviour is defined within a classroom
- the communication of teachers' visions.

Thereafter three structures will be discussed

- support strategies within the classroom
- collaborative working
- teachers' management of other adults in the classroom.

Functions

Definition of Behavioural Difficulties — Creating Shared Meanings

Pupils with behavioural difficulties have what MacKay and McLarty (2003) term exceptional, additional or different needs. The most recent national draft legislation document describes young people for whom school education is unlikely to be a benefit without provision of additional support (SEED, 2004). This group of young people has been extended to include, officially, those with behaviour difficulties. The report, “Better Behaviour, Better Learning” (Discipline Task Group, 2001) outlined 36 recommendations which propose, among other things, prioritised funding for increased staffing to support positive discipline strategies in all schools (SEED, 2001b, p. 19). HMIE (2002c) conclude that among the features of inclusive practice there is a need for effective managers and leaders who can communicate and share a clear vision of inclusiveness.

The functions investigated below will include how teachers communicate their vision, and create shared meanings of acceptable behaviour, with supporting adults. This choice of functions is based on a sample of skills commonly described as key management skill, and is related to the specific concept of behaviour management in classrooms. Within structures, aspects to be considered will include support mechanisms in place in mainstream classrooms; collaborative working and management of other adults working in the classroom. In passing, it can be seen that the functions and structures are interlinked closely. Considering them separately simply allows the components of the systems to be seen in sharper relief.

The data discussed earlier in this chapter illuminates how it is difficult to define inappropriate conduct, when what is acceptable to one adult in the classroom may be unacceptable to another. The line between “misbehaviour” and “disruption” is very fine. Yet, shared understanding of what is difficult or inappropriate behaviour in a classroom context is essential for effective and inclusive practice. The definition of indiscipline in each classroom probably must be agreed by all the involved adults before any strategies are put in place. The teacher, as manager, has a responsibility to take the lead in the discussion. It is the class teacher’s responsibility to define clearly what is and is not acceptable in behaviour terms and to communicate this to the supporting adult.

Communicating Teachers’ Vision

Teachers may aspire to having classrooms where harmonious relationships exist, where there is mutual respect and where the needs of the pupils are the main point of focus. This vision may have personal aspects, but must support and correspond with national priorities and policies at school, local government and national government level.

It is clear that teachers, as lead players, need to establish strong lines of communication to impart the vision for their classes to all involved. There needs also to be a plan for how the vision will be realised, especially in relation to those children with difficult behaviour. The teachers must allow their vision to be influenced by the perceptions of all those involved in support. Teachers need to communicate the key

aspects of the vision espoused and invite interchange with other involved adults. In order to do this they must try to shape dialogue in a manner that will invite discussion and collaborative decision-making (Leithwood, 2001). If teachers are to form these collaborative relationships with other adults, they must consider how, together, the group can form an effective and efficient team. In the context of this chapter, the group are the adults supporting children with behavioural difficulties.

Inappropriate conduct is related to both context and transactions, and because of this it can become personalised and emotive, with a resultant apportioning of blame.

Clearly, as issues of conduct arise in schools from an interaction between a number of people, not just between teacher and pupil, the responses of all present may influence the conduct. As in all relationships, one person's behaviour towards another has consequences for the quality of the relationship. It is crucial that teachers understand the complexities of relationships in modern classrooms. All adults in the classroom must develop relationships with each other and, significantly, with individual pupils. Staff who work with students with difficult behaviour need to be motivated to respond positively. A recent study by Poulou and Norwich (2002) identifies that teachers who felt anger, indifference, lack of sympathy or irritation with pupils were less likely to help the student overcome their difficulties. It is the class teacher's responsibility to ensure that all adults in the classroom understand the need for positive attitudes.

In effective classroom teamwork, where a number of adults are responsible for support, each person needs to know their rôle. There need to be mechanisms in place to ensure that remits can be agreed. As well as a definition of rôles, there needs to be agreement on the expected results of support, in order that its effectiveness can be monitored and evaluated. As mentioned earlier, the teacher has to understand the purpose of the presence of each supporting adult, and the purpose will be defined by expectation of certain aims. In the research on behaviour support, children were expected to accept and internalise social standards of conduct and to "behave themselves," expectations which are implicit in educational establishments. This may be the objective against which the success of strategies is judged. However, it is necessary to be more explicit in setting criteria and these will vary according to the context and the individuals concerned. What is important, however, is that all those

involved in the classroom are aware of the criteria against which results will be judged.

I had a child in my class who received a lot of one to one support. When he was in class without support he reverted back to his bad behaviour. (Class teacher)

The questionnaire and interview survey indicated that if no positive change in behaviour was seen at all times, support was perceived as having failed, when clearly it may not have been the fault of the support personnel, but perhaps that of the school or class system. Teachers need to be able to highlight any gaps between the success criteria to which they aspired and what is being accomplished. They need to do this so that they can monitor the effectiveness of the strategies employed.

Structures

Support Strategies in Place in Mainstream Classrooms

In any school, on any day, in every classroom, a range of “behaviour management” approaches will be employed. Issues of conduct are related to the environment in which they occur. Doyle (1986) suggests that a class teacher has two main tasks in this respect — a rôle relating to promoting positive attitudes to learning in general and a managerial function of promoting order which includes classroom management strategies and management of other personnel in the room. The ideologies underpinning their response to issues of conduct range from the autocratic to the laissez faire, and these will be discussed in the next chapter. Educators need to be conversant with these ideologies to be clearer about appropriate practice and to be empowered as professionals. Some of these strategies will be prescriptive, suggested by senior managers or national guidelines. Others will have been arrived at after careful consideration of ideologies and of how these articulate with attitudes and values held by the teacher. In the past teachers were the sole adult in the classroom. They had to consider only their own attitudes and values and the effect that these had on the behaviour of the pupils. However, support strategies now often involve other personnel, and so teachers need to consider the views and attitudes of others when planning effective support strategies. Whatever approach to behaviour management is

taken, and whatever strategies are applied, a consistent approach must be taken within the classroom.

Collaborative Working

Of course, there is a process element in collaboration, but my concern here is with the structural aspects. A teacher's experience and success in collaborative working also has a major impact on the strategies which may be used. The teacher, who has ultimate responsibility for teaching and learning within the class, must take a lead rôle. Collaboration could be defined as working with others in a cooperative yet assertive manner to find a mutually satisfying solution. In order to take the lead rôle the class teacher should consult, liaise and plan with other adults who have a responsibility to support pupils. In the research, this form of collaborative working did not take place. Instead, class teachers felt that the allocation of support staff by senior management was arbitrary, not transparent and imposed. All supporting adults felt that the time allocated for working in individual classrooms was too little. In one of the studies support teachers commented that working with another adult in the classroom could be disruptive, as on occasions there were different expectations of standards of behaviour and work. In an earlier study by Calder (2003), classroom teachers had similar feelings at the beginning of the collaboration with classroom assistants but as routines were established, they began to value their contribution. Teachers stated that they would be unhappy to have their support withdrawn. Teachers were concerned about the quality of training and the experience of staff expected to take a supportive rôle.

Vulnerable children who present challenging and difficult behaviours tend to require the most highly trained staff. (Class teacher)

Few teachers were completely satisfied with their experience of working with other adults. Interestingly none blamed the lack of time for liaison, for clarifying rôles, for setting mutually acceptable goals, for monitoring and evaluating the success of the support for this dissatisfaction. Yet, clearly these issues are important in collaborative working. In one study the head teacher had arranged for liaison time for the classroom teachers and other supporting adults but this had felt to be unnecessary (Calder, 2003). The suggestion here is that the head teacher was taking a clear leadership rôle.

But to promote effective collaboration, this rôle should have been taken by the teacher when it was devolved by the head teacher. This would have enabled the classroom team to embrace goals and work together towards a situation for improved learning.

Management of Other Adults in the Classroom

To promote effective collaborative working, teachers must manage the other adults working in the classroom. Any current reference to management in the classroom usually means managing resources, curriculum planning and delivery and managing pupils. What additional skills do teachers require to be able to manage the involvement of other adults in the classroom as opposed to simply co-operating with them? The teacher manager has to:

- lead and organize
- direct
- train
- coach
- motivate
- supervise.

Five examples of “managerial” rôles are given below to illustrate this list.

- 1 After negotiation, the teacher as leader has to allocate the work to the other adults and tailor it to fit the needs of individual pupils while at the same time taking account of the wellbeing of the entire student body (Robertson, in Rogers, 2002).
- 2 The teacher has to provide the direction for all the supporting adults. Direction encompasses aspects of communicating vision, shared meaning and performance expectations. As discussed earlier, these should be arrived at through a process of collaboration.
- 3 The teacher must be prepared to train and coach other adults especially classroom assistants who will not have had teacher training. This training and coaching must be based on pedagogy and curriculum knowledge, and directed toward supporting youngsters with diverse needs.

- 4 The teacher manager must motivate the other adults who work within the classroom. The teacher should provide an appropriate model for the approaches she wishes used in supporting children with conduct difficulties. This should be carried out with sensitivity but can act as a way of enhancing other adults' beliefs about their own capabilities.
- 5 The teacher must adopt a supervisory rôle. The teacher manager is ultimately responsible for all that goes on in the classroom. Education is a hierarchical culture. In the past, management, in its most formal sense, was seen to be the function of those in positions of authority within the school. Supervision was the responsibility of someone higher up the hierarchy than the teacher. Until now, teachers have not been expected to take on a supervisory rôle because class teaching was seen to be a solitary activity. In this developing situation where teams of adults work in classrooms, classroom teachers have been reluctant to take on this new supervisory rôle (Calder & Grieve, 2003). This supervisory rôle is necessary to ensure that learning takes place in an effective and efficient manner. The eventual purpose of supporting children with behaviour difficulty is to raise attainment (SEED, 2001a) so teachers need to monitor and evaluate the work carried out by those in a supportive rôle.

Recent government policy in Scotland has changed the classroom environment and teachers must assimilate the consequences of the inclusion agenda and current understandings of social justice. In order to support the inclusion of students with conduct issues, the teacher has to fulfil a number of rôles in addition to facilitating learning. As part of that process the teacher has increasingly to be not only a team player in meeting individual needs (SED, 1978, SEED, 2001a), but also a team manager.

In the survey and the discussion of management that has just taken place, we have seen that there is a need for the teacher to manage not only the pupils' learning, but also the personnel involved in supporting that learning. However, there is a third element of management that deserves consideration and discussion. It is to the management of issues of conduct that we now turn.

CHAPTER SIX

MANAGING ISSUES OF CONDUCT

“...if the end in view is the development of a spirit of social co-operation and community life, discipline must grow out of it and be relative to such an aim” (Dewey, 1943, p. 16–17).

As children develop and begin to acquire a sense of identity, they learn what behaviours are considered appropriate and inappropriate in different contexts. They are expected to adopt the standards of conduct considered appropriate by their culture, and to do so without constant supervision. Children must learn to resolve the tensions arising from what they want to do — their personal desires, and what society expects they should do — social standards. This is done through an ability either to inhibit actions or to carry through actions to conform to pre-established rules even though they go against personal wishes. In other words, children are expected to accept and internalise social standards of conduct and to “behave themselves”. These expectations are implicit in educational establishments.

The data gathered and analysed in the previous chapter paints a picture of class teachers feeling beleaguered by the tensions caused by conflicting pressures of achievement and inclusion. They appear to lack confidence in their ability to support those pupils whose behaviour is challenging the expectations of classroom norms and also to lack confidence in their rôle of managers of the learning environment. Behaviour support teachers feel equally frustrated by the constraints caused by the schools’ systems (or lack of them) in fulfilling their multi-faceted rôles. In order to support youngsters whose conduct poses challenges to successful teaching and learning, teachers need to understand the basic principles of behaviour management. They can then make informed decisions about

- interventions and initiatives and their possible success
- approaches that best meet the needs of the pupils while being consistent with their personal and professional values.

This chapter sets out to address three issues.

- First, it sets the context of behaviour in a classroom and discusses briefly the purpose of discipline.
- Second, it describes a range of behaviour management styles, ranging from authoritarian to democratic and from child centred to system centred and examines the ideologies underpinning each style.
- Third, it critically assesses each style and reflects on the degree of endurance of the results.

Responding to Issues of Conduct — The Context

There are a variety of ways of dealing with indiscipline in schools and pre-five establishments. Following in the spirit of documents such as Effective Provision for Special Educational Needs (EPSEN) (SOED, 1994) and the Beattie report (SE, 1999), Better Behaviour — Better Learning (2001) on the surface advocates a holistic approach to learning. This move towards multi-disciplinary working may mean that we in education can draw from approaches used in other fields of expertise to meet pupils' needs. However, although these recent documents recognise that issues of conduct can have many causes, there is no explicit acknowledgment that some “management” responses can be entirely inappropriate in individual cases. Despite the opportunity to take a radical approach to issues of conduct, the suggestions made by SEED (2001b, c) in both Better Behaviour — Better Learning and the following Action Plan tend towards a narrow behavioural approach which admittedly has a reputation for success. But success in what, for whom and in what respect? Just as the idea of “needs” begs the question “whose needs?”, so too does the success of the behaviourist approach (Leach, 1999). Observations made over the years suggest that improvements in conduct are short term and often children fail to learn from experience. If learning is an experience which is cognitive, affective and societal then it follows that the handling of conduct should be approached in a similar manner. However, a narrow behaviourist based approach has its advantages in that pupils' competencies in interactions can be measured and this fits well with the government's concern about targets and accountability.

Just as there are different ideologies underpinning education, so it is with issues of conduct. Similarly, aims of education influence both governmental and practitioner response to conduct issues. Whatever are the aims, it should be recognised that issues of conduct are not temporary phenomena. There are many complex influences which may serve to promote unacceptable conduct and these too, need to be acknowledged. It was suggested by Bennathan (1997) that once complex factors, including social and psychological issues, are taken into account, problem conduct, especially in primary schools, might be regarded as “growth” or “development”. Educators should accept that handling troublesome or difficult behaviour is part of normal, rather than exceptional, provision.

Unfortunately, because conduct is related to both context and transactions, it can become personalised and emotive, with a resultant apportioning of blame. It is too easy to assume that violence or indiscipline is the result of individual impairment of some kind. This is derived from a deficit discourse, where the fault lies within the student. Clearly, as issues of conduct arise, in a school at least, from an interaction between a number of people, the responses of others may influence the conduct. As in all relationships, one person’s behaviour towards another has consequences for the quality of the relationship. This was highlighted in Chapter Five, where the data exemplified instances of differences of opinion between the class teachers and the behaviour support teachers. Weiner (1992) suggests that teachers’ approaches to inappropriate conduct do not entirely depend on each teacher’s perception of the cause of that conduct. Rather, they are based on affective reactions such as incomprehension, compassion, anger or friendliness. Teachers need to be motivated to respond positively to inappropriate conduct.

Teachers’ responses to inappropriate conduct may vary from situation to situation and from day to day. It is teacher response that alters a behaviour from one described by behaviourists as a primary behaviour to a secondary behaviour. Basically, the underlying premise is that interactions on the teacher’s part may exacerbate a situation. Described in behaviourist terms, a primary behaviour is the initial behaviour observed. It can be described as a behavioural excess, combination of behaviours or mistimed behaviour, and is either disruptive, that is, affecting the flow of learning for a whole group, or disengaging, that is, minimising a student’s learning. Primary

behaviours include off-task behaviours, aggression, vandalism, demeaning the task and violations of agreed rules. As far as teachers are concerned, the seriousness of these depends on whose rights are being violated and to what degree. A secondary behaviour is a student's negative response to a teacher's attempt to correct behaviour. It is typically a response to assertiveness on the part of the teacher (Rogers, 1997). Teachers may be aware that particular courses of action may produce a certain outcome, but if they are not totally convinced of their own effectiveness in implementing the course of action, then that action may not be successful (Bandura, 1982).

It could be argued that in order to promote positive attitudes to learning, the teacher must create an ordered environment in which learning is not just possible but probable. In this respect, the two rôles that Doyle (1986) assigns to teachers are closely intertwined. A learning environment should encompass relevant and attractive elements of curricula, thus motivating the students. This in turn should ensure their engagement in learning and therefore they will be less likely to be involved in inappropriate conduct. However, not all would agree with the aim of maintaining order purely for engagement with academic learning. Others (such as Rodd, 1996 and Kennett, 2001,) take a broader view and suggest that a teacher's rôle is bound up with preparing students to take their place in society as responsible competent members of their culture. To this end, perhaps the maintenance of order has to do with self-discipline rather than imposed discipline. Moreover, students might require to find ways of expressing feelings that are appropriate to maintaining their self-esteem and yet not compromising the rights of others. Perhaps inherent in this is teaching young people to cooperate with others so that there is at least an element of democracy within the school system. A school culture in which young people are encouraged to develop personal integrity, to make sound ethical choices and become confident in exercising their rights and social responsibilities could perhaps be a culture to be promoted. Thus, as with both a definition of education and a philosophy of education, there needs to be clarity of purpose on the part of government, both national and local, and practitioners.

Much of the writing on managing issues of conduct takes a reductionist approach. This may be because it offers a simplistic explanation for what is clearly a very

complex area. The reductionist approach allows policy makers to imply that the management of issues of conduct is easily achieved by following their prescribed route. Many of these routes are founded on mechanistic approaches to doing away with unwanted behaviours, without reference to life long learning. There is a focus on training as opposed to education: children are to be trained to behave in a certain way without any engagement in a learning process that will allow them to participate successfully in society. The policy makers' approach has been to pursue the behaviour agenda in a fragmented and isolated manner that has resulted in many initiatives and programmes (SEED, 2005). Perhaps what they should be considering is a greater emphasis on more comprehensive approaches; acknowledging the complexities of issues of conduct and addressing the whole concept of learning organisations and systems. In education, government, policy makers and teachers tend to identify issues or problems as independent of each other. In issues of conduct this has led to an approach where there has been little understanding that in order to prevent seriously unacceptable behaviour, response to inappropriate conduct involves a great deal more than reactive interventions, separate from the whole school experience (Hixson, 1994).

The nature of childhood, in terms of discipline, has been widely discussed in literature. Some see children as deficient in moral reasoning and cognitive skills (Canter & Canter, 1992). As a result of this, children need guidance and supervision. In this view, the manner in which children grow and develop depends on outside influences, over which they have little control. An opposing view is that children are inherently moral and rational beings, who will act in this manner if encouraged. In this view nature has the upper hand, and development is influenced by a natural biological curiosity (Rogers, 1951). A third view takes a middle line that children develop from an interaction of both internal and external influences. Pinker (2002), for example, argues that children's development relies on inherited traits, on their home environment and on the influences of the external environment — including their peer group. They therefore require a teacher to lead them towards taking control of their own lives and learning. Authoritarian discipline theories ascribe students' disruptive behaviour to faulty external control, whereas democratic theories ascribe it to a lack of meeting students' emotional or relationship needs. An authoritarian approach to discipline ascribes most power to the teacher, with the student having

virtually no autonomy. At the other extreme, students are autonomous and teachers have no power. Democratic theorists, who see both teacher and student having equal autonomy, but with different rôles in the classroom, occupy the middle ground.

Issues of conduct are related to the environment in which they occur and for this reason, I wish to consider conduct within the school and the rôle of the teacher within this setting. Doyle (1986) suggests that a teacher has two main functions in this respect,

- a rôle of promoting positive attitudes to learning in general
- a managerial function of promoting order, discussed earlier in Chapter Five.

The ideologies underpinning teachers' response to issues of conduct range from the autocratic to the laissez faire. Educators need to be conversant with these ideologies to be clearer about appropriate practice and to be empowered.

Theories of Discipline

The following is a brief review of some of the main theoretical models which underpin our understanding and explanations of children's conduct and the response we make in education. These models all claim success, in that they have aims that they achieve. Practitioners and policy makers need to be aware of these aims and judge how compatible they are with the aims they espouse. The theories are presented on a continuum of an authoritarian approach, where at one extreme authority lies with the teacher.

Limit Setting

Canter & Canter (1992) describe effective, successful classrooms as those where the teachers are firmly in control. Teachers who are in control respond to students in a manner that ensures that their needs are met, that is, the need to teach. Teachers, in this view, have both a right and responsibility to maintain order in the classroom for the teaching and learning to take place. Canter and Canter (1992) suggest that learning can not take place unless there is order in the classroom, and that there is a lack of respect for teachers and education in general. The culture of the home is lacking in stability, in support and in discipline. Because of this, children lack the skills necessary to choose appropriate behaviours. Current levels of indiscipline in schools could be due to teachers being unable to state their expectations clearly and the

consequences of not achieving these. In order to prevent issues of conduct arising, the teachers need to be the people with the power, those who set the rules and the sanctions for breaking them. Rules are specified by the teacher and explicitly taught. Adherence to the rules is met with praise and tangible rewards, whereas infringements are met with specified consequences. These consequences need not be severe but they must be inevitable if infractions occur. However, there should be no coercion and student cooperation is always sought.

Although teachers are in the position of power, there should be no aggression. Rather, teachers are encouraged to be assertive, choosing how to respond to a child's behaviour rather than reacting to it. In turn, it is argued, pupils learn teachers' expectations, feel satisfaction when their achievements are acknowledged and respect the fair treatment that is accorded to them. In order for these conditions to be met, the quality of curriculum, its presentation and delivery must always be of the highest quality. Teachers also need to have regard for the personal relationships within the classroom. Students are accorded respect, which will in turn lead to respect of the teachers' values and rules. Teachers should model the calm, self-assured demeanour which they wish to encourage in their students.

Applied Behaviour Analysis (Wheldall & Merrett, 1989)

Applied behaviour analysis is based on the work of Skinner (1938). The ideology is based on the premise that individuals learn new and complex behaviours as a result of operant or instrumental conditioning; a response to some external stimulus which involves no intellectual activity. Individuals can change the way they act in response to either positive or negative consequences that occur as a result of their actions. Skinner's work with rats suggests that behaviours leading to positive consequences will be repeated, whereas those which are not rewarded or which lead to punishment will be discontinued. Behaviours, according to proponents of this theory, depend on what happens before and after the behaviour occurs. Children are governed by the same rules of behaviour as adults, that is societal rules. So behaviourists would describe the teacher's rôle as that of manager; creating, preserving or restoring order in the classroom. As a manager, the teacher is in control, not only of the classroom setting but the students in it (Alberto & Troutman, 1999). The environment is altered to encourage the likelihood of students behaving in particular ways; ways valued by

the teacher or the society within the establishment. It is necessary to pay close attention not only to the consequences of behaviours in the class but also what precedes them. The observed behaviours must also be precisely defined. In order to gather information about the behaviours, their antecedents and consequences, careful and detailed observation must be undertaken. This information gathering is essential to the eventual outcome of the behavioural modification programme that will be implemented. There are no prescribed programmes; each one must be an individualised intervention. They may or may not work, and so it is necessary to keep detailed records of the effects of each intervention (Wolery et al., 1998, in Porter, 2000). Although interventions are put in place for a specific pupil, reinforcing the desired behaviour in other students can sometimes encourage the targeted student to display the same behaviour. As a method of improving conduct, applied behaviour analysis has a disappointing record in achieving long term success (Zirpoli, T& Melloy, K., 1993).

Cognitive Behaviourism

Cognitive behaviourism is based on behaviorist principles, but there is more consideration of a child's cognition (Kendall, in Porter, 2000). Proponents believe that children can make choices. Although behaviour is still shaped by their environment, cognitive behaviour theory accepts that both the cognitive and affective domains of the child affect behaviour. The rôle of the teacher is to create order, regulate the children's' behaviour and promote self discipline, so the teacher is still in a position of authority. Children are encouraged to make limited choices based on the teachers' selected range of options. Followers of the cognitive behaviourism theory believe that although the teacher is in overall control, there is a collaborative aspect, in that children are encouraged to take limited responsibility (Kaplan & Carter, 1995).

Neo Adlerian

This ideology is based on the work of Adler (1957) but has evolved over time. Children are believed to depend on adults for their survival and learning so they have feelings of inferiority. These feelings encourage children to strive to learn. The rôle of the teacher is to create order so that learning can take place. Children should be encouraged to develop self discipline and to cooperate with their peers. However, children sometimes behave in inappropriate ways because they experience feelings of

inadequacy and low self esteem. Adherents to this viewpoint suggest that feelings of inadequacy may be engendered by a desire to belong or fit in to a certain niche. Neo-Adlerians argue that children behave in certain manners because they wish to achieve an internal goal (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1990). In other words, inappropriate behaviour is not inappropriate to the child as it serves to achieve a purpose. However, followers also believe that children make faulty choices in conduct because their assumptions about the environment, other people with whom they interact or even about themselves may be flawed. Teachers do not control children; rather there is a relationship which tends towards a democracy. That is, each individual is encouraged to take responsibility but the teacher, as the adult in the relationship, directs the relationship. In order to minimize issues of conduct, this ideology argues for democratic student staff relationships, reduced competition between both student and student, and student and teacher, and the use of encouragement rather than praise. Praise is seen to imply an unequal power status between teacher and pupil. Moreover, praise is seen to be manipulative, in that it may cause students to repeat a behaviour to comply with teacher standards and approval. Praise is seen to be judgmental. Pupils should be taught to monitor their own behaviour, thus increasing their self esteem and developing skills to regulate their actions. Instead of praise, encouragement should be used; acknowledging students success and in this way enabling them to evaluate their own efforts. Encouragement can focus on processes rather than outcomes and can help to avoid competition by steering clear of making comparisons.

Humanism

The ideas behind a humanist approach to conduct issues mimics what purports to be our real life experience in this country, that is, a democratic approach. They surfaced from the work of progressivists such as Dewey and Montessori, who criticized the traditional didactic teaching approaches. Adults are not to be seen to be in control by virtue of their adulthood. Rather humans have rights which are not age dependent. This approach is based on values and the worth of all participants in the class or school culture. Because of its democratic approach there is a necessity for all participants to strive for self discipline. The teacher's rôle is one of facilitator, teaching and encouraging students to recognize the effects their behaviour has on others in the group. This is based on the premise that we need to make provision for children to learn, rather than conform to our expectations. The curriculum must

include elements of affective as well as cognitive. Teachers' positions as facilitators are not based on authority, but rather on expertise. They provide the supports that allow students freedom to explore their social environment in a way that encourages meaningful learning and acquisition of skills (Kohn, 1996, in Porter, 2000).

Choice Theory (Glasser, 1969)

Glasser's followers would state that we cannot control others' behaviour, that in fact, the only people we can control are ourselves. The final choice of action is down to the individual and thus discipline is about helping an individual to make rational choices and decisions. Students will be motivated to behave in a responsible manner if the curriculum content and delivery is meaningful to the needs of the students. Glasser believes that pupils need to understand the relevance of the curriculum to their quality of life. The quality of our lives depends on the extent to which our needs are met — the need for survival, the need to belong, the need for power, the need for freedom and the need for fun. Glasser argues that students' physical needs take precedence over all else. The need for power refers to the need to choose for themselves, but this of course must be balanced by a respect for others. Teachers' rôles are less facilitative but more leading in a democratic relationship with students. Students' needs are combined with the teachers' demands. By engaging students in a warm relationship, teachers can foster a sense of belonging which in turn can motivate students. This approach is successful as a whole school approach and has elements of counseling, where conduct problems are seen as ones to be solved cooperatively. This may however, involve giving students space to calm down.

Systems Theory

This is based on the belief that children have the skills to solve their own problems, but what is necessary to promote these skills are systems which will promote certain characteristics. These include order, co-operation, and emotional self regulation. In this approach both teachers and pupils have equal rights but unequal responsibilities. The teachers' responsibilities are concerned with setting up and maintaining the systems that promote the skill development. A systems approach changes the way the school system responds to issues of conduct in order to break the cycle of indiscipline that is to be addressed. Schools are systems which have rules, patterns of communications and fixed rôles for participants (Wazlawick, Bavelas, & Jackson,

1967; Molnar & Lindquist, 1989). Whereas other theories discussed see pupils as wholes, influenced by parts, the systems theory sees pupils as part of a whole group and focuses on patterns of interactions (Wubbels & Levy, 1993). There is no particular form of intervention advocated by followers of the system theory, rather a highlighting of different ways of problem solving issues that have an effect on the relationships of those in the system. Interestingly, given the positive slant towards social inclusion, the systems approach takes account of the social systems which can oppress and marginalise certain groups of individuals.

A Critique of Responses

Issues of conduct, although currently headline making in the media, are not new phenomena. Our understanding of such phenomena has evolved over time, reflecting to some extent, how our understanding of education in general and special educational needs in particular, has influenced the systems currently in place for education. There has been a change from the initially narrow psychological perspectives, where the problem lay within the child, to a much broader approach which owes much to sociology. Thinking has moved from individual to systems. However, despite this shift, recent government responses in both England and Scotland have seen a return of a narrower, prescriptive approach which appears to place much of the blame on the pupil rather than the systems. This is despite rhetoric about social inclusion, which clearly identifies problems within the social system.

At present in education it seems as if we are facing a dilemma. In the past, periods of concern about standards of literacy and numeracy have contrasted with periods where education is more outward looking, with community schools being set up and partnership with parents encouraged. However, the present government is using the outward looking approach in an effort to promote higher academic standards. A tension exists between a movement away from a concentration on the child and his personal history to a professed ignorance of socio-economic status, gender and other similar issues. Practitioners who are aware of factors such as unemployment, poor diet and health and poor housing might be tempted to blame national or local government, or society, for causing issues of conduct without considering either their rôles or the rôles of the school. Practitioners' reactions to indiscipline tend to take a number of forms. One is to exclude the trouble makers because they interfere with other

students' learning. This approach has been dealt a blow by national government insisting that exclusion rates are reduced. The Social Justice Plan clearly outlines the Scottish Executive's commitment to reducing the number of exclusions by one third, despite maintaining that "exclusion from school is an important sanction available to Local Authorities" (Peacock, cited in SEED, 2000). Cynics might argue that exclusion still takes place, though not always in formal ways. Exclusion can take place without the child being officially removed from the school premises. For example, the student may be removed from the classroom and taken to a support base, a quiet room or to a senior staff member. The child may indeed be out of school in an "agreed withdrawal" which does not require monitoring and recording in the same manner as an official exclusion.

A second approach which deals with issues of conduct as special educational needs could seek a solution to those needs by prescribing various means of support, such as counselling, behaviour therapy, cognitive therapy, music therapy and so on. This approach is based on a deficit model, where the problem is the child who is diagnosed as needing treatment. Whatever "treatments" are prescribed, services to provide these seem to be under-resourced. The recommendations contained in the Better Behaviour — Better Learning document (SEED, 2001b) appear to support this view. There is a statement that the demands on staff to support the wide range of both families and pupils with issues of conduct needing addressed have increased significantly (SEED, 2001b). Clearly in times such as these where fiscal resources are limited, the government is looking for a way to manage these more equitably. Providing costly treatment for a group of increasing but still minority pupils may not appear to be a good use of finance. Perhaps, too, there is an element of being overly concerned with attainment results which can be measured and increased and not with behavioural problems, which are individual and varied.

A third approach can utilise elements of the first two but differs in that it is proactive. It concentrates on preventing problems taking hold in the first place. This could perhaps be loosely allied to the government's suggested strategies of the "Alternatives to Exclusion" programme, the "New Community Schools" programme and the "Promoting Positive Discipline" programme. However, on closer scrutiny these tend

to subscribe to a more reactive regime in that issues of conduct are seen to be with us and need to be eradicated. This seems to be an opportunity missed. All these strategies maintain the view that teachers (and other professionals) define the situations in which issues of conduct arise. MacKay (1989) and Naukkarinen (2000) suggest that behaviourist approaches, such as those recommended in the Joint Action plan (SEED, 2001c) and the reluctance to move away from a medico-psychological model focus on diagnosing the pupil as the problem. This may prevent practitioners from critically reflecting on practice. This incapacity may lead to no change in work practices and systems. Change is instead expected of the student and this may be seen as falling short of the principles of inclusion (Naukkarinen, 2000). There are further concerns regarding how ethical is this approach, as some of the group of youngsters exhibiting inappropriate conduct may be emotionally disturbed. This group of students have little control over what is done to them. Those who subscribe to this deficit view of issues of conduct make the assumption that “normal” behaviour is the goal for intervention. As discussed earlier, “normal” behaviour is defined by the people who are in positions of power, those who make the policies.

Whatever approach is thought appropriate there are a number of other factors which need to be considered before we can judge the effectiveness of the various behaviour management styles. We must consider the purpose of the intervention we make. Is it to “normalise” the students, in the sense of making them conform, in order that our need for calm and stability are met? Alternatively, are we concerned with motivating students, raising self esteem (SCRE, 2002) and encouraging them to learn and develop their full potential? We could be endeavouring to meet students’ social needs, that is, enabling them to develop the skills required to establish purposeful and appropriate relationships with others in the school community. If we hope to foster academic competence we need to address a child’s academic self esteem. This is an area that is almost entirely based on how successful they are in school, despite a number of other influences, such as their home environment (Mortimore & Sammons, 1987, in Porter, 2000). There is therefore a need for students to achieve genuine success in the classroom. This can be achieved by removing curricular barriers to learning and by a change in classroom management and organisation (Charles, 1990). If our aim is, however, to empower young people in developing satisfactory relationships, we need to be rôle models that communicate respect, consistency and

care (Rogers, 1998). Grossman (1995) in Porter (2000) suggests that teachers should be flexible in their approach to their relationships with students, to meet their developmental needs. If teachers can work with students in an emotional climate that is caring and supportive, students are likely to do well in terms of the curriculum and also in relationships. The school and class environment needs to be such that it encourages the growth of emotional and cognitive skills and also the development of pro-social skills. It is with these goals in mind that the responses to behaviour management can be examined.

The Limit Setting Approach — A Critique

The limit setting approach is an assertive discipline approach and it could be argued that it is quite a harsh method, relying as it does on control and power emanating from the teacher. It is difficult to see how this method equates with the rights standpoint that is implicit in inclusion, as the students appear to have a choice so limited that they have virtually no autonomy or power in the relationship. Teachers are encouraged to develop a range of practical skills for establishing and maintaining order in the classroom. However, there may be a danger that this is too prescriptive, with connotations of a formulaic approach, without consideration of individual context and characters. It may become a very impersonal approach, and makes little connection with the individual student's motivation or emotional needs. More, it makes no attempt to encourage the student to think through problems and learn from mistakes. Another possible drawback to this approach is that it takes no account of the wide range of factors that may cause indiscipline, especially those within the curriculum and its delivery. The cause of the indiscipline is seen to be student centred. There are very few studies which rate the effectiveness of this approach. A study by Canter (1989) showed that using this method reduced off task behaviour. In other studies, however, there were shown to be neutral effects or, indeed, increased referrals to other agencies, increases in truancy and increases in numbers of pupils on detention (Emmer & Ausikker, 1990 in Porter, 2000) after the use of assertive discipline.

Applied Behaviour Analysis — A Critique

Applied behaviour analysis relies not on subjective responses to indiscipline but on rigorous observations of specific behaviours; detailing exactly what behaviour

occurred, the circumstances surrounding the manifestation of that behaviour and its effect. This is at the same time a strength and a weakness of the approach — classroom practitioners have little experience in detailed observation of this nature; there are implications for staffing resources and for monitoring and evaluating progress. However, rigorous observation and the constructing of a baseline allow progress to be examined and assessed in a manner which fits well with the government's fascination with measurable targets. Using the techniques advocated by this approach is a great deal more difficult to apply than might at first appear to be the case. Practitioners use those elements of the theory which they feel is most useful. Thus praise is seen to be a key factor, but it is often used imprecisely and inappropriately, thus making it an ineffective reinforcer.

Power lies with the teacher because it is the teacher who controls the reward. Students' choices are very limited and are based on meeting the teacher's needs rather than their own. It is perhaps for this reason that although effective in the short term, long term results are disappointing. Another reason for a lack of long term alteration in conduct may be that this approach takes no cognisance of the many factors that operate to cause issues of conduct. Underlying causes are neither sought nor addressed. However, Wheldall and Merret (1984) argue that whatever the cause, it is the behaviour that is the problem. We should, they argue, not seek to deal with the inner needs as they are often difficult to ascertain. A behavioural approach is effective in inhibiting unwanted behaviours. However, it also has the power to encourage more compliant, sought-after behaviours, but teachers are not encouraged to take this further step (MacKay, 1989). There are some concerns about how ethical a deliberate behavioural approach may be, especially when working with children who are vulnerable. Because the power lies with the teacher, there is a tendency for vulnerable groups to have things done to them, rather than being involved in choices. Again, this approach suggests that the fault lies within the child. Most of the studies designed to measure the effectiveness of applied behavioural analysis were carried out in more rigorous conditions than could ever be replicated in a mainstream classroom. This method may have a place in specialised settings, in work with people with severe intellectual disabilities, though ethical and ecological caveats have been stated frequently across the years (e.g. Power, 1981). However, it may not be appropriate for

primary school teachers, particularly those who are inexperienced in the methodology, to use this as a method in a pre-five or mainstream setting.

Cognitive Behaviourism – A Critique

Advocates of the cognitive behaviourist approach argue that with this approach, power is returned to the student. Students are encouraged to develop an internal control, but there may be difficulties in motivating them to manage their own behaviour. This may be especially true when working with young children who have not developed logical thought. Porter (2000) uses the word “treatment” (Porter, 2000, p. 207) when discussing this approach and this may indicate that there is still a deficit model of thinking informing this approach. The teacher devolves limited power to the student, but the ultimate goal, though purporting to be self management and problem solving skills may, in fact, be to restore order in the classroom.

Neo Adlerian Approach — A Critique

The neo Adlerian theory also devolves power to the student, and teaches students to moderate their behaviour. The standards of behaviour expected, however, seem to be based on middle class values, reflecting the values of those who run the education system. Porter (2000) suggests that these values are not only inappropriate in some cases, but could be undesirable. They appear to expect children to effectively “turn the other cheek” which could covertly encourage students to be victims of bullying. The thinking behind this approach also attributes children’s behaviour to a range of motives; attention seeking, revenge, power seeking and withdrawal (Adler, 1957). These are stated in a negative way and this again suggests that the fault is within the child and takes the onus off staff and schools to reflect on their own practice. Interventions therefore have authoritarian overtones. There is always the difficulty that the motives may be “misdiagnosed” as teachers are not always aware of the circumstances that may have triggered a specific behaviour.

Humanist Stance — A Critique

A humanist response to understanding and responding to issues of conduct is one which places an emphasis on the whole person. For this reason it does not attempt to separate out elements of experience and deal with each of these discretely. Those who would follow a humanist approach set great store by empathy and may not attempt to

maintain a dispassionate stance. Rather they value the involved individuals' perceptions of events. Responding to conduct issues in a humanist mode favours small group work where skills of listening and sharing are encouraged in students. Through encouraging respect for other people's points of view, students may in turn get feedback for their ideas from other group members. This has the effect of raising self esteem. The real value of this approach, argue the humanists, is that the benefits cover both the affective and cognitive domains and as a result behaviour and work both improve. The development of community schools and cross-sectoral working suggests that the humanist approach may be a particularly suitable response to issues of conduct. A humanist approach is a proactive approach, aiming at creating conditions where it is less likely that inappropriate behaviours will occur. It takes account of the school's contribution to behavioural difficulties. Detracting from this theory is the fact that it is not based on a scientific approach (Skinner, 1989). Moreover, it makes considerable demands on teachers' interpersonal skills and on both students' and teachers' language abilities. It may therefore not be suitable for children who exhibit difficult behaviour as the result of intellectual or language disabilities.

Glasser's Choice Theory — A Critique

Glasser's theory of choice moves the focus even further towards the difficulties that the education system poses for certain students, in terms of conduct issues. He argues that teachers often respond to student conduct in a manner that is self righteous. In other words, it reflects teachers' beliefs that they are due certain standards of behaviour as their right. While this may be the case, and teachers' responses may exacerbate situations, it is may be difficult, given the system currently in place, for teachers to avoid controlling methods of dealing with conduct issues.

A Systems Approach — A Critique

Underlying the systems approach is the idea that we describe conduct as inappropriate with reference to the social context and using social terms. Thus if a behaviour causes concern it is likely to be related to external circumstances. Of course, in some cases behaviour may be related to some physical cause such as a medical condition. In such cases, the condition influences the interactions of the child and others, so again it is an external factor which ultimately relates to the behaviour. Some responses currently

being adopted by local authorities in response to issues of conduct follow this line of thought. The Framework for Intervention (Birmingham City Council, 2000) (also known in Scotland as Staged Intervention), for example, seeks to identify barriers to appropriate behaviour within the system, which is the class group, in the first instance. This approach aims to look beyond the labels that children may have acquired; labels that may make teachers feel disempowered because they suggest the need for expertise which many feel they do not have. The FFI approach seeks to take blame from the teacher and the pupil in the first instance and instead encourages an innovative approach in looking at the environment. In this way, it also builds on a teacher's knowledge and understanding of the ways in which the environment of the class can be altered in a proactive manner. Blame is removed from students by assuming that there is a disparity between the pupils and the system in operation. Despite this, SEED's action plan states categorically that the Framework for Intervention procedures, "of themselves, are unlikely to provide that initial impetus and therefore may not be appropriate in all schools at present" (SEED, 2001c, p. 9). A strength of the systems approach may be in the breadth of the contexts and issues it will work through. Thus if an intervention does not work at an individual level, then peer interaction, school, family relationships with the school can all be investigated. Other social agencies can become involved (Dawling, 1985, in Porter, 2000).

Conclusions — beyond Techniques to Relationships

Goleman (1998) argues that there is a rôle for emotion in making rational judgements and decisions. He suggests that emotions guide our decisions, working in tandem with the rational mind in facilitating or hindering thought. At times, the thinking brain is incapacitated by uncontrollable surges of emotion. This effect may be crucial to teachers who are involved in dealing with issues of conduct, both from the point of view of a personal response and an explanation of the conduct of their students. As discussed earlier, conduct issues are at the same time subjective and personal. Teachers find it difficult not to take as a personal slight behaviour which seems directed at them or at their professionalism. If they are emotionally intelligent they can take control of their emotions, reflect on situations and not be governed by impulse. More than this, Goleman (1998) argues that individuals who are emotionally intelligent can anticipate and are more perceptive to others' emotional states and thus more able to respond appropriately. Empathy on the part of the teacher would allow

reflection before condemnation and judgment, and the opportunity to manage conduct issues without exacerbating the situation. Emotionally competent teachers understand that behaviour is a product of an underlying emotion and will seek to discover that, in order to make an appropriate and effective response to managing conduct. If there is truth in these suppositions, then perhaps the effectiveness of management strategies are dependent on the emotional intelligence of the teachers involved. Effective management strategies may also be dependent on teacher-pupil communication. Communication does not depend solely on the voice. Body language, gestures and other actions all play a part. “(P)ragmatic functions (which) verbal utterances may serve may be fulfilled by other means also” (Rees 1978, cited by MacKay, 1989, p. 27). Teachers do not need to speak to children for them to be communicating a host of messages, some intended and some unintended.

The decision to implement a certain style of behaviour management within an establishment’s policies and practices is made in the context of a society where not all the players have the same degree of power. Moreover, decisions reflect values which might not be shared by all. Individual teachers’ approaches to discipline will depend on their purpose for discipline, their beliefs about students and how much autonomy they can be granted or can cope with. Teachers who understand the theories of behaviour management can generate planned responses to indiscipline, based on what suits their own professional style and values. What all the theories have in common is that they make an assumption that teachers should be concerned and interested in students who display inappropriate behaviour. They also assume that as the adult in the interaction, the teacher, will remain calm and professional and will effect some change for the better. If teachers can effect positive change this suggests that they are effective in supporting the needs of the students. The whole issue of effective schools and effective practitioners needs exploring because, ultimately, government, practitioners, parents and pupils are concerned with how teaching and learning take place in our schools.

The next chapter will explore the concept of a school that is effective in including and supporting pupils whose conduct has caused concern.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Effectiveness is a concept which is mentioned often in official rhetoric. As with many terms used in education, the concept of effectiveness appears to have various interpretations. Effectiveness is a normative concept and, as with all aspects of language, it is important to define what is commonly understood by it. This is particularly important in our current educational climate, as “effectiveness” is a criterion used by those in power in both education and society to judge schools, teachers, learning and teaching. There has, in recent years, been a rapid growth in interest in school effectiveness and its potential as a catalyst for school improvement. Government policy in the UK and elsewhere has sought to draw on ideas of school effectiveness and school improvement in an attempt to raise educational standards (Barber, 1999).

This chapter looks first at definitions of effectiveness. Second, it considers the whole effectiveness agenda, debating whether effective is the same as inclusive. It then discusses the concept of effective schools in the context of quality initiatives and vision and leadership. Finally it discusses how effectively schools are meeting the five Scottish national priorities for education.

Definitions of Effectiveness

The Oxford Dictionary defines effectiveness as “having an effect” — an effect being a “result, consequence or efficacy” (p. 389). This is an interesting starting point for a discussion on the consideration of effectiveness in educational terms. Earlier discussion centred on purposes of education. Education, it was argued, had to result in the gaining of something worthwhile in terms of knowledge and understanding (Peters, 1973). Using the basic definition of effectiveness, this resultant gain would suggest that all education, in its most basic form, would be effective. However, education is not the same as schooling and so we need to look at the rôle schools play in providing an education required by students to participate “safely, purposefully and positively in an increasingly complex world” (DTG, 2001). The clarity of

understanding of this rôle depends greatly on a shared purpose of education. As discussed in Chapter Three, the purposes of schooling and the quality of the students' educational experiences are subject of much debate and seem unlikely to be resolved easily (White & Barber, 1997).

It is necessary to extend the definition of effectiveness to include the understanding that the consequences or effects are desirable (Munn, Lloyd & Cullen, 2000). Some consequences are desirable for students but may be less so for teachers, and vice versa. Similarly there is a possibility that what teachers see as their rôle may not match with the government's perception of a teacher's rôle. SEED (2000) reiterates the view that formal education is directed towards encouraging learning to the "fullest potential" of each individual and the development of life skills. HMIE (2002a) characterises effective schools as those which value the individuality of their pupils and which continually seek innovative ways of encouraging individuals to realise ambition and develop their aptitudes fully.

The Effectiveness Agenda

If it is accepted that the role of schools is to develop the skills and knowledge that students need to make progress in today's pluralist society, how best may their effectiveness be judged? Is effectiveness the same as "good practice"? Is effective the same as "adequate and efficient" (SED, 1980) for pupils who have additional support needs in terms of their behaviour? What are the criteria against which success and failure are measured?

Literature indicates that there are a number of issues to be considered when discussing how schools are judged effective. The following sections look at

- quality indicators for effective schools
- schools with vision
- leadership.

Quality Indicators for Effective Schools

Sammons (1995) suggested that an effective school is one that has a positive effect on the educational outcomes of its students. This view emphasises the impact that

schools can have on their students and may also underpin the development of the quality initiative (HMIE, 2002c). The discourse of “effectiveness” underpins the “structures and cultures” of our entire education system (Wrigley, 2003, p. 91).

Until the 1980s, teachers had a great deal of professional autonomy. However, as the concepts of consumer choice and customer satisfaction became more important, and considerable public funding was invested in our education system, teachers, schools and education authorities became far more accountable to all stakeholders — pupils, parents, the wider public and local and national government. Out of this societal shift came the quality initiative, with key performance indicators against which schools could measure how “good” they were. In Scotland, the guidance document “How Good is our School?” (HMI, 1996) was first published. It was based on seven key areas used by HMI for school inspections and these were further subdivided into 33 key indicators. This document became accepted as the national framework against which Scottish schools could evaluate their performance, and identify areas for improvement. However, the government considered it equally important that self evaluation should be complemented by rigorous independent, external evaluation. Without this further layer of appraisal, government felt that “self-evaluation can become a process of self-deception” (HMIE, 2000c, p. 13). This external evaluation was seen as an essential element in the drive to raise standards and improve quality. A revised framework of indicators was published in 2002 and this represented an updating of the current indicators rather than a major change to the framework and structure of the original document. The indicators were no longer described as performance indicators, but were now quality indicators. Quality indicators are subjective, based on professional judgements rather than being based on the straightforward counting of those outcomes which can be conveniently reduced to numbers. These views discussed in Chapter Three (on educational philosophy), have been prevalent in the field of education for nearly a century. The revised framework takes into account recent advances in educational and other related policies; in particular the Standards in Scotland’s Schools, etc. Act 2000, Race Relations Amendment Act 2000, and the SEN and Disability Act 2001. The use of quality indicators is a sign that the government is increasingly trying to use corporate wisdom to solve educational problems and is trying to reform its institutions along market based models (McCaslin & Good, 1992). However, matching performance against

quality indicators such as those described above should not be viewed as remedy for all educational ills (Sammons, 2001). Rather, the indicators should form the basis for a process of the evaluation and critique of not only classroom practice but also educational policy (Sammons, Thomas & Mortimore 1997). Evaluation and reflection on practice can give teachers an increased understanding of the influence of a number of factors in students' attainment and progress in cognitive and affective knowledge and skills (Mortimore & Sammons, 1997).

Schools which are judged effective one year may not be judged effective the next.

Why should this be the case? Schools are communities where there are a large number of factors which need to be taken into account when judging effectiveness. A change in the numbers of pupils or staff, personnel changes, the composition of year groups and the personalities of the pupils can all contribute to whether a school is judged effective against specific criteria. The establishment of such groups as the Scottish Schools Ethos Network (<http://www.ethosnet.co.uk/index.html>) is seen by the government as a resource for schools who are attempting to improve their effectiveness. The strategies suggested are generally whole school features, based on aspects of achievement or attainment that can be measured. Moreover, strategies suggested by this and other forums are often not grounded in research, carried out over an initiation phase and, later, monitored, and evaluated. Donaldson (1997) suggests that measures for assessing the success of effectiveness strategies are weak and short term, with no longitudinal tracking. Perhaps as result of this, initiatives are grafted onto school systems without the ownership of those practitioners whose task it is to implement them. These initiatives may not, in fact, contribute to the effectiveness or otherwise of individual schools, for many of the reasons already mentioned such as personnel changes, numbers of both staff and pupils and personalities involved.

Initiatives of the type highlighted by the Scottish Schools Ethos Network (<http://www.ethosnet.co.uk/index.html>) and Promoting Positive Discipline (www.ethosnet.co.uk/positivediscipline.pdf) have a tendency to suggest a prescriptive approach, with off the shelf recipes rather than focusing on the history and context of each school (West & Hopkins, 1996; Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). However, the whole idea of school effectiveness continues to be attractive to politicians and government officials who like to identify outcomes and draw up a set of straightforward principles to achieve these.

The Rôle of Vision

Much is written about the importance of vision in schools. There are arguments that effective schools have head teachers who create a vision for their school and communicate this to their staff (Sammons, Hillman, & Mortimore, 1995; Ainscow, 2001; SEED, 2001a; HMIE, 2002c). What is meant by “vision”? Vision is “an idealised goal that the leader wants the organisation to achieve in the future” (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, p. 640). Vision may be the result of imagining what could be and what ought to be (Frost & Durrant, 2003). The work of Rutter et al. (1979) and Lloyd, Munn & Cullen (2000) indicates that schools can have a positive or negative effect on the behaviour, attainment and attendance of pupils. School policies and procedures need to be underpinned by belief in and support of the aims to which schools aspire. Schools which are effective at including youngsters with behaviour difficulties have, it is suggested, staff at all levels who “share a common vision and accept the need for consistency of approach” (Lloyd et al., 2000, p. 23). Many researchers mention a belief or vision which is shared among staff (see, for example, Rutter, 1979; Lloyd et al., 2000). Research carried out by Barnett and McCormick (2003) suggests that both head teachers and class teachers believe that vision should not just be rhetoric, but must involve action. For that reason visions have to be practical, and stated in practical terms. Difficulties may occur, however, when the resources required for the vision to be achieved are underestimated. Even when this is not the case, and the resources are available, the acts of creating and communicating vision are no guarantees that the vision will be fulfilled (Licata & Harper, 2001). Teachers may not be able to make explicit connections between the vision articulated by the school and the structures, policies and classroom teaching practice within that school (Barnett & McCormick, 2003). Cooper and Upton (1991) suggest that practice may not match the purposes and values of the system. One reason for this mismatch may be that teaching routines are complex and ingrained and therefore are difficult to alter by generating a vision (Elmore, Peterson, & McCarthey, 1996). The classroom strategies of teachers and pupils often mesh together. In the most common form of this, “routinised teaching” is associated with “pupil drift” (Pollard, 1985), as each party seeks to avoid risk and challenge. From this perspective “low expectations” may be seen as the product of coping strategies which are mutually acceptable to teachers and pupils — a means of accomplishing classroom life (Pollard, 1985). The creation and articulation

of a vision may therefore not be enough to motivate teachers into improving performance. Perhaps, for these reasons the importance of vision in effective schools is overestimated (Meindl, 1990; Barnett & McCormick, 2003).

The Importance of Leadership

In the rhetoric surrounding the idea of vision, the importance of leadership is also emphasised (Ainscow, Hopkins, Southworth & West, 1994; Barnett & McCormick, 2003). However, views on the nature of educational leadership vary according to the particular stance taken by the analyst. Some feel that head teachers should take the lead in creating vision, establishing objectives and making decisions. Others feel that head teachers are one figure in a system that should encourage participation of all (Bush, 1995). HMIE (2002a) considers leadership, along with partnership, to be one of the key aspects of developing an inclusive school.

At present, in Scotland, schools still tend to be hierarchical institutions in the sense that there is a well defined framework, with authority granted from above, a recognisable chain of command, and clearly defined rôles (Becher, 1988; West-Burnham, 1992). Hierarchies achieve goals that are beyond the concern of single individuals and a manager, or head teacher in the case of a school, is accountable for the work of subordinates. It is therefore perhaps unsurprising that there are still views that a successful head teacher, as a leader, should be a visionary in terms of goals they need to achieve. After all, in our hierarchical educational system, they are the managers who articulate the vision (Coulson, 1985, in Bush, 1995). HMIE (2000c) identified that since 1995 there had been evidence of improvement in leadership in schools and this was seen as positive. However, hierarchies bring with them special power relationships (Humes, 2000). In many cases, success is attributed to the upper echelon of the hierarchies, but blame for lack of success resides with those who have little power, in this case the teachers. Frost and Durrant (2003) discuss a different system in which all teachers should be change agents (Fullan, 1993) Leadership is concerned with values, vision, and strategy. Leadership, whether at the level of a head teacher in a hierarchy or as a change agent has as its core the articulation of a vision underpinned by professional values. In order to reduce the gap between the vision and the current reality, strategic action must be taken (Frost & Durrant, 2002). Teacher

discourse allows individuals to communicate their ideas and perceptions and to move to a deeper shared understanding. It may be that the idea of leadership coming from the teachers themselves might result in more success in translating a vision into reality. This may be because “a shared vision is a vision that many people are truly committed to because it reflects their own personal values” (Senge, 1990:, p. 206, in Frost & Durrant, 2003).

Effective Schools in the Scottish Context

School effectiveness is often characterised in literature and research in terms of attainment and public exam results (Rutter 1979; Simmons et al., 1997). Effective schools are seen as those which create conditions for all pupils to learn, and drive down exclusion rates. The school effectiveness agenda seems to take little account of the possibility that effectiveness can differ between specific groups of pupils, such as those with issues of conduct (Scheerens & Bosker 1997, p. 96).

The Labour government has declared as a priority “education, education, education” since the pre-election period of 1997, as a way of ensuring social inclusion, and enabling individuals to flourish. In addition, such ideals are expected to influence Britain’s capacity to be a competitive player on the world economy’s stage. In order to meet these demands, and to meet the vision of individual educational growth, SEED (2000) set five national priorities in education:

1. To raise standards of attainment for all, especially in...literacy and numeracy, and to achieve better levels in national measures of attainment, including examination results
2. To support and develop the skills of teachers , the self discipline of pupils and to enhance school environments so that they are conducive to learning and teaching
3. To promote equality and help every pupil benefit from education
4. To work with parents/carers to teach pupils respect for self and one another.....and the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in a democratic society

5. To equip pupils with foundation skills, attitudes and expectations necessary to prosper in a changing society and to encourage creativity and ambition.

These are the priorities against which schools in Scotland are judged. All local authority schools are required to self-evaluate against a sub-set of quality indicators, contained in the document “How Good is Our School” (HMIE, 2002c). This will result in the production of evidence that will be used to judge the progress being made towards meeting the National Priorities over the next few years. Therefore, it appears reasonable to infer that an effective school will raise attainment, be inclusive, teach the need for respect and a fulfilment of the duties as a citizen, provide an enhanced learning environment, encourage creativity, foster ambition and prepare students to take their place in society.

The next section examines briefly each of the national priorities and discusses the manner in which schools could be judged effective or not against these government set criteria.

Effectiveness and Priority 1

Effective Schools Raise Attainment

The government makes no pretence of its aim to raise achievement. OFSTED (1996) defined an effective school as one in which there was an environment which encouraged all members to achieve. Such a school must have raising attainment as a key objective and to this end there must be planned development targets, curriculum planning, managing behaviour, assessment and monitoring. Thrupp (1998), on the other hand, argued that too much faith in raising pupil performance was placed in these formal aspects of the school and education system. He argued that the social mix of the students has an effect on both the organisation and management processes to an extent that schools may no longer be academically effective. Gerwitz (1997) suggested that in some schools, staff members are extremely involved in guidance rôles and managing behaviour. In these instances, teachers may not have time to deliver an academic programme that is the same, or similar, to that delivered by staff in schools which are seen to be more effective at getting good examination results. This often can be explained by the different social mix of students in the schools. It is

also possible that schools are raising the attainment of their pupils but this goes unrecognised by public indicators which focus on a higher level of attainment (Gerwitz, 1997). In many schools, students' attainments are raised, and this can be formally measured by examining how successful individuals are at meeting targets set for them. However, public indicators tend to be based on attainment at the level of national tests and examinations. The use of public indicators of performance can increase pressures on schools to exclude (or negotiate agreed withdrawal of) disruptive pupils, since they may have an adverse impact on national test or examination results (Gray, Hopkins, Reynolds & Wilcox, 1999). SEED (2003), however, stated that it was working with local authorities to identify "an appropriate indicator" for achievement and attainment. This indicator would enable schools to "reflect" their work with pupils who require additional support for learning. The appropriate quality indicator would be especially concerned with attainment in numeracy and literacy.

Effectiveness and Priorities 2 and 3

Effective Schools Provide an Enhanced Learning Environment for All

Effective Schools are Inclusive

I have chosen to link the above two priorities here because both require what Ainscow (2001) described as innovative approaches to responding to the diversity of students in any classroom. Schools which are effective in this respect operate in a manner which is supportive for all pupils, regardless of the type or intensity of perceived educational, physical or psychological challenge (Udvari-Solner & Thousand, 1995). A school with a warm ethos that encourages sharing and values diversity may be effective in respect of inclusiveness, yet may be ineffective in terms of raising attainment. Too often, it seems, schools are made up of groups of people who have different values and beliefs about the purposes of education and schooling. This lack of a common, shared understanding is what is described as a "loose coupled system" (Weick, 1985) — units, processes and actions which do not have a common purpose. Loose coupled systems, however, may have some advantages over the more traditional systems. Systems which are loosely coupled can respond better to local conditions. Any element in the system can adjust to unforeseen circumstances without affecting the working of the system as a whole. Highly coupled systems, on the other hand, often have fewer independent elements and may be inhibited by external forces.

Loosely coupled systems therefore may be more effective in responding to the needs of children with issues of conduct, whose circumstances may pose unpredictable problems which require innovative solutions.

However, it would seem logical that if there is to be effective teaching and learning, there should be shared values and shared teaching philosophies among the members of staff in a school community (Munn et al., 2000). One might also expect common agreement of a way forward, in a collaborative sense, otherwise there may be misunderstanding and miscommunication, inefficient methods, and use of time and learning opportunities planned without thinking of individual needs (Udvari-Solner & Thousand, 1995). In schools where staff see their main purpose as helping pupils to raise their academic attainment, teachers may be less tolerant of those pupils whose behaviour can be difficult in the classroom. For schools which articulate a vision of academic success the ideal pupils are those who are well behaved, well motivated and have supportive parents or carers. In contrast, effective inclusive schools will articulate and put into practice a vision where there is an acceptance by all staff of their responsibility to educate all pupils and to nurture social as well as academic achievement. Structures are put in place to stimulate pupil motivation and enjoyment in learning. Management put systems in place which offer practical support and help to staff to deliver the vision. Rosenholtz (1989) talks of a “learning enriched” school. This is a school where adults’ learning is stimulated and as a result, this fosters conditions that encourage the learning of all pupils. If teachers are encouraged to advance and learn in a professional capacity, then they will develop their knowledge and skills. Through their professional actions, they will enhance the learning of their diverse students. In this respect, it could be argued that the introduction of the Scottish Chartered Teacher programme, with its emphasis on continuing professional development and its emphasis on professional actions should contribute to the effectiveness of teachers and schools. The importance of Continuing Professional Development for teachers is highlighted in the first of the two national priorities currently being discussed — the support and development of teachers’ skills within an enhanced learning environment (SEED, 2000).

Effectiveness and Priority 4

Effective schools teach the need for respect and citizenship

Schools portrayed as having a positive or inclusive ethos are judged as being effective (Munn et al., 2000). Developing a positive ethos, described by Cooper and Upton (1991) as an “ecosystemic approach”, involves schools focusing on the environment and systems experienced by the students. Schools which are concerned with this approach find ways of facilitating the development of independence and self-direction in students. Pupils and parents are not blamed for the emotional and behavioural difficulties that children and young people experience; rather the system is altered to include the diverse needs of students (Cooper & Upton, 1991). This approach exemplifies respect: for parents, children and staff. Education, both formal in schools and informal in the community, represents the principal mechanism through which society is able to influence its own future. It offers the most effective route through which attitudes can be influenced over a long period of time (HMIE, 2002b). Schools have a duty to pupils to encourage them to become considerate and respectful human beings. However, schools need to model the values they propound. School systems and staff members should model messages of respect and of equality in the beliefs they espouse, and all their actions (SEED, 2003). Adults need to treat children with consistency, respect and care (Orbach, in SEED, 2003). A truly inclusive school benefits from a diversity of cultures and personalities and through this can develop respect for both self and others.

As discussed earlier in Chapter Six, some philosophies and practices are more conducive to teaching and modelling respect than others. Those teachers at the more authoritarian end of the spectrum demonstrate that power is wielded by those in authority. Those who adopt a more humanist approach, where they are facilitators and work in partnership with pupils, may give a message that power is something to be shared and is far less predetermined by age or gender, for example. Teachers at this end of the spectrum may find it easier to instil in children concepts of democracy and citizenship. Effective education for citizenship is the responsibility of every teacher. Teachers need to create opportunities for young people to develop their ability to participate actively and responsibly, in ways appropriate to their stage of maturity and their needs, in acts of citizenship. Citizenship might be characterised by pupils’ understanding of a right for all to be heard, a right for all to have their views valued

and respected. How do schools articulate and develop these characteristics? Schools that adopt the ecosystemic approach mentioned earlier, where the whole school is involved, may find it easier to

- Express positive expectations of all, including staff
- Address issues of the continuing inequality between men and women and the attitudes that flow from this
- Encourage altruism and co-operation
- Encourage staff to see themselves as caring people
- Foster active involvement for all
- Provide opportunities for leadership and participation
- Encourage goal setting and mastery

adapted from Gibbs, J., (1995).

It is considered important that children should not learn about citizenship through didactic teaching, but by experiencing it first-hand, in the context of the school and the school community in the first instance (Closs, 2003, <http://www.ethosnet.co.uk/vision6.htm>). They can learn that success is achieved by participation, cooperation and partnership and by sharing common goals. Success should not be achieved by aggression and domination.

Effectiveness and Priority 5

Effective Schools Foster Creativity and Ambition

There is an argument that schools should not only value numeracy and literacy but that they should value diversity. Schools and society should appreciate individuals who show gifts in other intelligences: the artists, architects, musicians, naturalists, designers and others who enrich the world in which we live. By including creativity in the national priorities for education, SEED appears to be taking a stance that signifies the recognition of the many intelligences that students may possess. However the importance of these other intelligences is overshadowed by the necessity of raising standards in the basics — numeracy and literacy, a competing priority and one in which effectiveness can be more easily measured. Moreover, the allocation of guidelines on the balance of the curriculum and the relative weighting a subject receives sends a different message about valuing other intelligences. If we are to

facilitate the development of creative children it is essential that we first enhance the creativity of their teachers (OECD, 2001).

Summary of Effectiveness

There are a number of factors that appear to be the characteristics of effective schools. These are summarised in Table one below. However, some of these factors may be outcomes rather than the cause of school effectiveness (West & Hopkins, 2003).

Table 1 The Processes of Effective Schools

Process	Delivery of process
The processes of effective leadership	Being firm and purposeful Involving others in the process Exhibiting instructional leadership Frequent personal monitoring Selecting & replacing staff
The processes of effective teaching	Unity of purpose Consistency of good practice Collegiality and collaboration
Developing & maintaining an all-encompassing focus on learning	Focusing on learning, cognitive and affective Maximising school learning time
Producing a positive school community	Creating a shared vision Creating an orderly environment Emphasising positive reinforcement
Creating high & appropriate expectations for all	For students For staff
Emphasising student responsibilities & rights	Responsibilities Rights
Monitoring progress at all levels	At the school level At the classroom level At the student level
Developing staff skills through school based In-Service	Site based Integrated with ongoing professional development
Involving parents in productive & appropriate ways	Buffering negative influences Encouraging productive interactions with parents

After Teddlie and Reynolds, 2000

A further difficulty is that, at present, the construct of effectiveness needs to be measured in some way. This is because local governments require to demonstrate that they have educational provision that is value for money under the Local Government and Planning Act (Local Government in Scotland Act, 2003). Some aspects of an effective school may not be amenable to measurement. It is possible that the prevailing definitions identified in this chapter fall short of the many aspects that

effectiveness can imply (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). When trying to construct a measure of effectiveness, governments and schools may concentrate on that part of the construct that has been defined rather than a part of the construct that has eluded us. We can measure attainment in terms of national test results, and so that tells us something about effectiveness. However, because effectiveness is not just about academic success, the match between the measure and the construct is incomplete. The construct of effectiveness discussed in this chapter includes a number of factors which are difficult, if not impossible, to measure. These would include the equitable treatment of all pupils, and the inclusion of all pupils in the life of the school. Factors such as these are too subjective to be measured in simple statistical form. However, because statistics can be gathered to measure national test success, then there is a possibility, that although these results tell us little about the quality of schooling, they become a major determinant of school effectiveness and success. This use of measures for alternative purposes is known as contamination (West & Hopkins, 2003).

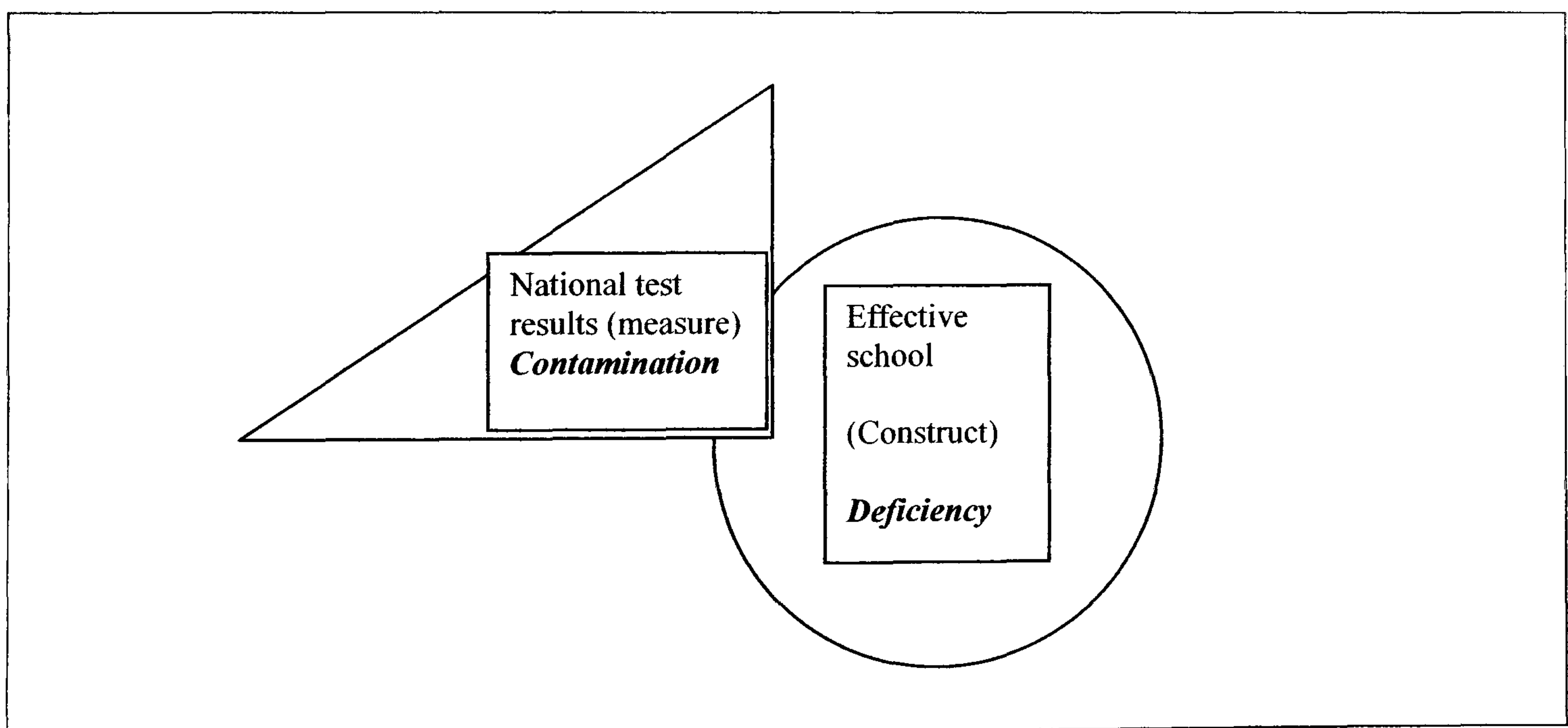


Figure 1. Mismatch of the construct of school effectiveness and the measure of that effectiveness (adapted from West & Hopkins, 2003).

The figure above illustrates the construct of an effective school, but the measure used to determine its effectiveness contaminates the construct, as it only determines one aspect of the concept. National test results are measures of basic skills of literacy and numeracy, areas of the curriculum that can be tested. The Scottish education system was formerly proud of its broad and balanced curriculum, and looking at the identified

national priorities, the curriculum still seems to be broad. However, the idea that school effectiveness is judged on national test results may marginalise other curricular aspects and indeed, distort learning because of the pressure for assessment (Wrigley, 2003).

The points above make the argument that the prevalent discourses of effectiveness in terms of performance (Gewirtz, 1997) may cause schools to be described as failing or ineffective when in fact they are effective at being inclusive, by providing an enhanced learning environment for all their diverse pupils. Child poverty levels continue to be high in Britain, so the government may find it convenient to blame “ineffective schools” for social exclusion and poor results. Education is a complex system, and it seems that there are many factors that need to be inter-related in order to achieve a positive effect (Büeler, 1998). The effects of a school or a classroom cannot be isolated from other contexts which affect pupils. MacGilchrist, Myers and Reed (1997) in their work on school improvement found that there was no blueprint for success. There were no definitive systems or particular approaches (such as assertive discipline) for the effective inclusion of every pupil with the diverse issues of conduct that can be presented in every mainstream school. Despite this, the government may be attempting to pin down a prescriptive list of characteristics of effective schools because it fits well with the prevalent discourse that seeks to make teachers accountable for putting the list into practice.

How effective a school is at including students with diverse needs and personalities can probably be measured subjectively at best. But subjective judgements are at the heart of teaching, as opposed to learning, as Skinner (1954) acknowledged when he wrote of the “science of learning and the art of teaching”. Perhaps, then, there is a need to move a more balanced subjective approach to the evaluation of effectiveness, which would include pupils’ perceptions of inclusion as well as the government’s perception.

CHAPTER EIGHT

EFFECTIVE TEACHERS...WHOSE PERSPECTIVE?

The previous chapter attempted to evaluate how schools as systems can be considered effective in their response to the five national priorities for education set by SEED. It concluded that school effectiveness should probably be measured with a more subjective but balanced approach which took account of the perceptions of a wider range of stakeholders than appears to be the case at the moment. With this in mind, it is necessary to discuss who makes decisions about the formation of criteria or models against which effectiveness is measured before embarking on any debate on teacher effectiveness. How are the criteria arrived at? This chapter discusses the authority of those who influence the specification of criteria, and discuss aspects of evidence used by these various groups to decide if teachers' practice and qualities in a particular educational context may be considered effective. There will then follow a discussion of three further aspects of the assessment of teacher effectiveness, that is, the purpose of the evaluation, the stage of experience of the practitioner, and the concept of the work of a teacher. These three areas are important in considering the notion of effectiveness as they influence normative judgements made by stakeholders.

The normative aspects of effectiveness are clear when we consider the large number of lists of characteristics of effective teachers: in government policy documents and reports, in reports of research, from professional bodies and in literature. However, it is possible that the definition of "effective" changes, depending on the aims or underlying philosophy of the groups making the judgement. A pupil might judge a teacher to be effective because the teacher made lessons interesting, had a good sense of humour and didn't shout. In the same way, a school inspector might also consider the fact that the teacher made lessons interesting a positive characteristic. However, the inspector would possibly also incorporate some traits that related to the academic success the pupil was achieving, as a result of the teaching in the classroom. In this way of thinking effectiveness is associated with national norms and school achievement. This normative idea of effectiveness is concerned with making a judgement of how teachers match a model or concept of good teaching. Colleagues, students or the community might make the judgement. It is important, therefore, to try

to avoid making the assumption that a “model” effective teacher is the same to all concerned in education, because of the different ideals, interests and predispositions of individuals and interested parties. This chapter will look at the levels of power and voice of those who have a stake in education: the pupils, the parents and the wider community, the teachers themselves, government advisers, inspectors and policy makers. It will debate who can “speak and think, when, where and with what authority” (Ball, 1994, p. 21). The issue of “voice” is concerned with identifying who, in reality, exerts the most authority in influencing policy and educational agenda (Symon, 2001) and how power is “distributed and organised among various individuals, groups communities and societies” (Ginsberg & Lindsay, 1995, p. 4).

Those Who List Criteria of Effectiveness

Pupils’ Perceptions of Effectiveness

The world of education often appears to be dominated by ideas of consumerism, where the client group is of paramount importance. It might be expected that the clients, that is, the pupils, would be the best judges of a teacher’s effectiveness. To an extent this may be true. In fact, pupils’ results are used as a criterion against which teachers’ effectiveness can be measured, and this will be discussed in greater detail at a later stage. However, pupils’ views on whether or not they consider a teacher to be effective are rarely considered. In today’s climate of human rights, pupils’ views are to be considered in terms of targets to be achieved, programmes to be followed and the appropriacy of aspects of the curriculum. Children are considered able to express their views on areas such as these. Should their views on teacher characteristics not be given equal weight? Harkin (2000) suggests that young people, even those with moderate learning difficulties “are usually eloquent, sensitive, fair and accurate in their judgement” (p. 4) if they are given the opportunity and the tools to express themselves. The tools may well be vocabulary appropriate for the task and a conceptual framework to organise their thoughts. As long ago as 1932, it was recognised that pupils had views on how effective were their teachers. Students hold views that may be “mistaken, prejudiced, superficial and immature, but whatever their validity, they exist” (Wilson, 1932, p.79). Young people are quite able to identify aspects of schooling that get in the way of their learning (Rudduck, Chaplain & Wallace, 1996; Rose & Shevlin, 2004). Students’ perceptions of their teachers can markedly affect how effective a teacher really can be in the context of a classroom

and the interactions that occur in it. The idea of classroom interactions is discussed more fully later in the thesis but at this stage it is important to define briefly what is “interaction” and why students’ perceptions are so significant. An interaction may be defined as a “series of interpersonal messages exchanged between persons” (Tartwijk, Brekelmans, Wubbels, Fisher & Fraser, 1998). Interpersonal messages both result from and cause students’ actions. Students’ perceptions of teachers’ “style” or behaviour are formed into schemas — a way of thinking about how teachers behave in certain situations (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Students then apply these schemas and act accordingly. Students’ perceptions of teacher effectiveness form a link between the learning environment and their behaviour (Walberg, 1976).

It is clear, then, that pupils have views on effectiveness which should be considered, but there is little evidence to show that the teaching profession feels able to expose itself to criticism by those who actually experience interaction with teachers on a day-to-day basis. Pupils have little voice in terms of power and authority as their voices are outside the “dominant culture” (Apple, 1999; see also Humes, 2000) Despite the rhetoric of democratic schools and a culture of “rights”, such organisations are very often exceedingly undemocratic. If a school or an education system was moving towards a democracy, then the educators should feel obliged to enable young people to voice their opinions. There is an argument that schools are giving pupils much more say in many areas of education (see, for example, Scottish Schools Ethos Network, 2004). However, a counter argument is that even within schools some pupils have more voice than others. Opportunistic data on school councils (Hamill, Boyd & Grieve, 2003) suggests that pupils for school councils are not always elected in a democratic manner, and that in mainstream schools there is often an under representation of less able pupils and those who are disaffected, or have difficulty in behaving in a manner considered appropriate. Schools are hierarchical institutions, with structures of policies and practices in place to determine who has power and control (see, for example, Foucault, 1982). I would suggest that even though pupils in general have little power, there are some in particular who have even less (Rose & Shevlin, 2004).

Parents and the Community

The idea of an educational marketplace and consumer choice gained added impetus in Scots law in the 1980s with the introduction of legislation that encouraged parents to choose the school they wished their children to attend (SED, 1989). However within the state system, there is, in reality, very little variation of the many elements that go to make up formal education — curriculum, pedagogy or organisation. What may vary, in terms of catchment areas, may be the clientele and a perception of “image”. Very often, parents, influenced by government rhetoric on market economy, are looking for schools which produce good academic results for pupils. As discussed earlier, schools which value results such as these may attract a certain kind of teacher, one who is effective in supporting pupils who are eager to learn, are intellectually able and have strong parental involvement in their upbringing and education (Gerwitz, 1997). Parents, who exercise their right of choice in an alternative manner, may be looking for an altogether different type of school and, arguably, teacher. The teacher characteristics they may value might well be different from those of parents looking for an academically focused education.

How do parents judge the effectiveness of teachers? Do they simply look at results that the schools produce, pick a school which matches their requirements and make assumptions about the quality of teachers within that school? We need to be aware, in Scotland, of the advent of Chartered Teachers (McCrone, 2001), the recently introduced programme of professional development that is discussed in more detail in Chapter Nine. Parents may use that certification as an indication of effectiveness and quality of teaching. There are difficulties in accepting that teachers who have not met the Standard and are not Chartered are all ineffective, or indeed that all those who are Chartered are effective. There may be a danger that parents make a choice of school, based on the number of Chartered Teachers that teach there, without being aware of the various qualities that the Standard requires teachers to possess and demonstrate. Parents may not know that the decision to become a Chartered Teacher is a personal one and not mandatory.

Parents of children with “more challenging” or “seriously disruptive behaviour” (SEED 2001b) may have had an unhappy school experience themselves and may be wary of teachers in particular and the education system in general. A recent study in

Scotland (Carole Millar Research, 2002) focused on parents who had experienced discrimination or disadvantage in their education. It sought these parents' views on teaching. Parents who had "poor" personal experiences of education related effectiveness to teacher attitude and its effect on a child's learning. Parents felt that teachers should take time to get to know children and develop an atmosphere of mutual respect within classrooms. While accepting that the curriculum was now tailored towards those who would achieve academic success, parents felt that all pupils should be valued. Some pupils' academic attainment might not be high, for whatever reason, and it was feared the self-esteem of those pupils could be eroded. Parents also suggested that a willingness to implement some sort of home-school partnership, where less formal links can be built between the teacher and the parent (Vulliamy & Webb, 2003) would be the mark of an effective teacher. Many parents, for whom school has been a negative experience, felt that they did not wish to be involved in policy making at any level, except when issues affected them personally, for example, if there were to be decisions made about school closures. This is interesting, because although these parents had a poor experience of education, they felt that their children's experience was worse (Carole Millar Research, 2002).

Community Perceptions

A recent study in the United States showed that 42% of respondents within the community valued teachers "having skills to design learning experiences that inspire/interest children," whereas only 19% valued teachers who had a thorough understanding of their subject. Similarly, 67% of adults sampled said that "developing the proper skills to make information interesting and understandable is a greater difficulty than developing adequate knowledge about subject matter" (Educational Testing Service, 2002, p. 9). Parents in Scotland may express similar views, but are these views reflected in literature and documentation on teacher effectiveness? The Scottish School Boards Association stated that as a result of the national debate on education (2002) an "overwhelming number of parents and pupils regarded the quality of teaching in their school as very good", but give no indication of the standards used to judge that quality. McBeath (1990) writes of a survey which showed that "a substantial proportion of Scottish parents" were concerned about the quality of teacher-pupil relationships which contribute to creating a learning environment.

Parents as Partners

As outlined earlier in this section, the government introduced the idea of market and consumerism to Scottish education in the 1980s. It has been argued (see, for example, Symon, 2001) that the idea behind this was to redress the balance of power, taking it away from teachers and local government, by introducing another partner.

Theoretically, at least, parents became included in educational decision making.

The following figure illustrates the range of influences affecting policy making in education. These can be seen as national and local government and teachers in key roles, with influences from a range of environmental forces on one side and parents on the other.

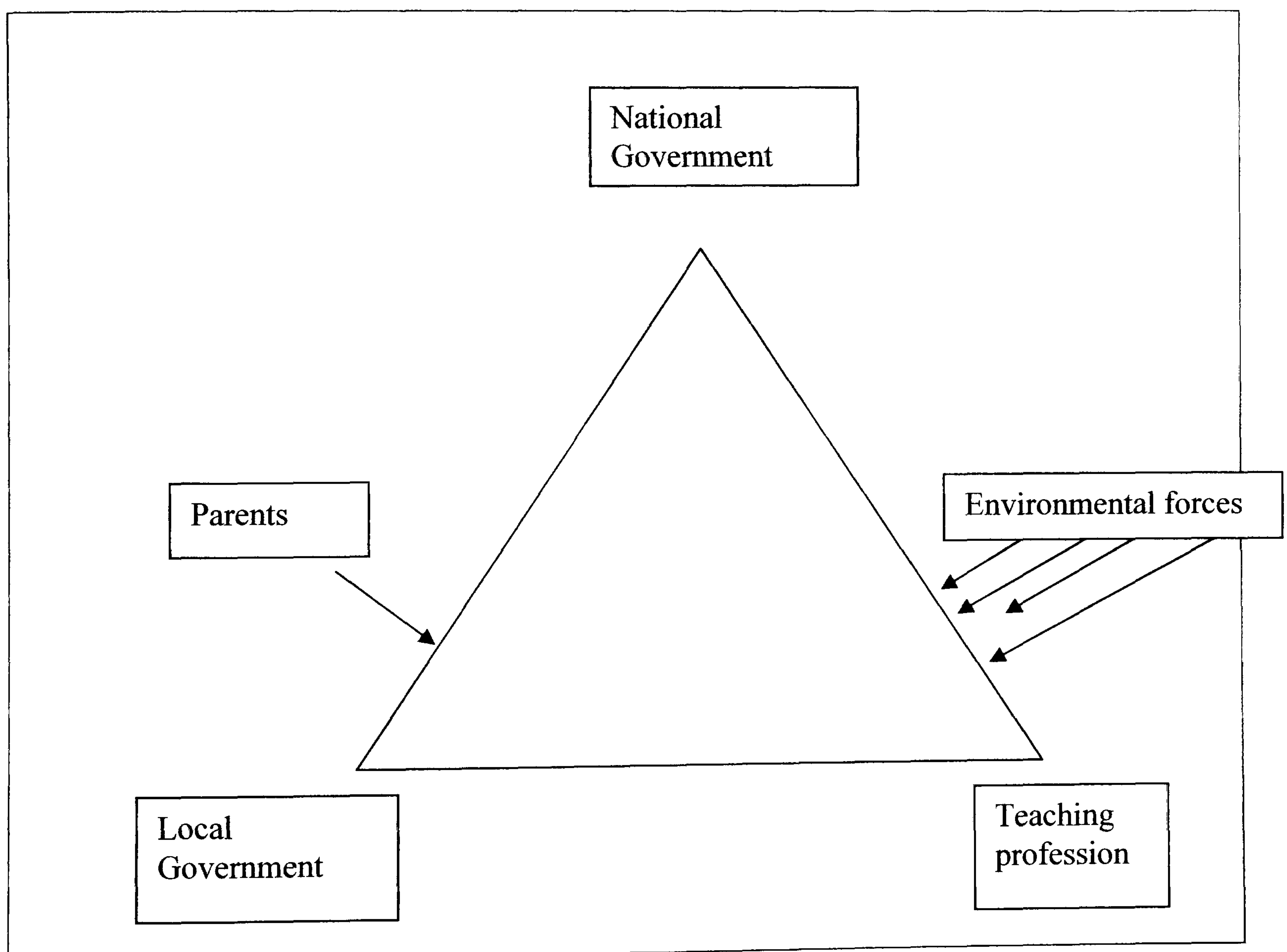


Figure 2 A tetrahedral representation of influences on educational administration (from an adaptation of Briault's (1976) triangular model of educational administration).

Although all the participants in Figure 2 influence policy, their functions in administration and their powers in shaping guiding principles vary. These functions and powers are illustrated hierarchically in the following data display matrix, based on the reduction of Symon's (2001) discussion of the functional hierarchy of participants in educational administration

Table 2 Data display matrix of the participants in educational administration and their relative areas of influence. (adapted from Symon, 2001).

Participants	Function
Central Government	Formulates policy, oversees and assesses its implementation
Local government	Interprets, implements and administers policy
Teaching profession	Attempts to influence policy and carries out the functions
Parents	In economic terms influential. Self interest forces efficiency and raised standards as schools 'compete'.

It could therefore be argued that parents' potential influence on government policy was increased. Recent proposed changes to legislation have resulted in parents and representatives from the community in general being involved in consultation exercises. Parents are aware that national and local government, as well as individual schools, are taking steps to increase parental involvement. However, despite the change towards a climate of consultation, it could be argued that parents feel that there is no genuine attempt to elicit their views and engage in dialogue. For that reason they may feel that they are unable to influence policy to any great extent and therefore are not prepared to voice their opinions. Parents' voices were not heard when the Scottish government moved towards an emphasis on the teaching of facts, characterised by the phrase "back to basics" and "raised attainment" in the 1990s. This movement towards concentrating on the basics has its roots in the 19th century and by now is ingrained in pupils', parents' and teachers' psyches.

Teachers

Teachers judge the effectiveness of their peers in very subjective ways, more concerned with the practical teaching “craft”. Effective teachers are those who help pupils understand the relevance of the curriculum, employ a variety of learning styles and resources (Effective Teaching and Learning Network, <http://www.etln.org.uk/>). Teachers may be judged effective by their classroom displays or how well they manage to progress their pupils through the 5–14 curriculum and the associated National Tests. Effective teachers create an orderly, attractive environment; construct well organised, well structured lessons; offer intellectual challenge to pupils and have high expectations of them; monitor progress and give clear feedback and practise fair, clear discipline (Creemers, 1994).

Opportunistic data collected by the writer during the delivery of the Chartered Teacher Studies programme suggests that teachers will not judge their peers effective by their having achieved Chartered Teacher status. Teachers will judge their peers effective if they conform to the culture and ethos of the school. Rosenholtz (1991) studied teachers and schools in the United States and found that teachers quickly learn to classify, organise and express beliefs that accord with the tradition of their work context. Teachers tend to value experience and equate this with effectiveness. However, experience is not always a good teacher (NBPTS, 1998) so length of service is not in itself an indicator of effectiveness. Yet, teachers learn their craft mostly from other teachers and from their experience of teachers when they were at school (Stones, 1992). In Strathclyde University’s Bachelor of Education degree, students often report that they value the practical element of working in the classroom with experienced teachers. If experience is not always the same as effective, it is important that there are “clear connections between what future teachers are taught about pedagogy and what research shows to be effective” (The Teaching Commission, 2004, p. 35). Further, and this will be elaborated in a future section, teachers and student teachers have viewed teaching from a “delivery” viewpoint, rather than engaging with theory of how their actions influence pupil learning (Stones, 1992). Stone argues that a lack of knowledge of pedagogy leads teachers into acceptance of prescribed forms of practice.

Berman (1988) suggests that teachers are like assembly line workers, delivering programmes decided upon by government. Teachers are expected to be compliant. In respect of Government policy, Humes (2000) suggests that teachers are considered not to have the right to ask “why” but rather to be concerned with the pragmatics of working within the given framework. Teachers who choose to voice a point of view that may be at odds with the “received wisdom” may be described as “troublemakers”, “negative”, “not team players”. The individual is regarded as atypical and labelled as such in order to “protect the legitimacy of the institution” (Blase & Anderson, 1995, p. 138). If this is indeed the case teachers have very little power in defining concepts in educational terms. Not only that, they are also actively discouraged from expressing their views (Humes, 2000). In defining effectiveness, then, teachers may tend to refer back to government rhetoric rather than make a personal judgement which may be considered contentious.

Government

If schools are judged effective against government criteria, should teachers also be judged against these? As discussed in the previous chapter, government criteria tend to be of a sort whose attainment can be measured. The government is looking for hard quantitative data that can be used to illustrate the efficacy of initiatives. The Labour government has education as one of its priorities. The government emphasises that good teaching is the key to high standards (DfEE, 1997). The very best teachers can demonstrate their effectiveness in achieving results. Effective teachers are judged on their pupils’ performance, relative to their past and expected attainment. (DfEE, 1997). They are also judged on their subject knowledge, planning, teaching and assessment and professional effectiveness (DfEE, 1997). The sorts of characteristics chosen to determine effectiveness are therefore the kind which could be described as pragmatic. They do not relate to the personal, or human qualities that teachers may possess, but rather to characteristics relating to the craft of teaching that can be measured (see for Morley & Rasul, 1999, cited by Darling-Hammond, 2000). Measurable results are an ineffective way of determining whether or not students are developing higher-order thinking skills, or advanced reasoning. Using pragmatic measures that concentrate on measurable results cannot assess all of the outcomes of schooling valued by parents, teachers, and schools. They cannot represent everything that schools do or should do (Darling, 2000). There are situations where teachers are

effective only if they take into account the diverse circumstances of the students and the communities from which they come. The use of “test scores” as a measure of effectiveness is making this “special” knowledge of individual teachers reduced to a common measurable standard, which it clearly cannot be (Lissovoy & McLaren, 2003, p.133).

The government highlights five priorities in education which were dealt with in more detail in Chapter Seven. However, its watchwords appear to be the “basics”, standards, excellence and accountability. Wrigley (2003) suggests that those concerned with education no longer think explicitly about holistic educational aims, but remain enamoured of the idea that what matters is the attainment of ever higher test scores. This method of measuring effectiveness is “far too limited and inflexible” (Bates, 2004, p. 121). The government’s definition of effective seems to be more focused on a “results-based” agenda than a definition presented by parents or pupils. There is also evidence that, worldwide, governments equate effective teachers with those who undertake formal professional development (Dunkin, 1997). This is also the case in Scotland, where teachers are being encouraged to undertake continuing professional development in return for increased pay, through the Chartered Teacher scheme. However, as argued earlier, there are undoubtedly practitioners who easily meet the standard for chartered teacher, but do not register for the competencies they have to be formally recognised. This does not mean they are less effective than other teachers who do have that formal recognition.

It can be seen from the preceding discussion that there is no real agreement on the nature of effectiveness. Effectiveness is defined differently by each educational stakeholder. However, stakeholders’ perceptions are not the only factors to be considered when discussing effectiveness.

Varying Interpretations of Effectiveness

This section discusses three factors which may be considered when defining and judging effectiveness in teaching. Dunkin (1997) suggested that, first, the purpose of the evaluation of effectiveness and, second, the stage of professional development at which the teachers being evaluated should be taken into account. The third factor which is discussed is the concept of a teacher’s job.

Purpose of evaluation

Why do we need to know if teachers are effective? The GTCS might argue that they are involved in assessing teacher effectiveness to ascertain, initially, if beginning teachers have the skills and knowledge which fit them to be teachers. Assessing initial and other teachers' effectiveness feeds into a system of accountability, in that it protects pupils from incompetent teachers. A second purpose would be to encourage professional development, leading to improved teacher quality, which in Scotland could lead to chartered teacher status. A further purpose of evaluation of effectiveness may be to improve learning and teaching and overall school quality.

Dunkin (1997) wondered whether it was equitable to judge the effectiveness of all teachers by the same standards. Assessment of teacher effectiveness should be differentiated to take account of whether they are novice teachers, more experienced or expert teachers (Berliner, in Banks & Mayes, 2001). There is an abundance of exemplars of criteria against which teacher effectiveness is judged. The General Teaching Council (Scotland) has a Standard for Registration for Initial teachers, then a standard for Chartered Teacher status. Other professional bodies such as the New Zealand Teaching Council will register teachers if candidates

- are of good character
- are fit to be a teacher
- are satisfactorily trained
- have satisfactory teaching experience.

These standards apply to all teachers, regardless of experience. Similarly the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, in the United States, has a list of standards teachers must match to become certified. These vary according to the stage of school in which the prospective teacher wishes to teach, rather than differentiating for experience. A similar position exists with the General Teaching Council (England), but the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) commissioned a set of standards against which teacher effectiveness could be judged. These standards are general but the extent to which they are expected to be met varies according to whether teachers are at the “threshold, main grade or outstanding” (Hay McBer, 2000). England also has Advanced Skills Teachers (AST), and the main

purpose of creating this grade of teachers is to raise standards of attainment (Sutton, Wortley, Harrison & Wise, 2000). There is an implicit expectation that ASTs will undertake professional development, as they are expected to “update their knowledge regularly” (Sutton et al., 2000, p.414).

Concept of the Work of a Teacher

The work of a teacher can be conceptualized in a number of ways. It can be seen as that of implementing programmes as required by the head teacher and the government at both local and national level (Darling-Hammond, Wise & Pease, 1983). This fits well with the concept of a managerialist or bureaucratic approach, discussed earlier, where teachers meet goals set by others, manage a diverse range of students well, record their achievements and shortcomings and are accountable to a range of stakeholders (Brennan, 1996). This concept of a teacher’s work could be described as labour (Darling-Hammond et al., 1983; Berman, 1988). In this concept teachers perform their work and do not have a great deal of autonomy. This view of teaching has its critics who argue that teaching is not a mechanical process of delivering the curriculum, but must involve reflection and creativity (Judd, cited by McClelland & Varma, 1996).

Teaching can be described as a craft (Stones, 1992). Performing a craft relies on specialist techniques and their subsequent application, following rules. The “craft” of teaching is learned by observation, and is a conservative approach to education as it relies on what teachers do now, rather than what improvements could take place in teaching and learning. Not all craft knowledge is accurate (Leinhardt, 1990) and is limited in scope by the teacher’s experience.

In Scotland, as elsewhere in the world (see, for example, USA, Australia, New Zealand) there is an increasing emphasis on the concept of a teacher being a professional. Darling-Hammond (1986) suggests that as professionals, teachers have a more active role in planning, conducting and evaluating their work. They take account of the needs of their students while at the same time taking the aims of government into account. Sachs (2003) however, suggests that professionalism as described above raises a question of paradox. Can teachers be autonomous, yet at the same time be accountable to stakeholders — politicians and the community — to raise standards of

achievement? If the work of a teacher is described as a profession there is an implication that there must be a sound body of theoretical and practical knowledge, specialised skills and techniques but also an element of sound professional judgment about the application of knowledge and skills based on theoretical knowledge (Darling Hammond, 1986; GTCS, 2002).

Finally the work of a teacher could be described as an art (Skinner, 1954). This conceptualisation includes all the attributes of a profession but goes a step further. Teachers who are “artists” apply their theoretical and practical knowledge and skills in new, unpredictable and unconventional ways and personalise their work rather than adhering to standard ways of working.

It could be argued that these concepts of a teacher’s work relate to their degree of experience, as discussed by Berliner (cited by Banks & Mayes, 2001). Berliner contends that there are five stages from a novice teacher to an expert teacher. These stages he describes as novice, advanced beginner, competent, proficient and expert. His contention is that at both novice and advanced beginner stages, teachers follow rules, and do not take responsibility for their actions. This could equate with Darling-Hammond’s and Berman’s view of teaching as labour. As teachers reach the stage of competency and proficiency, they are skilled crafts people who are aware that there is more to teaching than just passing on information. They are far more autonomous and have a theoretical understanding which they seek constantly to develop. Finally at expert stage, they could be considered artists, who take teaching to a still higher level.

It is important to consider the various concepts of a teacher’s work, as these too influence how teachers are judged effective. If teachers’ work is considered labour or craft, then the evaluation of effectiveness should tend towards appraising whether teachers implement the 5–14 curriculum guidelines, achieve government priorities and meet targets. When the teacher’s work is considered a profession there is an expectation that teachers are effective if proper standards are being applied. However, I would argue that there is a tendency for these standards, set by the GTCS, to be very much concerned with delivering the curriculum and knowledge of current policy, although there is mention of practice based on reading and research. The concept of teaching as an art is not explicitly considered in any measure of teacher effectiveness.

Teaching as an art is only considered effective in the current climate if academic standards are raised and school targets are achieved.

Capability —Executing Effectiveness

The perceptions of the various stakeholders in education on what is an effective teacher have highlighted the need for me to use a scaffolding jargon till nearer the end of the thesis. I am going to work from the premise, mentioned earlier and discussed more fully in the next chapter, that there are three dimensions — competency, performance and effectiveness, where effectiveness has to do with personal characteristics. Voltaire (http://www.voltaireintegral.com/Html/22/11_Lettre_19.html) suggests that there is no such thing as a synonym and it may be that no word encapsulates all the meanings with which the word effective is imbued. I propose, however, to use the word capable, meaning able or gifted. I think that this word encapsulates the idea that there is progression in the art of teaching, from the stage of novice to that of expert (Berliner, in Banks & Mayes, 2001). Of course, much current use of "capability" is a concern with potential, perhaps even more than achievement or effectiveness. However, its Latin root (capere) means "to hold", and it is the holding of the power to be a skilled, proficient teacher, supporting students whose behaviour can prove challenging in the classroom with which this thesis is concerned. The next chapter seeks to move towards a model for evaluating how capable are teachers in this context.

CHAPTER NINE

CAPABLE TEACHERS: IN THREE DIMENSIONS?

“The mediocre teacher tells; the good teacher explains; the great teacher demonstrates; the excellent teacher inspires” (Ward, cited at <http://www.quotationspage.com/quote/27529.html>).

The quality of both formal and informal learning in our schools depends to a large extent on the teachers in the classrooms. Teachers have the complex and demanding task of planning, implementing and evaluating programmes of study in a range of curricular areas. School populations have different needs and each creates different demands on teachers, who may need very special skills to deal with the challenges caused by diverse pupil populations. This chapter seeks to discuss the constitution of a model of capable teachers. It will use the framework, outlined below, of defining three dimensions of effective teaching, namely, competence, performance and effectiveness. It will then discuss these three dimensions with reference to specific traits that have been ascribed to effective teachers by various bodies concerned with teaching and education.

The Dimensions of Effectiveness

There is little doubt that teachers are a critical variable in students’ school experiences and learning. The quality of teaching is possibly the most important factor influencing student achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Kaplan & Owings, 2001; Whitehurst, 2002). The national priorities for education (SEED, 2000) call for enhanced teacher skills to promote learning more effectively and raise standards of attainment for all; to engender respect and other qualities of good citizenship; and to encourage the skills, values and attitudes necessary to prosper in a changing society.

It appears that the theme of teacher effectiveness has a number of dimensions, and this may affect the definitions used by the various groups concerned (Medley & Shannon, 1982). Three dimensions could be

- teacher competence
- teacher performance

- teacher effectiveness (Dunkin, 1997).

These different dimensions are important because they affect the evidence gathered to substantiate whether a teacher is effective or not.

Teacher competence may refer to the skills and knowledge defined as necessary qualifications for teaching. The General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) judges this aspect in the standards initial teachers have to achieve to meet the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) (GTCS, 2002). Teacher competence as defined by the GTCS is a public statement of what teachers do, and the SFR provides a consistent basis for accrediting teachers (Acedo, 2000). Internationally, there is a tendency to have governing bodies which set standards against which teachers are judged competent. It appears that teacher competence is based on a compliance model, where competence or capability is defined as fit for purpose. Standards are specified and have to be met (GTCS, 2002; HMIE, 2002c). A compliance model, as this is, means there must also be a formal system of quality control. Apart from the standards set by professional bodies, other forms of monitoring quality exist. These include curriculum guidelines, regular tests for students and performance tables (Gerwitz, 2000).

Teacher performance relates to the manner in which teachers conduct themselves, and which can be observed. Teacher performance therefore might relate to preparedness, organisation, and modes of learning and teaching, for example. These attributes can be rated by performance measures, such as rating scales but scales have drawbacks. Rating scales confirm the presence or absence of a particular behaviour but should also examine the combination of behaviours that are so often important in affecting students' learning. The context, timing and quality of a behaviour, all of which are significant, need also to be considered. The use of observation schedules is another way of assessing performance but results using this method can be affected by incompetence in their administration, negative attitudes from teachers towards their use, and insensitivity to diverse contexts and classroom situations (Haertel, 1991).

Teacher effectiveness relates to the degree to which teachers achieve desired effects on students. It is this view of effectiveness that is most often measured by gauging teachers' "influence on the progress a specified kind of student makes toward a

defined educational goal” (Medley & Shannon, 1994, in Dunkin, 1997, p. 37). As discussed earlier, the first of the government’s educational goals is attainment in literacy and numeracy, so data can be gathered to illustrate the effectiveness of teachers in this respect. Glass (1990) and Medley and Shannon (1994), cited by Dunkin (1997), argue that using students’ results in this way is not a valid measure of teacher effectiveness. Glass (1990) in particular, goes further and argues that because teachers work in diverse contexts it is difficult to make comparison, and so statistical data is not reliable. Moreover, the government also has other “educational goals” in mind, such as inclusion and citizenship, and the extent to which these are achieved is far less easily illustrated with hard data. The fulfilment of these goals would be achieved through effective teaching, but effectiveness in this instance may have more to do with teachers’ characters and commitment. Thus it is possible that we can consider a further component of effectiveness.

Looking at teacher effectiveness through a different lens highlights personal qualities that teachers possess. Personal characteristics must have some influence in the model of an effective teacher. A teacher’s moral code of behaviour and their personal philosophy and self-belief affect their motivation and their professional actions. Personal qualities must interact with other characteristics of effective teaching. Effective teachers and leaders have a strong and coherent philosophy, and positive self-efficacy beliefs. A holistic philosophy of education may mean that teaching and education focuses more on learning for life in general rather than on examination results. Teachers who believe they are effective are more likely to be more innovative and take risks. Self-efficacy beliefs are powerful predictors of behaviour and explain not only the choices people make, but also their aspirations and persistence in difficult situations (Chan, 2003).

The combination of personal characteristics and interpersonal skills may well influence the relationship a teacher has with pupils, and consequently how successful they are at moving pupils’ progress towards specified educational goals. Cooper (1989) suggested that quality of relationship between teachers and pupils was one of the most important factors in determining the effectiveness of a school. Looking at effectiveness in this manner may help to redress the imbalance that Gerwitz (2000) highlights between a broader, more humanistic approach to teacher capability and the

more “narrow economic instrumentality approach” (Gerwitz, 2000, p. 353) which is promoted by various forms of quality control measures such as “How Good is our School?” (HMIE, 2002c).

The three dimensions defined here are implicit in much documentation, literature and research concerned with teachers’ capability. Each aspect will now be examined in turn and exemplified from relevant sources.

Teacher Competence

Research carried out in the United States suggests that teachers’ certification status can be positively and significantly linked with student outcomes (Darling, 2000). The General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) is the national professional body for teachers and it must accredit all teachers wishing to teach in Scotland. The accreditation process is based on the Standard for Full Registration (SFR). The SFR has two purposes. First, it details the professional qualities and capabilities teachers are expected to develop in the course of the induction year. Further, it also provides a professional standard against which the functions of a teacher can be measured. There are a number of areas in which teacher competency are judged:

- Professional knowledge and understanding
- Professional skills and abilities
- Professional values and personal commitment.

Using the SFR may go some way towards silencing critics of Initial Teacher Education (ITE). Some critics maintain that there is little “reliable scientific evidence that any component of the teacher education programmes has a predictable relationship to effective classroom teaching” (Angus, 2001). It may never be easy to agree on what evidence is reliable and scientific. However, the GTCS is involved in ITE in the form of the accreditation of courses. Moreover, the ITE institutions know the competencies which make up the SFR and know the standard their graduates have to meet in order to be accredited to teach. This suggests that the gaining of SFR is in itself “scientific evidence” of the relationship between teacher education programmes and the GTCS’ definition of “effective” teaching.

As a result of the report “A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century” (McCrone, 2000) teachers in Scotland can become chartered by their regulating body. This is an

acknowledgement that they are particularly capable in executing their craft. In order to become chartered, teachers have to meet the Standard, matching competencies in similar areas to those contained in the Standard for Full Registration:

- professional knowledge and understanding
- professional values and personal commitments
- professional and personal attributes
- professional action

(<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/library5/education/sfct-00.asp> retrieved 8.01.04).

The competencies highlighted by the GTCS in both the SFR and the Chartered Teacher Standard (CTS) are similar to those designated elsewhere in the world. For example, they match the “human qualities, expert knowledge and skill, and professional commitment (which) compose excellence” in the craft of teaching in the United States (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), 1998, <http://www.nbpts.org/about/index.cfm>).

In the following section the competencies prescribed by the GTCS for SFR and CTS are detailed (in subsections) and the progression of competency is discussed. All references to competencies should be assumed to be taken from these documents.

Professional Knowledge and Understanding

Teachers who meet the SFR are expected to have detailed knowledge of the curriculum of the sector in which they teach, and also sufficient knowledge and understanding of how best to deliver the aspects for which they have responsibility. This knowledge should encompass meeting the needs of individual pupils, both in terms of curricular success and their social competence and welfare. By the time teachers have been in post for six years, and are therefore eligible to become chartered, “sufficient knowledge” has been overtaken by “critical understanding”. It is deemed important that all teachers have a critical understanding of practice and policy in education, the system through which policy is delivered and their place in the “big picture”. Teachers with a longer period of service should be able to demonstrate a critical understanding of how both the social and cultural contexts for education have changed. Both beginning and longer serving teachers are expected to be able to articulate their beliefs regarding their values and their practice. It is expected that

these beliefs are underpinned by sound theoretical principles and that they should be informed by research.

Professional Skills and Abilities

This group of competencies refers to the craft of teaching, and comprises mainly of actions which teachers perform as part of their day to day practice. These include teaching the pupils, taking account of different abilities and learning styles, methods of delivery and relevance and effecting progress in pupils' learning. Teachers need to be able to plan coherent and progressive programmes of work, assess their pupils' work and monitor their progress with a range of assessment techniques. More experienced teachers are required to demonstrate that teaching is informed by reading and research. Classrooms should be well organised in terms of safety, order, resources and attractiveness. Those who seek to be recognised as having a greater level of competency should be able to demonstrate that their classroom environment and ethos is one where learning is encouraged and thriving. Teaching as a profession requires a process of effective communication, not only with pupils but also with a range of others which will include colleagues, paraprofessionals, professionals out with education, and parents. Part of that process will depend on co-operative working across sectors and disciplines. It is important, therefore, that all teachers, regardless of length of experience, create and sustain appropriate relationships with those with whom they work. All teachers are expected to improve their teaching process through the twin procedures of reflection on personal practice and critical evaluation of relevant literature in their field. Teachers with experience should extend the process of reflection by generating evidence of their impact on pupils' learning, and observation and discussion with colleagues. Part of the process of reflecting on competence in teaching and promoting learning should, for the more experienced teacher, include a contribution to the quality of education delivered within the whole school, and indeed the wider community. All teachers, regardless of experience, have a duty to extend their professional development and performance, through setting and achieving appropriate professional and personal targets. This competence is extended implicitly under the final heading of professional values and personal commitment.

Professional Values and Personal Commitment

In this climate of inclusion in both societal and educational terms, official professional standards consider it essential that all teachers demonstrate their commitment to inclusion and social justice. Practitioners at every stage in their career should be concerned with the personal, social, cultural and moral growth of all students. Children should be accorded respect and valued as individuals who can contribute to the school community and by modelling these attributes, teachers encourage a climate where there are high expectations of self and others, where fairness is promoted and the ethos of the classroom is positive. The promotion of mutual respect and tolerance should also be extended to encompass colleagues and the wider community. Teachers need to have high self-efficacy beliefs and one method of encouraging these is to be committed to a process of self-evaluation and continuing professional development. Through this course of action, teachers improve their practice and continue to seek ways of widening areas of their expertise.

Research carried out by the Hay McBer consultancy (2000) for the DfEE failed to establish a clear relationship between a teacher's qualifications and their "effectiveness" as a professional. In the category of professional characteristics, Hay McBer (2000) differentiated between the "effective" teacher and the "outstanding" teacher (p. 202). This can be related to the difference between a teacher meeting the SFR and those seeking CTS. Professional characteristics were described by McBer as "having to do with self image and values; ...the way a teacher habitually approaches a situation and...motivation that drives performance" (McBer, 2000, p. 202). This view seems at first to articulate with the dimension of effectiveness, described earlier as having to do with personal qualities. However, closer inspection of the features highlights some which others describe as a measure of competence or performance. Analytical thinking was defined by Hay McBer as thoroughness in preparation, accurate assessment, clear objectives and learning outcomes, setting milestones or targets for pupils, monitoring pupil progress. Conceptual thinking encompasses breadth, balance and continuity of curriculum delivery and meeting the needs of individuals. Flexibility takes account of need for differentiation. These are competencies required by the GTCS for SFR.

Bisschoff and Grobler (1998) identified eight aspects of teacher competence based on practitioners' views on the actual job of a teacher. They identified two which fit within the construct of competence. The first of these is described in their study as the "professional commitment of teachers" (Bisschoff & Grobler, 1998, p. 193). They use the work of Husen and Postlethwaite (1994) to define this aspect as the knowledge teachers have. Teachers use their knowledge of subject and pedagogy to instruct their pupils in an efficient manner. In other words can they do a good job of being a teacher? The second aspect they discuss was the educational foundation of the teacher. I would define this aspect as a competence, based on Markworthy's (1973) assertion that teacher education is the basis on which all else is founded. Aims of education, teaching proficiency, and the development of education all rely on a teacher's knowledge. This view seems to equate with the competencies teachers need to meet in order to gain the Standard for Full Registration with the GTCS or to gain Chartered Teacher status.

Teacher Performance

The report of Hay McBer is one which is used by the DfEE and OFSTED in measuring how capable is a teacher. The report contains a "dictionary" of professional characteristics with a grading against many, indicating a level of performance — main professional grade, threshold or outstanding teacher. Thus one could argue that all of Hay McBer's professional characteristics could fall within the dimension of teacher performance, as they are intended to be measured. The management consultants state at the outset of the report that their aim is based on pupil progress in examinations, so it is clear that this model will appeal to the government, because it has the capacity to provide hard data on the effect teachers have on the attainment of pupils in predefined areas of education (Medley & Shannon, 1994). The fact that the government has employed management consultants to carry out research reflects the corporate culture which is evident in many aspects of education. However, in keeping with the corporate approach of measuring teacher capability, Hay McBer uses a quantitative approach to try to differentiate between "typical" teachers and "outstanding" teachers, and talks of algorithms which enable teachers to be "sorted" into one of the two categories with 80% accuracy. Capability in teaching appears to be a science rather than an art, in this instance. Behaviours in which competent teachers are engaged can include, for example,

- involving pupils in lessons
- tailoring lessons to individual requirements
- using a variety of methods of delivery
- varying questioning techniques.

Mestry (1996) cited in Bisschoff and Grobler (1998) listed skills such as teaching strategies, interpreting the curriculum and productivity in a classification of capability. These appear to fit the category of performance. Proctor, Entwistle, Judge and Mackenzie-Murdock (1995) suggest that capable teachers have to influence three aspects of what they call the learning environment

- the physical environment — classroom space and organisation, storage space, displays, resources
- the psychosocial environment — the ethos of the classroom, the encouragement of care and respect, and the recognition of authority
- the materials and methods to support learning.

I feel that these are areas of capability that describe how teachers conduct themselves in role, and for that reason they seem to fit well with Dunkin's category of performance.

The teacher respondents in Bisschoff and Grobler's (1998) study recognised the maintenance of discipline as a characteristic of capable teachers. I believe that this trait has elements of personal effectiveness in that it involves the establishment of a relationship between teachers and pupils. Teachers have to make a value stance when dealing with discipline. However, Jones (1989) and Charles (1992) suggest that there is also a need for the establishment of rules, teaching approaches and general issues of good classroom management. These qualities seem to relate to teacher performance, hence their inclusion in this section.

Teacher Effectiveness

As discussed earlier in this chapter, Medley and Shannon (1994) described an approach to effectiveness that measured a teacher's influence on a student's progress towards educational goals. There is evidence of another facet of effectiveness which indeed should be considered, that of a teacher's personal characteristics. This next section deals with each of these elements in turn.

Teacher Effectiveness (i) — Measurable Outcomes

DfEE have adopted Hay McBer's (2000) three categories of effectiveness. These were teaching skills, professional characteristic and classroom climate. These categories are selected because the current study is based on pupil progress, and it is Hay McBer's assertion that it is through these areas that teachers can have an effect. Pupil progress is the aim and thus its achievement means that the teaching has been "effective". Hay McBer states in the introduction to the report that the company had "no preconceived ideas about the specific skills and characteristics that lead to effectiveness in the classroom" (Hay McBer, 2000, p. 2). However, it is clear that their concept of capable has to do with "added value". This is endorsed by the following statement "we knew how much value each of the teachers...had added over the period of a year because we had start of year and end of year examinations or test results" (Hay McBer, 2000, p. 2). Yet, as already discussed, student achievement measures are designed to measure precisely that, not teacher capability (Glass; 1990, Medley & Shannon, 1996). Mestry (1996) suggested that teachers need to meet the goals and aspirations of the school community. This, I believe, is an area which could be problematic and cause tensions. The aims of the school community may be heavily influenced by the need to adhere to government policy and the need for accountability in that respect. Certainly a positive effect on educational outcomes will be concerned with meeting the national priorities. Taken a stage further, this line of thought suggests that the aims of the school community may be, in part at least, raising attainment. If this is the case, then test results may play a large part in defining effective teachers (Medley & Shannon, 1994).

Teacher Effectiveness (ii) — Personal Characteristics

The concept of reflective practice has been discussed by many writers and thinkers on education (see for example, Dewey, Schon and Kolb). Zeichner (1982) and Fortuin (1996) talk about the need for reflection not only on educational aims and policies but also on teachers' attitudes, prejudices and ideologies. Arguably, this context is also linked to personal effectiveness. Teachers who work in a collegiate manner, such as is prescribed in the report "A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century" (McCrone, 2001), need to have the ability to cooperate (Senge, 1990). More and more aspects of

collaborative or cooperative work are becoming the norm for a teacher's role. There is a need to work with parents as partners (EPSSEN, 1994; Griffith, 1996) and a need to involve the learners far more in their education, giving them some autonomy and responsibility for their learning (Tyali, 1996).

Bisschoff and Grobler (1998) talked of teachers as leaders. Respondents in their survey identified teachers' leadership styles as contributing to their success.

Leadership has a great deal to do with interpersonal skills (Kotter, 1988), effective communication, and empowerment of others (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Harkin (2000) suggested that a key issue in the teaching and learning process was the nature of the relationship between learners and teachers. Berlak and Berlak (1981) agreed that teaching and learning is a multifaceted, interactive process. Rôles of teachers and learners are not fixed. Rather they are constructed and reconstructed in the course of social interaction (Stubbs, 1976). Dewey talked of education in terms of the learner's growth. It is vital to understand that "growth" can be facilitated or impeded by the quality of the relationship between a teacher and a young person (DoE, 1990). Surely, then, a capable teacher must have the skills to build positive relationships with all students? The work of Johannessen, Gronhaug, Risholm and Mikalsen (1997) highlighted the importance of the affective domain in teacher and student interaction. Students rated as effective teachers who showed empathy, who were interested in students, who encouraged them and made them feel secure. On the front of the report compiled for the DfEE by Hay McBer report was a list of characteristics of "good" teachers; a list compiled by year eight pupils in England, the equivalent to S2 in Scotland. "A good teacher is kind, is generous, listens to you, encourages you, has faith in you, keeps confidences, likes teaching children..." (Hay McBer, 2000). These qualities of effective teachers are qualitative, and fit well into the category of effective in terms of personal qualities. Work by Harkin (2000) with college students described the qualities of effective teachers and emphasised the importance of the affective dimensions of the relationship. These included spending time with students beyond formal teaching situations, humour and joking, respect, consulting with students and responding to their views. Teachers who exemplified these characteristics were described by Harkin (2000) as "understanding leaders". The affective qualities described above in the understanding leaders were in direct contrast to those of authoritarianism. Teachers need to have confidence in themselves and their ability,

create trust, and model sincerity, honesty and respect for others. Parsons (2002) agreed and suggested that the development of excellent personal relationships was the cornerstone on which everything else was based, most especially when dealing with students with conduct issues.

Moving Forward

Chapters Eight and Nine have argued that the capability in teaching depends on a complex array of dimensions that include personal characteristics and the social and political context in which education is set. Chapter Ten's aim is to propose a model that encapsulates these dimensions as a framework for reflection and practice.

CHAPTER TEN

TOWARDS A MODEL OF TEACHER CAPABILITY

This chapter discusses the characteristics, gleaned from literature, research and practitioners, which distinguish the capable teacher, in the specific sense of someone who works successfully with children whose behaviour is considered inappropriate for the classroom. First, the chapter outlines the rationale behind the collection of the range of characteristics and the procedure for collecting them from a range of sources. There then follows a section which argues for the inclusion of each characteristic in procedures to assist further data gathering. That section discusses the validity of each item, with reference to its inclusion in either fieldwork data or literature, and consists of subsections detailing the attributes and their provenance. The whole discussion is summarised in Table 4. Based on the discussion in Chapters Eight and Nine, the compilation of characteristics is then analysed and sorted into the areas of teacher competence, performance and effectiveness. Effectiveness is discussed first in terms of pupils' attainment, and second, in respect of personal qualities. The writer then justifies the classification of the data and follows this with summary Tables 5, 6 and 7 which extend Table 4 by presenting the data sorted into the three areas of capability.

Rationale Behind the Collection of Characteristics

Research (see, for example, Hay McBer, 2000; Munn et al., 1997; Rutter, 1979) suggests that teachers have an effect on their pupils. The effect they have can be positive or negative in terms of self esteem, learning and ultimately achievement. There are a number of dimensions which teachers can control which influence the degree to which pupils' progress is positively influenced. Hay McBer (2000) describes these as professional characteristics, teaching skills and classroom climate. A similar position is taken by the General Teaching Council Scotland (GTCS). This is the governing body of teachers in Scotland, which has a statutory duty to set and maintain standards of teaching. The GTCS outlines four key areas, again within the teacher's sphere of influence, that will enable the achievement of higher standards of attainment and support for pupils to achieve their full potential. The first of these is "professional values and personal commitments", which includes effectiveness in promoting learning in the classroom, critical self-evaluation and development;

collaboration and influence; and educational and social values. The next three are called “professional knowledge and understanding,” “professional and personal attributes” and “professional action”. The key area of professional action is described as the interaction of the other three which results in positive change in classrooms. These topics were broadly discussed under headings of teacher competence, performance and effectiveness (i) and (ii) in the previous chapter.

Effective teachers have to be holistic in their work in the sense that they manage, respond, and anticipate the behavioural and learning needs of students, and manage other adults working in their classrooms. A teacher’s role is dynamic and interactive in organising teaching and learning within the context of student-teacher relationships, valuing students as individuals and also managing behaviour. Therefore, the characteristics which are evident in this complex array of behaviour, beliefs and feelings tend to have similar elements and overlap. They are often interdependent.

Compiling Characteristics of Effectiveness

The purpose of compiling a list of characteristics was to form the basis for gathering data to test empirically a model of a capable teacher that was based on the perspectives outlined in Chapters Eight and Nine. I decided to do this in three ways. First, I undertook a fieldwork exercise to assess the opinions of a group of practitioners. Second, I interrogated the literature. These two approaches yielded useful data as a first point of focus for subsequent fieldwork — iteration of earlier questions, in the traditions of emergent theory research pioneered by Glaser, Strauss, Corbin and others. The third source of characteristics of capability appeared opportunistically. The writer was involved in teaching a Chartered Teacher course with a class of experienced teachers who volunteered to act as a pilot group at two stages of the study. During the first stage teachers were asked to brainstorm lists of characteristics which they felt defined capable teachers. Later, this same group piloted the survey (discussed in the next chapter) and made further suggestions.

The first data gathering concerned practitioners’ perspectives of characteristics seen in teachers considered successful in supporting students whose behaviour was challenging in the classroom. The method used was nominal group technique (LTDI, 1999), a rapid method of eliciting key themes from witnesses with relevant experience

of the issues under investigation. The participants in the nominal group were 21 teachers from a central Scotland local authority who had chosen to come on a postgraduate course on supporting learners whose behaviour could be challenging. The group comprised support teachers, classroom teachers (both primary and secondary), and teachers from the pre-five sector. This may appear to be an opportunistic sample, however this was not the case: all the teachers were volunteers, attending a course on challenging behaviour, and so could be seen both as participants with a commitment to the field of challenging behaviour and with a degree of relevant experience in it.

Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

The NGT began through a focus question presented to the group of 21 teachers. The question was “What are the characteristics of teachers who are particularly effective at supporting pupils with inappropriate behaviour?” This question was displayed on an overhead transparency so that participants had a visual prompt to aid their thinking. Participants were given a few moments to consider what they thought were the most important characteristics. Individually they had to list their priorities. Each person in turn was invited to share the characteristic they thought was most important and these were recorded on a flip chart. Once every person had contributed one suggestion, participants were invited to add their next most important characteristic. They were encouraged to discuss each suggestion at this point; sharing thoughts, clarifying meaning where necessary. Some ideas were duplicated and these were deleted at this stage. The group then discussed whether several items had the same meaning and there was agreement to collate appropriate words or phrases into one statement. Each participant was then allocated six votes. These could all be given to one particular characteristic or shared among a maximum of six characteristics. Participants were asked to write their votes down against the items which had been gathered and refined. Votes were then allocated to each characteristic and recorded on a flip chart. Finally the scores and rankings were added and a final list compiled in table form. The initial list is shown below:

Good use of praise

In control

Fairness

Bears no grudges

Good listener

Can relate well to children

Punctual

Purposeful body language

High expectations	Shares information about themselves
Involves children in decision making	Good at reading a situation
Enthusiastic	Not confrontational
Fun	Organised
Consistent	Smiles a lot
Uses humour appropriately	Shows understanding
Mutual respect	Caring
Have respect from children	

The final list, with scores, is contained in the table below.

Table 3 Characteristics of effective teachers from nominal group

Characteristic	Score	Element
Clear boundaries	14	Performance
Fairness	13	Effective (ii)
Good at reading a situation	11	Effective (ii)
Mutual respect	11	Effective (ii)
Consistent	9	Performance
Good listener	7	Effective (ii)
Not confrontational	5	Effective (ii)
Curriculum made accessible	4	Competence
In control	4	Performance
Organised	4	Competence
Bears no grudges	3	Effective (ii)
Models good behaviour	3	Effective (ii)
Can relate well to children	3	Effective (ii)
Motivator	3	Effective (ii)/ Performance

The table above shows how the characteristics loosely matched the three elements discussed earlier, namely

- teacher competence
- teacher performance
- teacher effectiveness
 - (i) in respect of results
 - (ii) in respect of personal qualities.

Literature

There is a literature on teaching that covers a number of perspectives on the concept of effectiveness. The three elements of competence, performance and “effectiveness” (results and personal qualities) identified initially through the review of literature, and confirmed by practitioners in the NGT, were a useful basis for creating a framework that would structure a range of attributes which could be important in supporting children who display difficult behaviour. The remainder of this section identifies, as a series of subheadings, the main areas of literature that were consulted in the search for characteristics. There is also a brief description of the source of opportunistic data. The major section which follows aims to establish the validity of 41 (which grew to 44) characteristics which were the basis of a later stage of data gathering for the emergence of theory.

Government Guidelines and Policies

Government guidelines and policies were a useful source of characteristics. In particular, I looked at competencies identified by the GTCS for standard for full registration for teachers and also for Chartered Teacher status. In addition there are competencies identified by DfEE in England. The reason for looking at English competencies is that they are also used in Scotland to inform those undertaking Chartered Teacher studies.

The Practice of Teaching

The following areas of literature are fruitful sources of advice on how to teach well.

- general literature on classroom management
- literature on effective teachers
- literature on behaviour management.

Much of the material in these three types of publication seems to have little basis in research. Instead, it often seems to comprise books and articles targeted at both student teachers and qualified teachers, giving tips for teaching.

Emotional Intelligence

Writing in this area is open to criticism that it is often folk psychology or worse (see, for example, Stout, 2000). However, it is undoubtedly the case that some writers

suggest that teachers require to come to terms with their emotional literacy in an attempt to understand interactions in the classroom, and how they may be exacerbated by an emotionally unintelligent response. That outlook appears to have face validity for consultation in the current study and, as will be shown later in the thesis, can be related to literature in another area of scholarship — pragmatic communication — with an extensive research-based literature of its own.

Research Into Pupil Attitudes

A literature on pupils' opinions on teachers' effectiveness began to emerge in the 1980s and 1990s. Much of this literature comes from beyond the UK and Ireland, and so consulting it is also an opportunity for seeing effectiveness in an international context.

Initial List of Characteristics of Capability

The data from the nominal group technique and the characteristics of effectiveness recurring in the literature led to the proposal that 41 characteristics of teachers could be justified as valid indicators of the concept of capability in the support of young people whose behaviour is challenging in the classroom. They are listed overleaf, and discussed in greater detail beyond.

- Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate, differentiated programmes of work, IEPs
- Demonstrates a commitment to equality
- Demonstrates a commitment to social justice
- Demonstrates a commitment to inclusion
- Has a critical understanding of current policy debates
- Makes a positive response to pupil difference
- Makes a positive response to barriers to learning
- Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all
- Engages students actively in the learning process
- Caring and approachable
- Takes time to listen to pupils
- Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for pupils
- Holds informal conversations with pupils
- Establishes good relationships with pupils
- Knows pupils well
- Plans, organises and prepares materials for classroom presentation
- Stimulates student interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically
- Helps students learn independently
- Relates course content to student's experiences
- Personalises the learning process
- Is approachable to pupils outside the classroom
- Broad understanding of skills for teaching and learning
- Good at reading people's moods and understanding non-verbal cues
- Sense of humour
- Deals calmly with stress; sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats
- Sets rules in class and follows them at all times
- Stays calm and composed in trying situations
- Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school
- Is well prepared
- Has good subject knowledge
- Uses variety in modes of teaching to make material not only understandable but memorable
- Clear about lesson structure
- Has integrity
- Is innovative
- Draws on personal experiences
- Draws on pupil strengths
- Maintains good discipline
- Shows great commitment to work
- Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching
- High performance expectations
- Uses praise appropriately

Characteristics Generated by Experienced Practitioners

Earlier in the chapter, it was noted that, as a third source of characteristics, opportunistic data was gathered from practitioners undertaking the Chartered Teachers Study programme at the writer's place of work. They volunteered, as part of their course and as a pilot exercise for this investigation, to consider the collection of 41 items. Their responses were analysed and three additional characteristics (see Chapter Eleven also) appearing from the discussion were added to those generated from other sources:

- enables pupils to achieve in National Tests
- values parents' perspectives
- works well with others.

For convenience, all 44 characteristics will now be discussed in more detail to anchor their validity as constructs to be examined through the gathering and analysis of data. Inevitably, there were various conceptual overlaps within the group: they act as different lenses on the same dimension. For this reason, some are discussed singly and others are grouped in the sections which follow. The whole discussion is summarised in Table 4 at the end of this section.

Characteristics of Capable Teachers

- *Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate, differentiated programmes of work, IEPs*

This characteristic is one of the competencies of individuals wishing to be Chartered Teachers under the new structure for recognising advanced standing and competence among the profession in Scotland (GTCS, 2003). It is therefore considered to be important in promoting effective learning for all students. Experienced teachers, when asked to define a good teacher, included this characteristic. Anecdotes from the rhetorical literature on teaching support them. For example, Ayers and Gray (1998) considered it essential in good classroom management...a basis from which to start. Galvin (1999) considered a number of practical strategies that effective teachers employ when considering the needs of the students within the class. These strategies include IEPs, differentiated materials and differentiated support structures, among others. Schools have a diverse population of students, with differences in skills,

experiences and needs. Teachers therefore should be concerned with delivering a curriculum, based on the 5-14 guidelines, but relevant, stimulating, appropriate and challenging. (Barthroe & Visser, 1991; Moore, 1996).

- Demonstrates a commitment to equality
- Demonstrates a commitment to social justice
- Demonstrates a commitment to inclusion

These are considered to be core values for teachers by the General Teaching Council for Scotland. Teachers must demonstrate these characteristics before being granted full registration by the Council. Hay McBer (2001) suggests that effective teachers explicitly recognise and value the worth of each individual, and this is part of their professionalism. Teachers who, for example, differentiate work, are, through their professional actions explicitly demonstrating a commitment to inclusion, equality of opportunity and social inclusion. Their actions allow all students to achieve their full potential (Barthroe & Visser, 1991; Visser, 1993; Dickinson & Wright, 1993).

Harslett et al. (2002) also referred to these attributes in their study into teacher effectiveness with aboriginal students. The research carried out by Harslett et al. (2002) is a particularly relevant source, though its geographical location may seem strange. The students in the study were in the main culturally divergent from their teachers. This may be the case with many youngsters who have conduct difficulties. The sub-culture to which they belong often differs from that of the teachers, who are successful, employed professionals from a more advantaged socio-economic background than many of their pupils.

- Has a critical understanding of current policy debates

This attribute is highlighted by the General Teaching Council for Scotland in both the standards for full registration and for chartered teacher. The extent to which the understanding is critical is the variant between the novice and the more expert teacher.

- Makes a positive response to pupil difference
- Makes a positive response to barriers to learning
- Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all
- Engages students actively in the learning process

Overall, these four traits are linked to the student as an individual learner. The first two are actions that would demonstrate an effective teacher's commitment to valuing diversity and belief in social inclusion. These are actions included by the General Teaching Council for Scotland in both the standards for full registration and for Chartered Teacher status. For full registration, teachers need to identify and respond to barriers, but arguably their status is that of novice teachers, who have yet to become fully effective. Kyriacou (1986) also identifies that the recognition of and response to pupil difference is crucial in being effective. Hay McBer (2000) suggests that effective teachers show a passion for learning by creating stimulating learning environments that support all pupils in their learning. It could be argued that this implicitly suggests engaging the students in the learning process. Ayers and Gray (1998) propose that teachers encourage discovery and experiential learning, which almost ensures that students are engaged. However, teachers need to check for engagement in the learning process.

- Caring and approachable
- Takes time to listen to pupils
- Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for pupils
- Holds informal conversations with pupils
- Establishes good relationships with pupils
- Knows pupils well

Adults in effective schools stress the requirement for caring relationships with their pupils. Effective teachers are confident that their pupils view them as caring and approachable (Johannessen et al., 1997; Richards, 1999). Devereux (2001) found that pupils considered good teachers would know them, listen to them and think about them as individuals. Experienced practitioners also identified these qualities when asked to define effective teachers (Harslett et al., 2002). Research by Corbett (2001) confirmed that teachers who listen to their pupils demonstrate that they value them. Experienced practitioners also felt that knowing pupils well was an important attribute to have, in order that they could meet their physical, emotional and learning needs.

- Plans, organises and prepares materials for classroom presentation

Experienced teachers identified this quality as fundamental for effectiveness. It is the basis of the craft of teaching and should be “intellectually and pedagogically sound” (Kyriacou, 1986, p.122). Ayers and Gray (1998) and Galvin (1999) discuss the impact of the curriculum and the thought that must be given to the organization and presentation of it. Hay McBer (2000) talked of effective teachers targeting the key areas that will enable pupils to achieve their maximum potential.

- Stimulate student interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically

Hay McBer’s talk of “passion” (2000) for learning has an implicit suggestion of enthusiasm. Levine (1999) mirrored the “passion for learning” with a “passion for teaching”. Devereux (2001) identified an enjoyment of teaching children and teaching subjects as qualities children identify with effective teachers. Students at Stanford University nominated teaching professors for awards for excellence in teaching, and quoted their passionate enthusiasm for their subject matter and teaching. This attribute has much to do with personal characteristics and interpersonal skills. Work by Anderson (cited in Gage, 1963)) found that teachers’ classroom personalities and behaviours influenced the behaviours of the children taught. This suggests that enthusiastic teachers, who model positive interactions with pupils may engender enthusiasm for learning in their pupils.

- Helps students learn independently
- Relates course content to student’s experiences
- Personalises the learning process

Moore (2000) talked about the importance of encouraging students to reflect on how they learn. In this way students can evaluate their learning and also begin to take control of it. Corbett (2001) talked about a “connective pedagogy” that should be in place in inclusive schools. This pedagogy addresses individual needs and links each student into the curriculum in a way that makes learning meaningful and relevant to them. It is expected that all teachers in Scotland should encourage and nurture pupil’s independent learning (GTCS, 2005). By taking account of pupils’ life experiences , by seeking to make learning connections to their situation and by personalizing aspects

of the curriculum, both academic learning and social learning is improved (Ojemann & Wilkinson, 1939).

- Is approachable to pupils outside the classroom

Harslett et al. (2002), in their work on teacher perceptions of effectiveness included this characteristic. It relates to the teacher valuing each pupil, being interested in them as a person and having a caring nature. This is also reflected in the work of Johannessen et al. (1997), discussed earlier, where the affective domain was identified as being important. If social interactions with teachers are positive, students develop a commitment to the norms of the school community, have higher self-worth, are more motivated to achieve and, ultimately, may achieve academic success. It may be that this aspect is especially important when working with youngsters who have conduct issues. As argued earlier, many disaffected and disruptive students have difficulties in adjusting to the school culture, which in many cases reflects values which are different from the culture of the home, or local community. Phelan (1994) reported that students cited caring approachable teachers as being those whom they considered effective. Phelan's analysis suggested that this characteristic may have greater influence than any other.

- Broad understanding of skills for teaching and learning

Effective teachers draw on their knowledge of the nature of learning and on craft knowledge about teaching when they plan instruction. In most cases teachers would consider the special characteristics of the material to be learned, the background of their students, and the context in which teaching and learning are to take place. Understanding of, and skill in, the art of teaching is crucial for all practitioners and this is why this competency is required for full registration as a teacher in Scotland. It is also an essential characteristic for effective teachers. It is the foundation of the craft of teaching. In today's climate of inclusive education, it is important that teachers reflect on their pedagogical approach to ensure that they are indeed meeting the needs of all learners (Rice, 2001).

- Good at reading people's moods and understanding non-verbal cues

Effective teachers may well have a well developed ability to understand people, to know what motivates them and how to work co-operatively with them. Emotional intelligence “is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions” (Mayer & Salovey, 1993: 433). Empathy is the ability to hear and understand with a degree of accuracy unspoken or partly expressed thoughts, feelings, and concerns of others. People with empathy are able to pick up emotional cues. Boyzantis and Gollentan (2001) suggest that emotional intelligence enables us to manage, in an effective manner, both our own emotions and those of others. This ability is most useful when avoiding confrontational situations in classrooms and in preventing secondary behaviours, in the form of disruption leading from the initial incident.

- Sense of humour

A sense of humour can defuse many situations. (Ayers & Gray, 1998; McBer , 2001; Harslett et al., 2003). Humour must be used carefully and in situations where the teacher knows the pupil and has taken time to establish rapport. Researchers (see, for example Krashen, 1981,) have written about the negative effects of anxiety on students' ability to learn. Using humour can play an important part in helping to relax students and help them overcome stress and nerves and so make them more receptive to learning. Humour can also help to improve the classroom atmosphere generally.

- Deals calmly with stress; sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats
- Many teachers talk of feeling harassed by the tensions caused by trying to be inclusive and at the same time raising achievement. There have been a number of new educational initiatives implemented in the past few years; early intervention in literacy and numeracy, for example, community schools and joint action plans for behaviour. Having certain emotional capabilities may help us to perform effectively as professionals (Boyzantis & Gollentan, 2001). In order to cope with the changing demands of the profession, teachers need well developed self awareness and also self management.

- Sets rules in class and follows them at all times

Within the system that is a school, there need to be structures in place in order that the aims of education are achieved. That structure should involve rules (MacKay & Anderson, 2000). SEED (2002) included the setting of rules as a point for action, along with sanctions and rewards. The rules should be fair and acceptable to teachers, pupils and parents or carers. However, it is important that teachers understand that fairness does not mean rigidly applying strictly the same rules for every pupil. It may be that some teachers believe they are being unfair if they do not adhere to the rules for all pupils, at all times, whatever the circumstances. There is a difference between being consistent and sticking to rules at all times and being consistent and flexible where rules are concerned.

- Stays calm and composed in trying situations

Conduct, good or bad, is the product of contexts and interactions. Teachers are a part of the interactions that take place in the classroom, so they are personally involved. It is important that their responses to issues of conduct are measured and appropriate, so that confrontation is avoided. In order to manage this, they need to develop strategies for staying calm and composed (Kyriacou, 1986, Ayers & Gray, 1998; Galvin, 1999; Boyzantis & Gollentan, 2001). Gilliam (1993) rated this as an essential for dealing with crises in the classroom.

- Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school

Oldham (2002) stated clearly that teachers should model the sort of behaviours that they expect from their pupils. The teacher acts as a role model who sets the standard for performance. The indirect influence that a teacher has on pupils is not to be underestimated. Teachers need to be aware of their own values, in order that they do not transmit, verbally or non-verbally, messages which may be misinterpreted by pupils. Gage (1963) recognized that the culture from which teachers and other members of the school community come affects their values. Inclusive education requires schools and teachers to value inclusion, and this must be demonstrated in actions. Opportunistic data from mainstream schools suggest that teachers do not

wholeheartedly value the inclusion of children who display behaviour difficulties (Hamill, Boyd, & Grieve, 2002).

- Is well prepared
- Has good subject knowledge

Literature (Kyriacou, 1986; Ayers & Gray, 1998; Galvin, 1999) talks of teacher preparedness as a mainstay of classroom management, and this is endorsed by practitioners. Being well prepared also indicates that a teacher values all students in the class. Similarly, having good subject knowledge is a requirement for registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland and equally recognised as essential by teachers. Research carried out in France by Bressoux (1996) looked at the effect of teachers' training on pupils' achievement. The results showed that there was little difference in trained novice teachers when compared with experienced teachers. However, untrained novice teachers had a negative effect on pupils' achievement. These results suggest that the effectiveness of teachers is as much a product of their training as their subject knowledge. However there is another perspective to consider regarding preparedness and subject knowledge. This is the teachers' confidence to teach specific topics or curricular areas. U.K. research (see, for example Mills, 1989; Holroyd and Harlen 1995) suggested that teachers felt ill prepared and had little confidence to teach areas of the curriculum such as Expressive Arts and Science. Teachers need to be confident, be prepared and have good subject knowledge in order to be successful in effecting a change in learning.

- Uses variety in modes of teaching to make material not only understandable but memorable
- Clear about lesson structure

Teachers who reflect on their teaching style and their assumptions about the curriculum and its delivery will have a positive impact on the learning opportunities offered to the pupils in the class (Rice, 2001). Ayers and Gray (1998) also talked of using a variety of teaching styles in order to match the styles of the students within the class. The General Teaching Council for Scotland expects registered teachers to communicate the purpose of lessons and activities in a stimulating manner. This suggests that teachers are themselves clear about the learning outcomes they hope

pupils will achieve. Whether “stimulating” is the same as “understandable and memorable” is open to debate, but if children are motivated they have more chance of learning successfully.

- Has integrity

Practitioners included this attribute in their list. Integrity means being honest and having a soundness and wholeness (Concise Oxford Dictionary). Integrity is bound up with the ethics of teaching. A teacher who has integrity has an unconditional and steady commitment to moral obligations and values. Their values will not waver even when the betrayal of their principles would not be discovered. Teaching is a profession and it has been argued (see, for example, Carr, 1999) that as such should have a code of ethics. The GTCS does not have a specific code of ethics, but there is a Code of Practice on Teacher competence (GTCS, 2002) (see Appendix B). However, close examination of this shows that it is indeed concerned with competence rather than ethics. “The Code of Practice on Teacher Competence” provides the definition of competence in terms of the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) and explains the steps in the process for dealing with cases of short-lived under-performance and long-running under-performance.” (<http://www.gtcs.org.uk/gtcs-content/docs>). In other countries, such as Australia and the United States there are explicit codes of ethics by which teachers are expected to abide, for example, those for Queensland (Board of Teacher Registration, 2004) and New York State (Office of Teaching, 2002). Teachers can be empowered by having a code of ethics. A formal code means that they should be aware of their responsibilities. This is important as teachers are accountable to a whole range of stakeholders, including their pupils. Moreover, it means that any form of questionable practice can be brought to the authors of the code.

- Is innovative

This characteristic was another chosen by practitioners. This could relate to the delivery of the curriculum in order to take account of the diversity of needs in any classroom. It could also relate to the experience of many teachers who have difficulties in accessing resources because of funding difficulties. They must use their initiative to work round these difficulties. Hay McBer (2001) described teachers who

seize immediate opportunities to pre-empt difficulties as innovative. The University of Queensland clarifies the sorts of practices considered innovative, by giving examples. Using a variety of communication methods, flexible learning approaches using ICT and disseminating examples of good practice to other members of staff are all considered innovative approaches to teaching (http://www.uq.edu.au/teaching_learning/download/TLEP2003-2007FinalAugust2003.pdf).

- Draws on personal experiences

Experienced practitioners talked of using previous experiences to problem solve situations that occurred in class. This is especially important in dealing with issues of conduct, when it is important to avoid confrontation or exacerbating conflict situations. Hay McBer's research (2001) also highlighted the importance of drawing on the experience of similar past challenges; described as a professional skill effective teachers utilise. There is a need to combine personal experience with knowledge and understanding of the needs of individuals, and to relate these to the interactions taking place. However, the writer feels there is a caveat here. Teachers who feel that their dealings with issues of conduct in the past had been unsuccessful may have a negative attitude towards interactions with students whose conduct poses problems in the classroom. As discussed earlier, teachers who have high self efficacy are far more likely to have effective classroom interactions with all their students (Chan, 2003).

Draws on pupil strengths

Successful interventions in both learning and behaviour should take account of pupil strengths. Practitioners recognized this characteristic in effective teachers and it is also referred to in the literature (Cornwal & Tod, 1998). Devereux (2001) suggested that using pupil strengths as a starting point for offering a range of learning styles will allow students to feel good about their learning. A pupil's strengths are identified by formal and informal assessment, but at the same time weaknesses are also pinpointed. By working from a position of strength it is more likely that pupils will achieve their goals, both social and academic.

- Maintains good discipline

This was selected by practitioners, who felt that skilled teachers should be able to achieve a classroom climate that was conducive to learning. The maintenance of good discipline is highlighted by literature written about classroom management. Good discipline is clearly concerned with the planning and presentation of the curriculum, followed by monitoring of and reflection on the learning experience. (Kyriacou, 1986). Teachers in Scotland applying for registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland are expected to implement the school discipline policy in a “fair, consistent and informed manner” (GTCS, 2002). The difficulty arises where there is no agreement within a school community on what constitutes good discipline, and where school policy can be interpreted in a number of ways.

- Shows great commitment to work

Practitioners suggested that commitment to work refers to a willingness to contribute to the school team and school life. This could be through taking part in school working parties on areas of the curriculum, for example. Commitment also means taking on board the responsibilities that being a teacher entails; management skills in areas of curriculum and other adults in the classroom. Today, teachers have to deal with parents, other education professionals and professionals from other agencies such as health and social work (GTCS, 2002, 2003). They do this because they are committed to the holistic development of pupils (Parsons, 1996). Government too has instigated Joint Service Plans for young people, and is working towards a multi-agency approach to better match the needs of the young people in our education system.

- Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching

Teachers as professionals are encouraged to hone their skills through a process of continuing professional development. Implicit in this arrangement is the sense of teachers being concerned about the quality of their teaching of an increasingly diverse population of pupils. Teachers are encouraged to reflect on their work; on the success of their delivery, whether learners met intended outcomes, on the barriers to the learning for some pupils and how these may be addressed and so on (Schon, 1983). This informal process is formalized through a teacher’s Professional Development

Review carried out by their line manager. Teachers have to reflect on their development needs, and this process surely reflects their concern about maintaining or improving the quality of their teaching.

- High performance expectations

SEED (2001) highlighted the importance of teachers having and sharing high expectations with children and young people. Some children become disaffected by the expectations of them being too low, while others cannot achieve the demands made of them. It is important therefore that teachers have high, but realistic expectations of every pupil. The expectations should concern academic performance and behaviour. Effective teachers challenge and support young people and build pupils' self confidence that they can be successful as people and as learners (Hay McBer, 2001). The General Teaching Council for Scotland states that teachers should have "high expectations of and realistic challenges for" all pupils.

- Uses praise appropriately

Used sensitively, praise brings about positive changes in behaviour and achievement (SEED, 2001). Praise and positive feedback can be effective tools when working with even disaffected pupils (Swinson & Cording, 2002).

Summary of "Capable" Characteristics

The characteristics presented in the table below are those considered to be desirable for teachers to support capably those pupils with conduct issues in schools.

Table 4 Summary of primary sources (A–F) on effectiveness characteristics

Item descriptor	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
Actively engages students		•					
Acts as a role model to help students understand values and expectations of the school	•					•	
Clear about lesson structure		•				•	
Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all	•		•				
Deals calmly with stress							•

Demonstrates a commitment to equality		•					
Demonstrates a commitment to social justice		•					
Draws on pupil strengths			•			•	
Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests		•	•				
Establishes good relationships with pupils	•		•				
Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students	•		•				
Expectations of high performance		•					
Good at reading peoples moods and understanding non-verbal cues							•
Good knowledge of subjects taught		•				•	
Has a critical understanding of current policy debates		•					
Has integrity			•				
Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning		•				•	
Helps students learn independently		•				•	
Holds informal conversations with pupils	•		•				
Is caring and approachable	•		•				
Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching		•					
Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils						•	
Is innovative			•				
Is well prepared		•	•		•		
Knows pupils well	•		•				
Maintains good discipline		•	•			•	
Makes a positive response to barriers to learning		•					
Personalises the learning process						•	
Plans organises and prepares materials for classroom presentation		•			•	•	
Practice informed by reading and research		•					
Promotes learning for all pupils, through differentiated programmes of work, IEPs, etc.		•				•	
Relates course content to students' experiences						•	
Responds positively to pupil differences		•				•	
Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats							•
Sense of humour	•						
Sets rules in class and follows them at all times		•				•	
Shows great commitment to work		•				•	
Stays calm and composed in trying situations						•	•
Stimulates pupil interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically						•	
Takes time to listen to pupils	•					•	
Uses praise appropriately.		•		•	•		
Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not understandable &• memorable		•	•				
Values parents perspectives			•				
Works well with others		•				•	

Key: A = Action research; B = Government policies and guidelines; C = Lists generated by experienced practitioners; D = literature on behaviour management; E = literature on classroom management; F = literature on effective teachers; G = literature on emotional intelligence

Conceptual Groupings

This section of the chapter groups the 44 characteristics under three headings. These, as already discussed, are teacher competency, teacher performance and teacher effectiveness. The writer will justify the categorisation of each characteristic. These are grouped under the headings and a general justification is given for the inclusion in each group. Where there are issues of overlap or matters requiring debate, these will be addressed separately.

Teacher Competence

- Demonstrates a commitment to equality
- Demonstrates a commitment to social justice
- Clear about lesson structure
- Works well with others
- Good knowledge of subjects taught
- Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning
- Is well prepared
- Makes a positive response to barriers to learning
- Plan, organises and prepares materials for classroom presentation
- Helps students learn independently

These characteristics correspond well with the model of competence, discussed earlier, where teachers are matched against standards which taken in entirety pronounce their fitness to teach. The attributes are included in the standards that teachers have to achieve to be registered to teach in Scotland. Initial teacher education institutions are aware of the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) and courses are accredited in consultation with the GTCS. Students who graduate are supposed to be some way towards achieving these standards. They then refine their skills and at the end of their probationary year they are assessed against the SFR.

- Has a critical understanding of current policy debates

This is a competence as it is included in government policies and guidelines, and refers to teachers who wish to become chartered. However, as can be seen later, it is a characteristic that teachers do not appear to value and it is one that is difficult to assess, except in formal situations.

- Personalises the learning process

This characteristic appears at first glance to be a competence and indeed it is contained within teacher standards. The writer would argue, however, that the extent to which the teacher does, in fact, make the learning process truly personal may be judged very subjectively.

- Practice informed by reading and research.
- Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate differentiated programmes of work, IEPs, etc.

As these traits are contained within the GTCS competencies to be demonstrated by those teachers who wish to become chartered, they are considered by the writer to be competences. Again, the fact that practice is informed by reading and research can perhaps best be judged in formal ways, with evidence being produced to substantiate that this is, in fact, the case. The programmes of work produced for pupils are also evidence of teacher competency.

- Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not only understandable but memorable

This trait is difficult to fit into any one group. It sounds as if it could be assessed, but as discussed earlier, who assesses it and how? Is understanding assessed formally or informally, or both? Does this form of assessment also apply to how memorable is the learning? Are we perhaps in danger of reducing education to recall of facts? Other aspects to be considered are the teacher's personal characteristics. Are teachers willing to consider the variety of learning styles in any class and try to address them all at some point during the day or week? The ideas contained in this phrase are found within the "anecdotal" literature of effective teachers, but similar ideas are expressed in the GTCS' SFR. For these reasons, the writer believes that this trait should be a measure of both competence and performance, though its accurate assessment is problematic.

- Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching

This is a difficult attribute to categorise. It is mentioned only in government policies and guidelines and is very difficult to define or measure. There is an element of personal values attached to this attribute but the writer feels that it should be coded as competence, because it is a very subjective descriptor and sounds like rhetoric or jargon.

Table 5 Summary of competence characteristics of “capable” teachers

Item descriptor	Source
Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching	Government policies and guidelines
Clear about lesson structure	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers
Good knowledge of subjects taught	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers
Has a critical understanding of current policy debates	Government policies and guidelines
Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning	Government policies and guidelines; literature on effective teachers
Is well prepared	Government policies and guidelines; literature on classroom management; lists generated by experienced practitioners
Makes a positive response to barriers to learning	Government policies and guidelines
Personalises the learning process	Literature on effective teachers
Plans organises and prepares materials for classroom presentation	Government policies and guidelines; literature on effective teachers; classroom management
Practice informed by reading and research	Government policies and guidelines
Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate differentiated programmes of work, IEPs etc.	Government policies and guidelines; literature on effective teachers
Responds positively to pupil differences	Government policies and guidelines, Literature on effective teachers
Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not only understandable but memorable	Government policies and guidelines; lists generated by experienced practitioners
Works well with others	Government policies and guidelines; literature on effective teachers

Performance

- Actively engages students
- Draws on pupil strengths
- Relates course content to students’ experiences
- Shows great commitment to work

The characteristics above relate to ways of communicating the curriculum to students. Ways of teaching which actively involve and engage pupils in lessons, tailoring lessons to individual requirements, using a variety of methods of delivery and varying

questioning techniques, for example, are considered to be aspects of the teacher's performance. For example, a teacher who shows great commitment to work can actively demonstrate this characteristic through their professional actions. The commitment demonstrated need not be related to results which pupils achieve. Indeed they may be related to other aspects of teaching such as mentoring roles.

- **Maintains good discipline**

This is a trait which is open to debate about whether it is a measure of competence, or an aspect of teacher performance. The GTCS requires teachers to implement the school discipline policy, so the actual act of implementation is a competence. The difficulty arises when the school policy on discipline is open to interpretation, or is actually ineffective in the maintenance of discipline. For this reason I feel that it is an aspect of teacher performance. The teacher's approach to discipline and its effectiveness can be observed, and this is one of the criteria of characteristics which can be related to performance.

- **Uses praise appropriately**

This is a characteristic which could be described as both a competence and a performance attribute at first consideration. However the writer has chosen to categorise it as a performance characteristic. The writer feels the key word here is "appropriately". Using praise could be a competence, but the appropriateness of the praise has more to do with how teachers conduct their practice. It suggests knowledge of the child and knowledge of the many contexts that arise within the classroom. It involves making a professional judgement.

- **Responds positively to pupil differences**

This is another trait which has elements of a competence in it. The GTCS include a response to pupil difference in their SFR. However, the factor of the positive effect is one which cannot be dealt with unless by observation and evaluation, hence its inclusion in the group of attributes grouped as performance related.

- Sets rules in class and follows them at all times

This attribute is one which is implied from government guidelines, which suggests that it could be a sign of fitness to teach (competence). It is also implied in literature on effective teachers. The setting of rules is not questioned here, although who should set them is debateable, and this has been referred to in Chapter Six and will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Twelve. Where a difficulty may lie is in the application of these rules “at all times”. This suggests that there is a performance element here; an observable part of the teaching and one which may not necessarily be an indication of skilled performance.

Table 6 Summary of performance characteristics of “capable” teachers

Item descriptor	Source
Uses praise appropriately.	Government policies and guidelines, general literature on classroom management, literature on behaviour management
Actively engages students	Government policies and guidelines; literature on classroom management
Demonstrates a commitment to equality	Government policies and guidelines
Demonstrates a commitment to social justice	Government policies and guidelines
Draws on pupil strengths	Literature on effective teachers, lists generated by experienced practitioners
Helps students learn independently	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers
Relates course content to students’ experiences	Literature on effective teachers
Sets rules in class and follows them at all times	Government policies and guidelines, Literature on effective teachers
Shows great commitment to work	Government policies and guidelines; literature on effective teachers
Maintains good discipline	Government policies and guidelines; literature on effective teachers; lists generated by experienced practitioners

Effective (i) — Goal Achievement

- Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests

Effective teachers bring a value added dimension to education. Government at local and national level is concerned that teachers raise the attainment of the student body. The effectiveness of teachers can therefore be related to pupils’ results in tests and can be measured quantitatively.

Effective (ii) — Personal characteristics

- Is caring and approachable
- Establishes good relationships with pupils

- Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students
- Good at reading peoples moods and understanding non-verbal cues
- Has integrity
- Holds informal conversations with pupils
- Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils
- Is innovative
- Knows pupils well
- Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats
- Stimulates pupil interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically
- Takes time to listen to pupils
- Sense of humour
- Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all
- Expectations of high performance
- Values parents' perspectives

These attributes are the ones which are very difficult to measure in any quantitative manner, but this does not mean they are unimportant. It may be that these hold the key to the important area of teacher-pupil interaction, mentioned briefly in Chapter Six and discussed in greater detail later in this thesis, in Chapter Fourteen. Many of the characteristics mentioned here are taken from action research, involving a range of students. All of the attributes listed above are related to teachers' personalities, which influence, to some extent their attitudes and values in education.

- Deals calmly with stress
- Stays calm and composed in trying situations

These characteristics have much to do with an inner locus of control, which prevents impulsive emotions taking over. Many situations are exacerbated by impulsive negative actions, especially when teachers are faced with opposition or the need to work under pressure.

- Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school

This characteristic is reflected in anecdotal literature and endorsed by action research. Often, especially in cases of students whose behaviour can prove challenging in the

classroom, there is a clash of values between those of the home (and possibly the community) and those of the school. Consideration must be given to the values that are espoused by the school. They should reflect the positive aspects of society and be inclusive. Teachers need to be aware that they should not try to impose their own personal beliefs and values on students, rather encourage and model those that have been espoused by the school community.

Table 7 Summary of effectiveness characteristics of “capable” teachers.

Item descriptor	Source
Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests	Government policies and guidelines
Is caring and approachable	Action research; lists generated by experienced practitioners
Sense of humour	Action research
Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school	Literature on effective teachers; action research
Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners
Deals calmly with stress	Literature on emotional intelligence
Establishes good relationships with pupils	Action research; lists generated by experienced practitioners
Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students	Action research; lists generated by experienced practitioners
Good at reading peoples moods and understanding non-verbal cues	Literature on emotional intelligence
Has integrity	List generated by experienced practitioners
Holds informal conversations with pupils	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners
Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils	Literature on effective teachers
Is innovative	Lists generated by experienced practitioners
Knows pupils well	Action research; lists generated by experienced practitioners
Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats	Literature on emotional intelligence
Stays calm and composed in trying situations	Literature on effective teachers; literature on emotional intelligence
Stimulates pupil interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically	Literature on effective teachers
Takes time to listen to pupils	Action research, literature on effective teachers
Values parents’ perspectives	Lists generated by experienced practitioners
Expectations of high performance	Government policies and guidelines

Review of Capability Characteristics

A possible three-part model (based on competence, performance and effectiveness) had emerged as a theory which might identify characteristics that are important for teachers if they are to be successful in supporting pupils whose behaviour is

considered challenging. It was therefore decided to investigate the model more thoroughly among teachers in the field. The following chapter describes how this was done and what were the results.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

SURVEY OF TEACHERS' VIEWS ON EFFECTIVENESS

Introduction

This chapter gives an account of a survey of teachers' opinions carried out in a Scottish education authority with which the writer had close contacts through inservice activities. The chapter explains the construction and piloting of the data-gathering instrument. It then describes how the data was interrogated by four numerical approaches — summary of basic data, quartiling, charting means and standard deviations, and principal components analysis. Each method is discussed in detail and includes a brief discussion of the results.

Aims of the Survey

The aims of the survey were threefold. First, I wanted to gain the perspectives of head teachers as key practitioners at a crossroads where teachers, pupils, families community and policy meet. Then after completing the survey, they were to be asked to identify two effective teachers from their staff. This second set of data would allow me to gain the perspective of the “effective teachers”. Would the characteristics they rated as important be the same as those selected by their head teachers? Would a consensus regarding the characteristics emerge from all teachers in the survey? Third, the survey would allow me to compare the views of those directly involved in teaching children with the knowledge and rhetoric contained in literature.

The Survey in Context

The survey targeted teachers who were considered effective by their head teachers. Their responses to the survey might not correspond to their actions in the classroom, when actually dealing with the phenomenon of low level disruptive or more serious behaviour that occurred in reality in that context. To counteract this possible bias in self-reporting, volunteer teachers were asked to maintain reflective diaries about their classroom practice. This approach is described in detail in the following chapter, but it is mentioned here to give a fuller picture of the data collection.

The range of procedures used to collect that data would enable me to compare the rhetoric of effectiveness in the literature and the research with the concept of effectiveness as seen by those in the field. This triangulation would assist me in cross checking the statements in literature with the statements of teachers. It would let me make some judgement about the phenomenon of effectiveness in reality (Schostak, 2002). By using a variety of sources for data collection, there would be opportunities to compare and contrast results to see if any generalisations could be made. Using surveys with one cohort of practitioners and then gathering information from the reflective diaries from another allows comparison of data from two networks. Thus data from different sources may be seen to support (or otherwise) dissimilar perspectives. Further triangulation would be achieved by using quantitative approaches to the data as well as a qualitative approach through the stories of the diaries. These diaries will tell the tales of teacher effectiveness and pupil behaviour in real life, thus adding a dimension that cannot be measured, but which will enhance the quantitative approach.

Gathering the Data

Basis of the Survey Instrument

A number of characteristics of capable teachers had emerged from the results of considering the concepts of effectiveness, discussed in Chapters Eight and Nine. I decided to explore the opinions of those in the field, both head teachers and classroom practitioners. The exploration was based on a survey to determine which characteristics were considered to be especially important when interacting successfully with children who had issues of conduct. The characteristics of capable teachers were taken largely from five sources, argued for in Chapter Nine.

- Government guidelines and policies
- Literature on effective teachers, literature on behaviour management and general literature on classroom management
- Literature on emotional intelligence
- Research into pupil attitudes
- Lists generated by experienced practitioners

By using these sources as a basis for compiling the survey, I was ensuring its content validity. Effective and capable are normative terms, but this range of sources ensured

that any concepts of effectiveness that were measured would be dealing successfully with issues of conduct. I believed that by using this approach I was creating circumstances that would allow a saturation of data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to occur. In other words, using the range of sources described meant that I was able to produce a list of characteristics to which I could add nothing new. Further I decided to ensure that each characteristic used in the survey instrument had been validated by reference to at least two of the sources used. There was, therefore, a strong element of agreement on the characteristics that finally informed the content of the survey.

Phase One — The First Pilot Survey

Conducting a pilot survey eliminates ambiguous statements, negative statements or statements which might seem unduly leading (see, for example, Bell, 1993; Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2001). I had the opportunity to pilot the questionnaire with 25 primary and secondary teachers who were embarking on the Chartered Teachers Masters Programme. I felt that this group was particularly suitable as they were what Berliner (1994) describes as “expert” or “near expert” teachers. One of the qualifying conditions for practitioners starting on the programme is that they have been teaching for at least six years. These teachers consider themselves to be effective to some degree, as the Standard for Chartered Teacher is designed to be met by teachers who can demonstrate professional and personal competencies, clearly evidenced by actions within the classroom. Teachers on this course believed that they had already met some of the competencies which are included in the Standard. By selecting this group to pilot the survey I was choosing people who would be able to rate the characteristics in an informed manner, based on their experience. It was also possible that this “discriminant sample” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 187) might possibly be able to provide characteristics I had missed.

Constructing the Survey Instrument

A Likert scale (Likert, 1946) was used to ascertain the views of the participants, with a set of attitude statements, based on the characteristics discussed earlier in Chapter Nine. I asked the subjects to give their opinion of the significance of each characteristic as very important, somewhat important, somewhat unimportant or very unimportant. I chose to use this four point scale to force respondents to make a deliberate choice and avoid them taking a central position. I decided to change the

order of some of the questions by altering the page order, to take account of the possibility of respondents becoming fatigued towards the end of the survey. I then included a number of blank boxes and requested that respondents add any other characteristics that they thought would be important for teachers who were successful in supporting children with difficult behaviour. These characteristics were to be rated in the same manner. Respondents were invited to comment on ease of understanding the survey, the ease of use, and the time taken to complete the form. In fact, only two comments were made. One noted that the form was easy to use and took only five or six minutes to complete. The other said it was easy to use although on a second reading the respondent had altered some ratings. Respondents were also to indicate whether they were male or female and to note the length of their teaching experience.

Issues Arising From the Pilot Study

The main issue was that of the rating of the characteristics. The majority of responses tended mostly towards the “very important”, “somewhat important” end of the scale. Perhaps this was the result of giving a four point scale (available in Appendix C) rather than a five point scale. However, it might also suggest that the pilot group were aware of the sort of responses that were expected of them. For these reasons I decided to alter the scale to a five point numerical scale and ask participants to rate each characteristic in order of its importance in responding to children with problematic behaviour. A characteristic given a score of 1 meant that in light of the respondents’ experience and opinion it was less important than a characteristic awarded a score of 2, 3, 4 or 5. It was stressed that all characteristics listed were relevant to being a good practitioner in relation to supporting children whose behaviour could be difficult.

A second issue arising from the pilot study was that of other characteristics suggested by the initial pilot group. There were two suggestions made, and both were rated as very important: *respect for parents as first educators* and *works in partnership with outside agencies and other staff*. These characteristics were included in the final survey.

Phase Two — The Survey

Procedure

A questionnaire was sent to all 53 primary schools in one local authority, after appropriate ethical clearance from the local authority and university. Each head teacher was asked to complete the questionnaire, by giving each characteristic a rating of 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1, with 1 being the lowest mark and 5 the highest. They were then asked to select up to two members of staff whom they considered to be effective at working with children whose behaviour could be challenging in the classroom. I particularly wanted to elicit the views of teachers who were considered successful in coping with students whose behaviour could be challenging (Brophy & McCaslan, 1992). These practitioners were requested to complete a questionnaire identical to that issued to head teachers, following guidance in a letter of instruction (Appendix D). The questionnaire asked teachers to give each characteristic a mark out of five according to how important they rated it, rather than what they might be expected to say. Each set of questionnaires was coded so that each school in the authority could be identified. The code also indicated whether a head teacher or a class teacher had completed the form. Each questionnaire contained the 44 statements discussed in Chapters Nine and Ten (Appendix E). Five different formats of the questionnaire were produced, so that the questions were presented in a different order (see, for example, Creative Research Systems, 2003). This was to try to prevent respondents from answering in a superficial way towards the end of the questionnaire, as the number of questions was quite large.

Comments on Sample

The selection of the local authority was made on the grounds of accessibility and the variety of communities in which schools were situated. These included 33 primary schools from two large conurbations of coastal, industrial towns, 12 primary schools from smaller individual towns, and 8 primary schools situated on islands. Using this range of schools meant that results might represent various contexts in which indiscipline might occur (Robson, 1993). The survey was conducted by post and there was no obligation from the employer for staff to complete and return them. Responses to the survey were received from 24 head teachers, which was a return of 45%. The return from teachers was better, with 64 teachers returning the survey. Each head teacher was asked to invite one or two teachers in the school to complete the survey,

and so it was clear that some schools sent returns from teachers only, rather than both head teachers and teachers. From a total of 53 schools, a response was received from 37, a return of 70%. Of the 37 responses, 27 were from the conurbations and 10 were from the smaller town. No returns came from the island schools. No claims are made for the representativeness of this sample. However, the data was gathered from nearly half the schools in the authority and from volunteer participants who were key witnesses because of the criteria for their selection. Therefore, I would contend that the participants constituted an appropriate sample for a ground clearing exercise for generating data from which new theory could emerge at this stage of the study.

Data Analysis (1) — Summaries of Basic Data

Eighty respondents returned the survey containing the 44 characteristics of effective teachers. Initially the data was sorted into a spreadsheet. The spreadsheet recorded the rating of one to five for each of the 44 characteristics and the 80 respondents. A spreadsheet is a simple method of numerical display but it is a helpful first step towards useful descriptive statistics. The database allows, first, measurement of how the data was distributed around its means and standard deviations. Standard deviations are calculated frequently with data of this sort because they take into account all the points in the data set (see, for example, Psybox.com, 2003). It is worth acknowledging that the 1 to 5 Likert data from which the means and standard deviations are derived was not interval but ordinal. However, there is a long tradition of treating ordinal data in this way and it has been justified mathematically, pragmatically and by use and wont (see, for example, Seigel, 1956; Garrett, 1958; Labowitz, 1970).

Mean Responses

The results were first collated as the distribution of the scores for each question 1–44 (see Appendix F). The mean response for each question was then plotted.

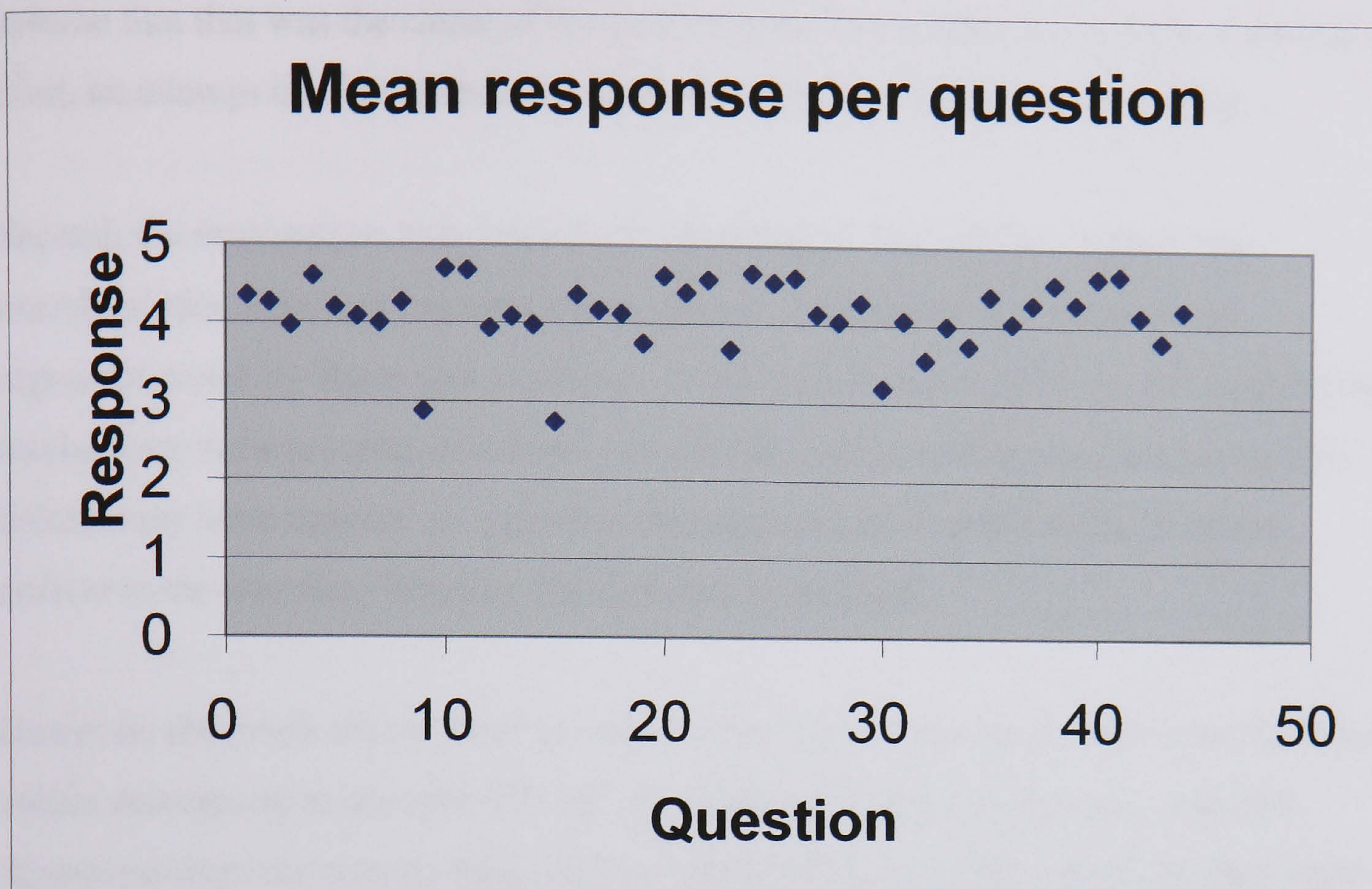


Figure 2 Mean response for each of the 44 questionnaire items

This figure shows the mean response to each of the 44 questions. It can be seen that the majority of the respondents scored all the characteristics quite highly, assigning scores of 3–5 for most. My first reaction to these results was disappointment that they seemed to show so little, although they mirrored, of course, the results of the pilot survey. It appeared that the respondents agreed that all these characteristics were important if teachers were to be effective. Perhaps this was to be expected. The characteristics were gathered from government papers and documents and literature readily available. They were, in fact, all important for teachers to consider. What I had hoped the questionnaire would do was to encourage teachers to consider characteristics that related, in particular, to supporting children with inappropriate behaviour. The data seems to indicate that teachers were unwilling or unable to single out the particular characteristics which might be more relevant in supporting children whose behaviour was considered challenging. This finding could have a number of reasons.

First, respondents may not have read the instructions carefully and did not realise that their response was to be made in respect of a particular group of teachers, that is, those who are capable of efficiently supporting those students who have issues of conduct in the classroom. As this finding was seen in the initial pilot too, one might

assume that that was the cause of the lack of spread of results. As a result of the initial pilot, an attempt had been made to clarify the instructions by amending them.

Second, the respondents may have been unwilling to suggest that some of the characteristics were less important than others. This proposition relates to an argument posed by Blase and Anderson (1995) and Humes (2000) which suggests that teachers are not encouraged to think outwith the culture of their establishment. The culture may have become so ingrained that the teachers found it difficult not to answer in the way they thought was expected from them.

However, the graph shows there are two values with an average of less than 3. These values correspond to questions 9 and 15. These are both more than two standard deviations from the overall mean and can be described as outliers because they were consistently rated with a lower score than the others. The two questions to which the outliers refer are “Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests” (characteristic 9) and “Has critical understanding of current policy debates” (characteristic 15). It is worth discussing these two characteristics in some detail.

Enables Pupils to Achieve in National Tests

This is a competence described by national policy and guidelines in the context of raising attainment. The Scottish government has to ensure that schools and teachers are accountable for the increased financial resources that have been allocated to them, through, for example, funding for particular initiatives such as Early Intervention, and Staged Intervention (Framework for Intervention (FFI)). It is implied that competent teachers will be able to manage teaching and learning in such a way that pupils achieve their full potential, especially in the areas of maths and language. Pupils need not be tested until they have reached a stage in their knowledge, understanding and skills that teachers feel is appropriate. This approach would appear, at first, to suggest that neither pupils nor teaching staff are put under any pressure to demonstrate the raising of attainment that success in national tests makes evident. However, targets for the number of pupils achieving the various levels of test are set by local government. These targets do not take into account the individual pupil, their circumstances or their needs. Nor do these targets take into account the wide-ranging classroom contexts in which teachers teach, the diverse nature of the pupils, and the variety of

interactions, either positive or negative, that can affect teaching and learning. Given the foregoing discussion, it is not surprising that this particular attribute was rated as of low importance by practitioners. However, as discussed in Chapter Four, teachers expressed a feeling of tension when they were asked to consider the issue of inclusion of youngsters whose behaviour was challenging. This tension related to the inclusion of children whose behaviour disrupted the learning of others, when there was an expectation of raised attainment for all children in the class.

Why then, did respondents rate it as less important? It may be because all teachers know and understand the rhetoric of raising attainment, but have made an informed professional judgement about both its feasibility and its worth. It may be that teachers are not prepared to admit, even in an anonymous questionnaire, that they do not entirely agree with government policy, when they are responding to the imperatives of local and central government. Teachers may feel that it is important to answer in the manner they think is going to be most acceptable to another educationalist, despite expressing their reservations in less formal situations. The fact that not many practitioners rated this characteristic as an important measure of a teacher's effectiveness is most interesting. It perhaps enhances the notion, discussed earlier in Chapter Seven that the definition of effectiveness depends on the group making the judgement of effect. Opportunistic data gathered by the writer (in inservice teaching) highlighted that, despite the fact that many teachers felt that this was not a measure of effectiveness, most especially effectiveness in supporting students with issues of conduct, they expressed a deep feeling that they were being judged by employers, government and their colleagues by the results of tests.

Has Critical Understanding of Current Policy Debates

This characteristic, another competence required of teachers by their governing body, was consistently rated less important by many teachers. Government policies set out what society (as perceived by government) expects from teachers. Teachers need to have a critical understanding of policy in order that they can actively engage in the business of education, rather than passively accept current practice. Current practice may be unhelpful in supporting the group of youngsters who have issues of conduct which challenge practitioners. Teachers are empowered by having a critical understanding of policy debates. It allows them to move forward in practice rather

than accepting the way things have been. It is, of course, also important that teachers share in a vision of learning that is lifelong, so that continuing professional development is seen as a commitment throughout their entire career.

Relevance of Experience in the Data

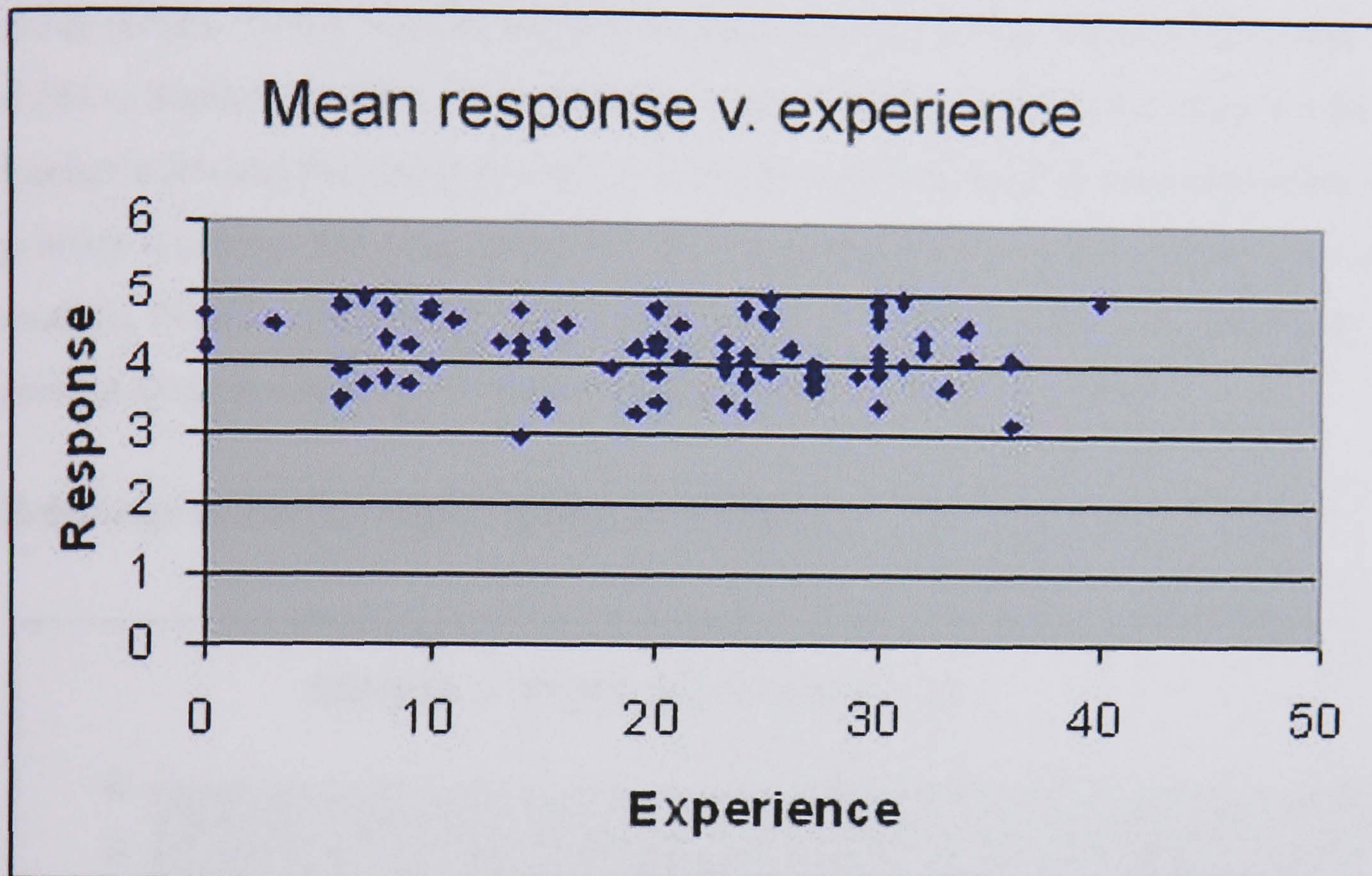


Figure 3 Mean response against experience in years

The graph in Figure 3 plots the mean response to the questions against the number of years teaching experience. Figure 4 shows that there is no correlation between the variables of response to questions and years of teaching experience, and so no time effect seems to be present. This result is unsurprising for a number of reasons. The majority of teachers selected by their head teachers as effective in supporting youngsters with challenging behaviour had been teaching between 15 and 20 years. However, there were 14 teachers selected who had been teaching for 10 years or fewer. It might have been expected that their selection of characteristics would have shown a different distribution of results on the grounds of different perceptions of the job. Yet, the similarity of their results to those with longer experience may be explained by the way teachers learn their craft — by observing other (often more experienced) teachers and by reflecting on the way themselves were taught. The acquisition of craft knowledge of teaching (Brown & McIntyre, 1988) may also relate to the way in which teachers are trained. Student teachers in Scotland are placed in schools for increasingly longer periods during their four-year period of study in order

to practise the skills which they have been discussing theoretically on their course. A major part of their school placement is the observation of experienced teachers in the classroom. Teachers learn how to be a teacher by living in the teaching world and by learning the routines of teaching. Routines are how experienced teachers express their knowledge of teaching. They are expressions of the culture and values of the teacher group (Olsen, 1992). Almost half the students entering Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in Scotland as BEd undergraduates come straight from school. They see the teacher's job and the study en route to that job as reflecting their own experience of primary teaching. This may mean that their thinking reflects past values and not more modern, flexible approaches. It also promotes a conservative status quo, and may prevent critical reflection of their own performance (HMIE, 2002b).

Relevance of Professional Position in the Data

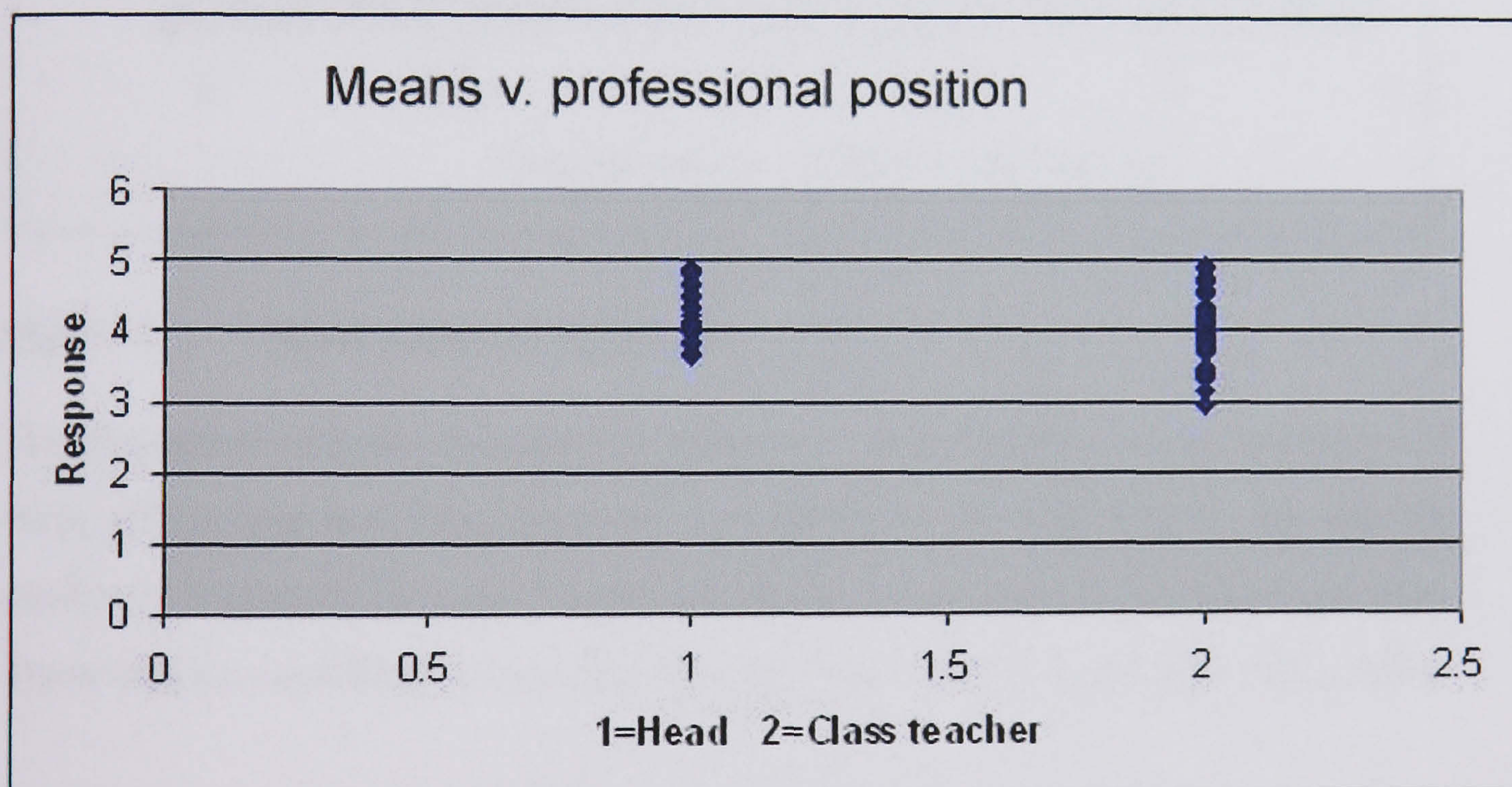


Figure 4 Responses of head teachers and teachers

Figure 4 compares the responses of the head teachers and class teachers. As might have been expected, the results are very similar because the head teachers made a subjective judgement about the effectiveness of staff and selected them on that basis.

Relevance of Gender in the Data

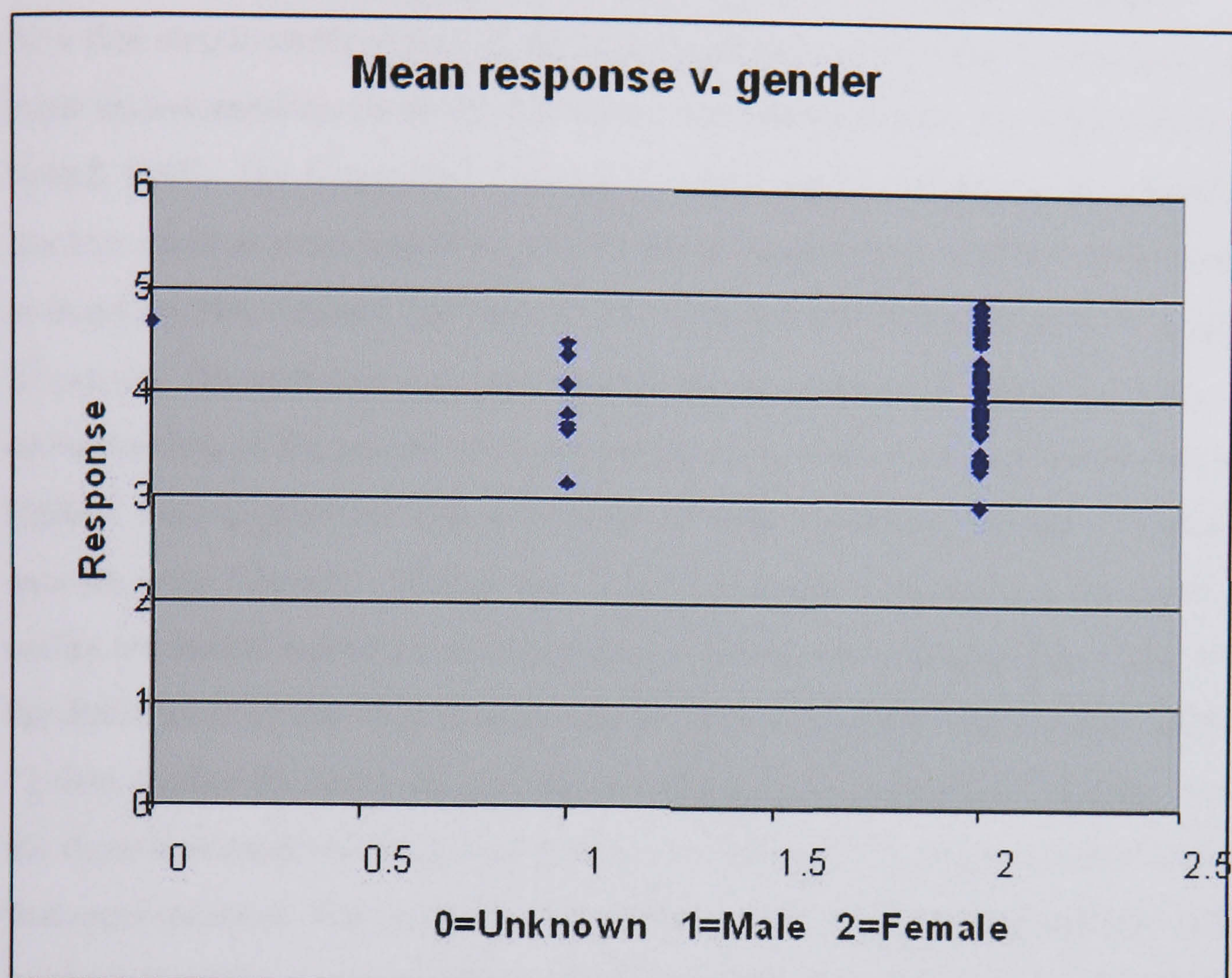


Figure 5 Mean response by gender

The proportion of male respondents was low — 8 of the 80 respondents only. Of these, all but one were head teachers. It is therefore not surprising to note that the pattern of responses for male teachers matches very closely that of head teachers. There was no significant correlation between any of the 44 variables and gender.

Towards a More Detailed Numerical Analysis

So far, the analysis of data has been basic and does not yield a great deal of information in depth about the nature of the responses. The remaining sections of this part of the chapter interrogate the data in greater detail. However, interrogation of the data required some caution because they were ordinal, based on a 5-point Likert scale. Ordinal data are not quantities based on equal intervals: for example, it is not possible to assume that the importance of a characteristic given a rating of 3 rather than 2 is as different from the lower mark as is a characteristic given a rating of 5 rather than 4. In addition, it is not possible to say that the scaling system used by one individual is the same as that used by another, or is different from the scale used by another.

Data Analysis (2) — Quartile Distribution of Survey Items

As a first step towards analysing the data in greater depth, I used a technique which made no assumptions about the differences between points on the scale (MacKay & Kakas, 1998). The frequency of ratings of 5 was isolated to identify the characteristics teachers rated as most important in effectively supporting youngsters with challenging or inappropriate conduct. Between 6 and 33 people rated these items as 5, a range of 27 people. The techniques of quartiling divides that range of 27 into four sets, corresponding to the groups of characteristics which received the highest, second-highest, third-highest and lowest number of “very important” ratings. The inter-quartile range (Garrett, 1958) of the 27 is 6.75 people. This figure is impossible in reality but is convenient for dividing the scores into the four quartiles. Table 8 shows the distribution of the 44 statements across the four quartiles of the range. Tables 9–12 then display the items themselves, according to their quartiles. Quartile 1 contains the items that received the lowest number of 5 ratings; Quartile 4 contains the items that received most. The proposition that comes from the quartiling exercise is that teachers consider characteristics in the lower quartiles to be less important than characteristics in the higher quartiles as indicators of effectiveness.

Table 8 Distribution of statements among the quartiles

Quartile	Range	Items
Quartile 1	6–12 ³ / ₄	9, 15, 30, 32, 34
Quartile 2	12 ³ / ₄ –19 ¹ / ₂	3, 5, 6, 7, 12, 13, 14, 18, 19, 23, 27, 28, 33, 36, 39, 43
Quartile 3	19 ¹ / ₂ –26 ¹ / ₄	2, 8, 16, 17, 29, 31, 3, 42, 44
Quartile 4	26 ¹ / ₄ –33	1, 4, 10, 11, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 35, 38, 40, 41

Table 9 Likert scale items appearing in Quartile 1 of the sorted data: the items with the lowest “importance” rating

No.	Item
9	Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests
15	Has a critical understanding of current policy debates
30	Practice is informed by reading and research
32	Relates course content to student’s experiences
34	Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats

Table 10 Likert scale items appearing in Quartile 2 of the sorted data: the items with the second lowest “importance” rating

No.	Item
23	Is innovative
14	Good knowledge of subjects taught
43	Values parents’ perspectives
18	Helps students learn independently
19	Holds informal conversations with pupil
7	Demonstrates a commitment to social justice
12	Expectations of high performance
33	Responds positively to pupil differences
3	Clear about lesson structure
28	Personalises the learning process
6	Demonstrates a commitment to equality
31	Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate differentiated programmes of work, IEPs, etc.
36	Sets rules in class and follows them at all times
5	Deals calmly with stress
42	Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not only understandable but memorable

Table 11 Likert scale items appearing in Quartile 3 of the sorted data: : the items with the second highest “importance” rating

No.	Item
13	Good at reading people’s moods and understanding non-verbal cues
17	Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning
27	Makes a positive response to barriers to learning
39	Stimulates student interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically
37	Shows great commitment to work
44	Works well with others
29	Plans, organises, and prepares materials for classroom presentation
2	Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectation of the school
1	Actively engages students
16	Has integrity
8	Draws on pupils’ strengths
35	Sense of humour

Table 12 Likert scale items appearing in Quartile 4 of the sorted data: the items with the highest “importance” rating

No.	Item
21	Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching
38	Stays calm and composed in trying situations
25	Knows pupils well
20	Is caring and approachable
4	Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all
22	Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils
40	Takes time to listen to pupils
26	Maintains good discipline
41	Uses praise appropriately
24	Is well prepared
11	Exhibits positive regard, concern, and respect for students
10	Establishes good relationships with pupils

The characteristics in the above tables were chosen to illustrate the dimensions of competence, performance and effectiveness (Dunkin, 1997), as discussed in Chapter Six. In order to discover if a pattern emerged from the way the characteristics were grouped in the quartiles, each one was matched with a dimension. This is illustrated in the data display matrices below, in Tables 13–16, with a table for each quartile.

Table 13
Provenance of Quartile 1: the items with the lowest “importance” rating

Item descriptor	Source	Type of characteristic
Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests	Government policies and guidelines	Effective (i)
Has a critical understanding of current policy debates	Government policies and guidelines	Competence
Practice informed by reading and research	Government policies and guidelines	Competence
Relates course content to students’ experience	Literature on effective teachers	Performance
Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats	Literature on emotional intelligence	Effective (ii)

Quartile 1

In Quartile 1, an effectiveness characteristic — *sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats* — is included. As discussed elsewhere in the thesis, SEED and (as a consequence) local authorities and schools, are planning and implementing a large number of initiatives which are seen as the way forward in improving discipline in schools. Indeed, the area of discipline is only one of many where initiatives are employed. There are, for example, initiatives for improving reading and numeracy in

early years, initiatives in areas such as enterprise education, assessment is for learning, video conferencing, and so on.

Table 14
Provenance of Quartile2: the items with the second lowest “importance” rating

Item descriptor	Source	Type of characteristic
Clear about lesson structure	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Competence
Deals calmly with stress	Literature on emotional intelligence	Effective (ii)
Demonstrates a commitment to equality	Government policies and guidelines	Performance
Demonstrates a commitment to social justice	Government policies and guidelines	Performance
Expectations of high performance	Government policies and guidelines	Effective (ii)
Good at reading people’s moods and understanding nonverbal cues	Literature on emotional intelligence	Effective (ii)
Good knowledge of subjects taught	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Effective (ii)
Helps students learn independently	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Competence
Holds informal conversations with pupils	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Performance
Is innovative	Lists generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Makes a positive response to barriers to learning	Government policies and guidelines	Effective(ii)
Personalises the learning process	Literature on effective teachers	Competence
Responds positively to pupil differences	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Competence
Sets rules in class and follows them at all times	Government policies and guidelines, literature on behaviour management	Competence
Stimulate pupil interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically	Literature on effective teachers	Performance
Values parents’ perspectives	List generated by experienced practitioners	Effective(ii)

Quartile 2

In Quartile 2, the characteristic — *is innovative* — is one grouped under the heading of effectiveness, as discussed in Chapter Ten. It was highlighted by experienced practitioners, yet fewer teachers in this survey rated it as important. This response may be a reflection of feelings teachers may have concerning their autonomy and their professional competence. It may be that practitioners feel that their autonomy is compromised to some extent by the constraints placed on them by the way education and the curriculum are controlled. The control relates to

- the way the curriculum is developed
- the aspect of time allocated to curricular areas.

The Way the Curriculum is Developed

Aspects of the curriculum and its development have been discussed earlier in this thesis (see Chapter Three). The discussion highlighted aspects of with whom lies the power to define what is the curriculum offered in Scottish schools. That power seems not to reside with either teachers or pupils. This lack of power or voice for practitioners may mean that they may feel less able to be innovative. There may also be an element of fear associated with being innovative. Teachers are encouraged to conform with their colleagues (Gewirtz, 2000). Teachers who are seen to be opinionated (even when those opinions are valid) are not valued (see, for example, Humes 1986; Sachs, 2003).

Time Allocation to Areas of the Curriculum

The issue of power also arises in how relative amounts of time are allocated to the broad Scottish educational programmes of study. SEED (2000) prescribes that a minimum of 20% for language (5 hours a week), and minimum of 15% for each of the other subject areas be timetabled for teaching. Those teachers who are knowledgeable professionals may feel that they should be more able to judge the needs of the pupils within their class rather than applying a one size fits all approach. They may wish to be allowed sufficient flexibility to be innovative with these timings. Indeed, research shows that capable teachers have the special skill of being able to assess what is appropriate for their pupils, based on their “local knowledge” of individual pupils and the day to day circumstances in the context of their students’ lives and relationships which makes teaching an art rather than a science (Gewirtz, 2000).

Compromising of Professional Autonomy

Quartile 2 relates professional confidence to two other characteristics rated important by fewer teachers. The first — *critical knowledge of policies* — has already been discussed. The second — *practice based on reading and research* — deserves further mention. It is too early to gauge the impact of continuing professional development (CPD) on the Scottish education system, but as it becomes embedded in teachers’ experience, it may be that practitioners become more aware of the relevance of research to their practice. Also, teachers may feel more empowered by the knowledge they have gained through their CPD. There may therefore be opportunities for innovative practice which take account of individual needs of diverse groups of

students. HMIE (2002b) hint at this when they talk of CPD reinforcing a teacher’s professionalism and an active engagement in education rather than a “passive acceptance and implementation of... current practice” (HMIE, 2002b, p. 7).

Table 15
Provenance of Quartile3: the items with the second highest “importance” rating

Item descriptor	Source	Type of characteristic
Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectation of the school	Literature on effective teachers; action research	Effective (ii)
Draws on pupil strengths	Literature on effective teachers, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Performance
Has integrity	List generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Competence
Plans organises and prepares materials for classroom presentation	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers, literature on classroom management	Competence
Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate differentiated programmes of work, IEPs, etc.	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Competence
Shows great commitment to work	Government policies and guidelines, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Performance
Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not only understandable but memorable	Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Competence
Works well with others.	Government policies and guidelines, literature on classroom management	Competence

Quartile 3

Seven of the nine statements in this quartile related to competence and performance. The statements relate to how teachers work in classrooms. The two characteristics that related to effectiveness were — *acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school* — and — *has integrity*. The first of these sounds like the rhetoric contained in vision statements and might be considered to be jargon. The second, a statement added by experienced teachers, may seem slightly vague when considering its relationship to issues of discipline in classrooms.

Table 16

Provenance of Quartile4: the items with the highest “importance” rating

Item descriptor	Source	Type of characteristic
Actively engages students	Government policies and guidelines, literature on classroom management	Performance
Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all	Effective (ii) research, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Establishes good relationships with pupils	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Is caring and approachable	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching	Government policies and guidelines	Competence
Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils	Literature on effective teachers	Effective (ii)
Is well prepared	Literature on classroom management, government policies and guidelines, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Competence
Knows pupils well	Action research, lists generated by experienced practitioners	Effective (ii)
Maintains good discipline	Lists generated by experienced practitioners, Government policies and guidelines, literature on effective teachers	Performance
Sense of humour	Action research	Effective (ii)
Stays calm and composed in trying situations	Literature on effective teachers, literature on emotional intelligence	Effective (ii)
Takes time to listen to pupils	Action research, literature on effective teachers	Effective (ii)
Uses praise appropriately	Government policies and guidelines, general literature on classroom management, literature on behaviour management	Performance

Quartile 4

Characteristics which were highly rated by the majority of teachers were, as mentioned earlier, those which had to do with teachers’ personal qualities. However, there are two competency attributes and one related to performance that were also highly rated by many practitioners.

Uses Praise Appropriately

This is clearly a competence, as it is a skill that teachers require to refine and employ on a daily basis. It involves making a judgment regarding how appropriate is the praise, in respect of motivation, inclusiveness, and so on, for pupils as individuals. It could be argued that making the correct judgement has a lot to do with the

relationships between the teacher and the pupil, and so there is an element of personal attributes involved.

Is Concerned About the Quality of his/her Teaching

This competence, from the GTCS SFR, is one which must be met to prove fitness for purpose, but it is one which is difficult to assess. Most teachers would rate it as important as to be seen to do otherwise would imply that they were not fit to teach. However, there is also, again, an element of personality here. Research on teacher stress showed that the quality of their work concerned practitioners so much that it caused them to feel anxious (Wilson, 2000). Teachers who have high self esteem are less likely to feel anxious about the quality of their work (Adams, 1999).

Maintains Good Discipline

Not surprisingly, most teachers rated this as an important characteristic. The maintenance of discipline is a source of teacher stress (Levine, in Adams, 1999). The stress is sometimes caused by behaviour policies which are unworkable or which conflict with the values of individual teachers. However, clearly the maintenance of appropriate standards of discipline is necessary for teaching and learning to take place.

Looking in particular at Quartiles 1 and 4, a pattern seems to be emerging from the data. In each quartile there may be a trend towards a type of characteristic, in terms of their grouping into competencies, performances and effectiveness.

In Quartile 1, if the two outliers (9 and 15) are ignored, the characteristics tend to fall into the categories of competence and performance. In any case, one of the outliers, “Enables children to achieve in national tests”, is in a category of its own. No other characteristic in the survey falls into the dimension of effectiveness related to results.

Looking at the characteristics in Quartile 4 it can be seen that far more of the attributes rated are those in the category of effectiveness or personal qualities. It appears then that more teachers highly rated effectiveness characteristics, that is, those attributes which have to do with personal qualities and positive relationships, than those which concerned the more practical aspects of the teacher’s role.

There are inevitably characteristics which are particularly interesting or stand out from the others in the group. The section which follows will discuss these in more detail. In all cases, it is accepted that the ratings may be peculiar to this particular sample of respondents. However, other hypotheses will be proposed, following the discussion.

Beyond the Quartiles

From the quartiled data, it appeared as if more teachers rated highly the sorts of characteristics that are necessary for building relationships. However, the use of quartiles was a relatively simple route through the data. I decided to use further methods of interrogating it, to see if this hypothesis could be substantiated.

Data Analysis (3) — Analysis of Means and Standard Deviations

First, I decided to use the simple, traditional quantitative methods of examining means and standard deviations to discover the extent to which the results of the qualitative analysis were confirmed when examined through a different type of lens. A quantitative approach seemed justifiable in terms of the volume of data — 44 questions answered by 80 respondents on a 5-point Likert scale. It has been acknowledged above that this data was ordinal, which perhaps should not be analysed by methods based on sums and means according to conventional teaching on statistics. Moreover, there were no grounds for assuming that the data was distributed normally. However, there is a long tradition of such practice. It has existed in statistics texts for many years (see, for example, Garrett, 1958, pp. 271 and 238; Kim, 1975; Jaccard & Wan, 1996). Indeed it is justified mathematically in the Pearson r to Spearman ρ transformation (Siegel, 1956, p. 203–204) and Labowitz's (1967, 1970) assignment of quantities to rank order categories. However, it is important for the researcher to determine whether the values of the ordinal variables depart markedly from equal intervalness, and take account of this when making any deductions. This is because the ordinal level of measurement according to Wilson (1971) prohibits all but the weakest inferences concerning the fit between data and a theoretical model formulated in terms of interval variables.

The data was organised to discover whether there were any identifiable patterns. The mean is the most usual summary statistic for numerical data. The data in this case has a restricted set of possible values, {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}, so the mean is insufficient to express properly the behaviour of the data values. For example, a mean of 3 could be achieved by all attributes being rated 3 by respondents. This would indicate that participants rated the attribute neither important nor unimportant. However, the same mean could be achieved by characteristics being considered very unimportant or very important. For example, a mean of 3 could also be achieved by half of the respondents rating all characteristic as 1 and the other half rating all the characteristics 5. In other words, the actual distribution of the responses is not specified sufficiently by just quoting the value of the mean.

To give more information, it is usual to specify the standard deviation. This gives a measure of spread of the data about the mean. The plot below shows the mean and standard deviation for each question plotted as a point. The points on the plot with a mean close to 3 all have standard deviation greater than 1, which indicates a reasonable spread of responses. It would appear that most questions have evoked responses that indicated respondents' commitment to an attitudinal position.

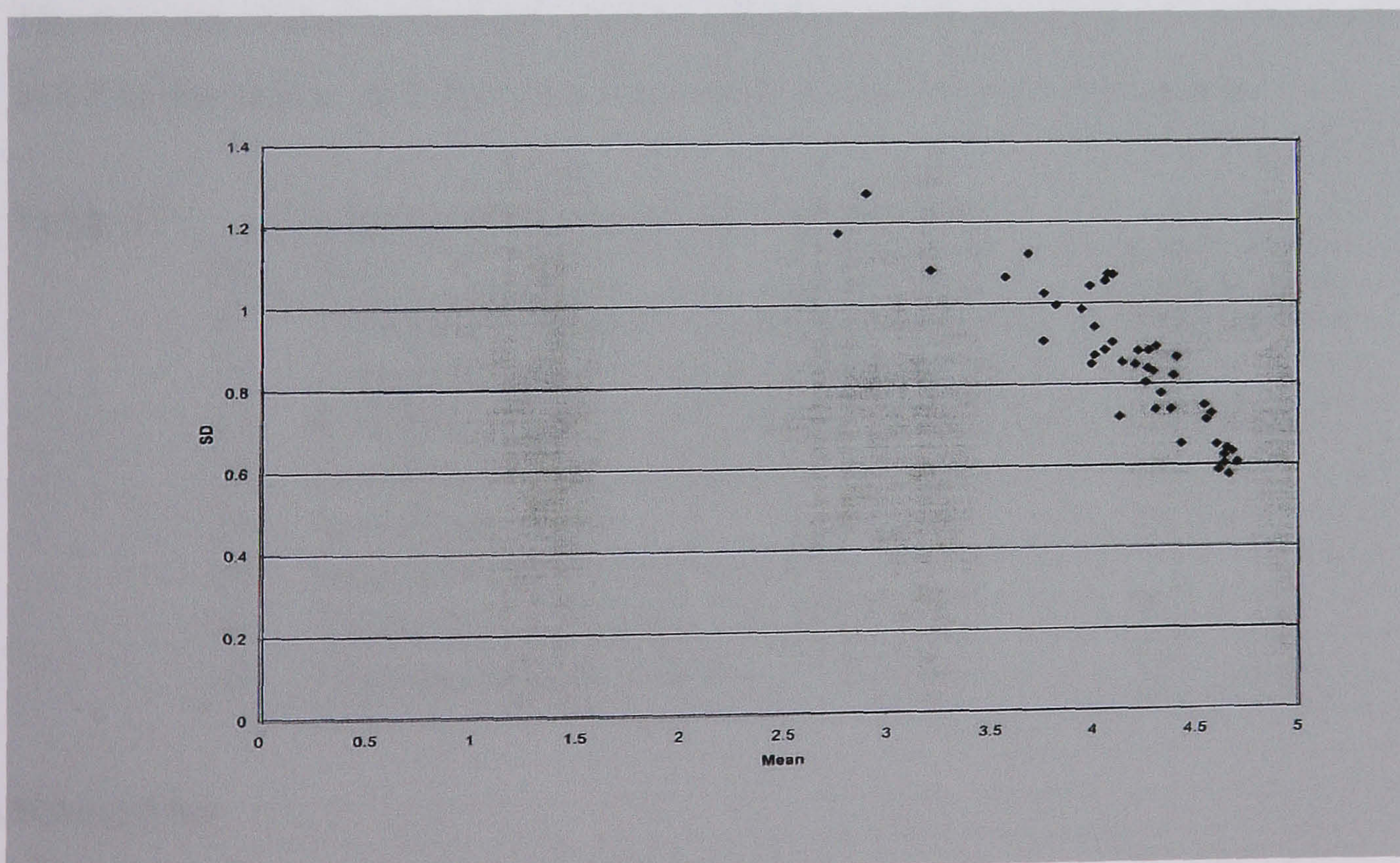


Figure 7. Plot of means (range 0 to 5) and SDs (range 0 to 1.4) of responses to survey.

The next plot (Figure 8) shows one possible (and reasonable) clustering of questions into five groups dependent on the mean-standard deviation plot. Numbered from bottom right, these are groups 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.



Figure 8. A clustering of the 44 questions into five groups

The relevant attitude statements were matched to each grouping and these are shown in the tables below, and discussed beyond with reference to each group.

Table 17 Group One from means and SD analysis

No.	Item
4	Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all
10	Establishes good relationships with pupils
11	Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students
20	Is caring and approachable
24	Is well prepared
26	Maintains good discipline
40	Takes time to listen to pupils
41	Uses praise appropriately

Group One

The cluster of characteristics which make up Group One are ones with which most teachers were in agreement. The standard deviation is low in this group. There are eight characteristics in this cluster. From the eight, six concern interpersonal relationships and classroom interaction. The other two — *is well prepared* and

maintains good discipline — also indicate actions which appear to be underpinned by aspects of personal qualities which suggest the esteem in which all pupils are held. These were originally categorised as competence and performance characteristics respectively. All teachers should be well prepared, but it is especially important when supporting children in the class whose conduct is an issue. Examples of this can be seen later in this thesis in the reflective diary entitled “Persistence Pays” (Chapter Twelve). Maintaining discipline is a performance characteristic that could be measured, yet it indicates a concern for both the efficiency of the teacher in the rôle of encouraging learning for all and also for the ethos of the classroom. The rest of the cluster comprises characteristics that could be called relationships in action, as that is the concern of the statements.

Table 18 Group Two from means and SD analysis

No.	Item
1	Actively engages students
22	Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils
25	Knows pupils well
38	Stays calm and composed in trying situations

Group Two

This small group comprises four characteristics, three of which relate to relationships in action and the fourth — *actively engages students* — was categorised as performance originally. However, this could also relate to relationships as the word *actively* suggests a positive interaction between the teacher and the pupil.

Table 19 Group Three from means and SD analysis

No.	Item
2	Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school
5	Deals calmly with stress
6	Demonstrates a commitment to equality
7	Demonstrates a commitment to social justice
8	Draws on pupil strengths
14	Good knowledge of subjects taught
16	Has integrity
17	Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning
18	Helps students to learn independently
21	Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching
27	Makes a positive response to barriers to learning
29	Plans, organizes and prepares materials for classroom presentation
35	Sense of humour
37	Shows great commitment to work
39	Stimulates pupil interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically
44	Works well with others

Group Three

This cluster is the largest, with the characteristics mainly in the categories of performance and competence. This is unsurprising as these characteristics concern the craft of teaching. Many teachers agree on these basics because almost all of them are necessary for registration to teach. These competencies and performance characteristics are the foundations for all aspects of successful teaching and learning, only if they are combined with a positive relationship between pupils and teachers.

Table 20 Group Four from means and SD analysis

No.	Item
3	Clear about lesson structure
12	Expectations of high performance
13	Good at reading peoples moods and understanding non-verbal cues
19	Holds informal conversations with pupils
23	Is innovative
31	Promotes learning for all pupils, through differentiated appropriate programmes of work, IEPs, etc.
32	Relates course content to students' experiences
33	Responds positively to pupil differences
34	Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats
36	Sets rules and follows them in class at all times
43	Values parents' perspectives

Group Four

There is less agreement about the statements which are the basis of the fourth cluster. Of the eleven attributes, seven concern the area of effectiveness. However, some of these concern areas that practitioners feel have less to do with them as individuals. This has been discussed earlier in this chapter in relation to innovation, for example. Teachers who work in schools where new initiatives are constantly being adopted may feel ambivalent about their adoption, especially where they consider they have not been involved in a process of consultation. However, there are also teachers who have positive experiences and would rate — *sees initiatives as opportunities rather than threats* — more highly, in terms of positive approaches to maintaining discipline.

Group Five

In contrast, the fifth group is one where the standard deviation is highest. This greater diversity of central tendency means that teachers were not in agreement about whether

these characteristics were important or less so. This is not surprising. These characteristics may sound to teachers like official rhetoric, and indeed they are indicators of competency in meeting the government's agenda for teachers. Some teachers would consider that in order to enable a child to meet their full potential they had to achieve success in National Tests. It has been argued elsewhere in this thesis (see, for example, Chapter Nine) that it is important that teachers can make a sound professional judgment about all aspects of education. That judgement should be underpinned by relevant reading, and this would include reports of research particularly relevant to a teacher's circumstances or concerns or interests. Relevant reading would also include government bills, guidelines and policies, with which teachers must comply. The writer would suggest that teachers, as professionals should engage in continuing professional development, which would inform the whole context of relationships in action. This engagement with continuing professional development is reinforced by the GTCS, of course, but not all teachers may see the direct relevance of it to every day practice. For that reason, this cluster could conveniently be called educational "jargon" for the purposes of the study, because its characteristics have high ratings for the official knowledge (Apple, 2000), and received wisdom of policy documents.

Principal Components Analysis

The analysis of numerical data had one final stage. The data was subjected to an exploratory principal components analysis (Peterson, 2001). This analysis revealed that among the 44 attitude statements, two principal components accounted for half of the variance with the remaining components playing quite minor rôles in the overall structure. Figure 9 is the plot of component one against component two.

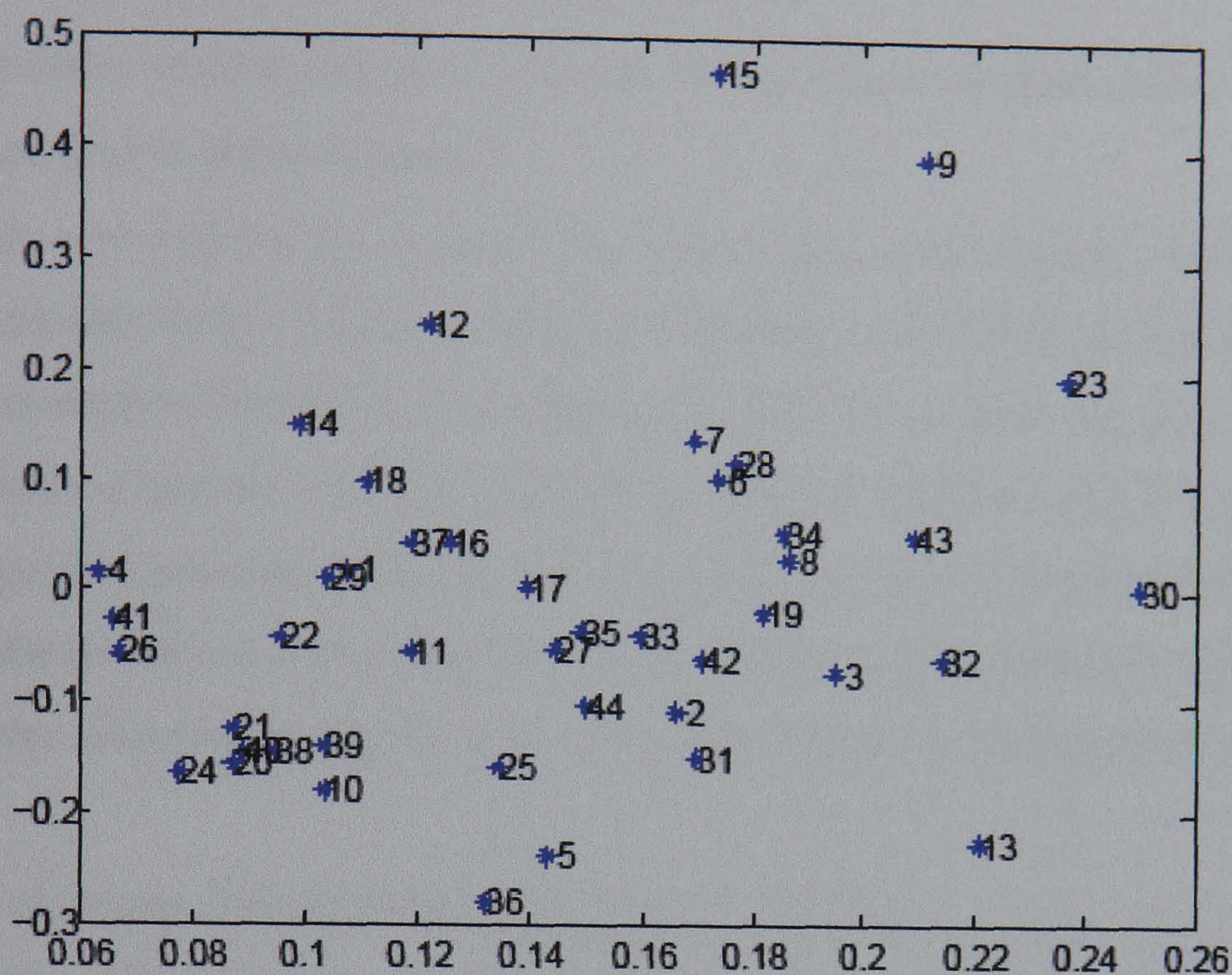


Figure 9 Plot of component one against component two

It can be seen that at the left side of the figure there are two tight clusters of attitude statements (4, 26, 41 and 10, 20, 21, 22, 24, 38, 39, 40,) showing high loadings on components one and two. By contrast, there is a group of four outlying statements (9, 15, 23, 30) on the right hand periphery of the plot, showing low loadings on the components. Let us examine, then, these three groups, the two tight clusters and the outlying group.

Items 4, 26, 41 correspond respectively to the following...

- Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all
- Maintains good discipline
- Uses praise appropriately.

Items 10, 20, 21, 22, 24, 38, 39, 40 correspond respectively to ...

- Establishes good relationships with pupils
- Is caring and approachable

- Is concerned about the quality of his her teaching
- Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils
- Is well prepared
- Stays calm and composed in trying situations
- Stimulates student interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically
- Takes time to listen to pupils.

This analysis was exploratory, as mentioned above and, as mentioned elsewhere, was carried out on data with a limited number of responses and with no claims to be distributed normally. Therefore, it is a little speculative to suggest that the smaller cluster is more concerned with face to face teaching whereas the second is concerned with more general personal qualities. However, the total group comprised by the two clusters endorses the numerical analyses of the quartile and standard deviation investigations: effectiveness in the eyes of teachers relates to relationships in action.

There was, of course, the outlying cluster of 9, 15, 23, 30...

- Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests
- Has a critical understanding of current policy debates
- Is innovative
- Practice is informed by reading and research.

It can be seen again here that the same characteristics have emerged, items from the jargon category and innovation, about which (as previously argued) teachers may feel a lack of identity with because of the pressures to conform to prescriptive expectations.

The exploratory principal components analysis dealt with relationships among the data and not simply their absolute numerical importance in teachers' eyes. Yet, this analysis is clearly consistent with that of the earlier, simpler procedures.

Characteristics that the writer feels may be seen by teachers as jargon are rated less important when supporting children whose conduct can be inappropriate. Rather, characteristics concerned with relationships and classroom interactions are considered more important.

What was needed now was data to test this emerging theory of effectiveness, related to relationships. The next chapter is concerned with using reflective diaries as a method of observing and analysing teachers' interactions with pupils in the context of actual classrooms.

CHAPTER TWELVE

TEACHERS' TALES

Introduction

The data gathered and discussed thus far shows patterns of thinking which seem to suggest that most teachers rate affective qualities as significant in successful interactions with youngsters who display conduct considered inappropriate in classrooms. This emerging theory needed to be tested in classrooms where teacher/pupil interactions could be observed and analysed. This chapter first describes and justifies the process of data collection. Second, it presents four teachers' accounts of interactions, each entitled allegorically. In this way the writer is attempting to capture the essence of the each teacher's tale, just as the thesis overall attempts to capture the essence of communicative behaviour. Third, it analyses the data gathered and relates it to the themes of competence, performance, and effectiveness (i) and (ii) considered earlier.

Collecting the data

The purpose of gathering more data was to study how teachers react to the phenomenon of inappropriate behaviour in their classrooms. A number of methods were considered. These included observation and vignettes.

Observation

Teaching is a complex enterprise, with a large number of interacting variables in the classroom context and for this reason, observation is challenging. Observations tend to be more successful when there is collaboration with the person being observed (Harvey, 1998). One common way of collaborating would be to share the purpose and goals of the observation with the teacher. In this study, however, it was important to try to assess teachers' attitudes and personal characteristics, and that goal might be compromised if teachers were made aware of it at the outset. They might inadvertently behave in a manner different from their normal. So, in this study, observation was ruled out as unsuitable because there were issues of

- sample
- time scale

- reliability of data.

The first difficulty arose with sampling of practitioners. Not all the practitioners who responded to the survey referred to in Chapter Eleven would necessarily have students with issues of conduct in their current classes. If the sample was selected from that same set of practitioners would this generate responses to the phenomenon of classroom conduct that were too similar to each other? That might be the case, as all the teachers had been selected by their head teachers as capable of working successfully with students whose behaviour was considered challenging to schools. The observations would need to be carried out over a long period of time which was not feasible within the constraints of the study. The very presence of an observer could render the data unreliable. As discussed earlier in Chapter Eight, classroom interactions are influenced by all those present in that context. The dynamics of the interactions can be subtly altered by the presence of another party.

Vignettes

A vignette is a short scene, in this case, relating to classroom practice. There are many forms, occurring in both naturalistic and experimental settings. For example, participants might be presented with a problem which they are invited to solve. The difficulties presented in the scenario are ones with which a teacher would be familiar. Vignettes can be used to determine attitudes and so this approach was also considered. They have been used with some success in the past with teachers (see, for example, Poulou, 2001; Brophy & McCaslan, 1992). However, difficulties could arise in the composition of the vignettes, given the lack of common understanding of the concept of inappropriate conduct, discussed in Chapters Four and Five. Moreover, teachers' responses to the situations depicted in the vignette could be entirely divorced from their practice. Brophy and McCaslan (1992) used a number of observation visits for each teacher in the study to provide a context of reference for the later interpretation of the teachers' responses to the vignettes.

For these reasons, a different approach was taken to gathering data. Reflective teaching diaries can record particular interactions in the classroom and give a flavour of how teachers respond when faced with critical incidents (Dart, Boulton-Lewis, Brownlee & McCrindle, 1998). Four teachers volunteered to keep a reflective diary.

These were volunteers from a group of eighteen practitioners who had undertaken a module entitled Challenging Behaviour, a module which is one of a number of options in a postgraduate certificate course in support for learning. These are competent teachers, who have all met the GTCS SFR. Moreover, they may be some way to meeting the competencies required for chartered teacher status, as they were endeavouring to extend their skills and knowledge and were engaging with current reading and research as part of the course they were undertaking. In addition, as a result of the course, they had a close awareness of structures and systems that can be put into place to support children with inappropriate behaviour. They were also introduced to the process of reflecting on their own practice. It seemed an appropriate group to use to extend my data.

Each teacher was given the same set of instructions (see Appendix G). They were asked to describe the context in which they were teaching and in which critical incidents occurred. They were asked to focus on either one student or a group, and also to consider the scaffolding of structures in place in their establishments to support both pupils and teachers, when issues of discipline arose. Teachers were requested to comment on how these structures were accessed and to what extent they were indeed supportive. Finally, practitioners were asked to reflect on their responses to the situations in which they found themselves. This introduces the element of teacher capability linked with personal qualities. The work of Kline (cited in Davies & Bryer, 2004) suggested that when conditions are neutral, the link between personality and performance is moderate. However, under stressful conditions, where emotions become involved, this relationship increases. Research provides evidence of increasing teacher stress, often related to indiscipline (Travers & Cooper, 1996; Pithers & Soden, 1998; Wilson, 2002). The reflective logs were a way of gauging whether these teachers demonstrated affective traits in their practice, as well as the characteristics of competence and performance.

Each log was completed in a completely individual manner, despite the common instructions issued. This variety added to the richness of the data as each log reflected a different aspect of conduct issues. They correspond with three categories used by Brophy and McCaslan (1992) based on the work of Gordon (1974, and cited by them) These categories are

- teacher owned problems, where the behaviour of the pupil or pupils makes the teacher feel upset, frustrated or angry. Teacher owned problems are those where the behaviour of the pupil interferes with a teacher's need for order and control.
- shared problems, where neither the needs of the student nor the teacher are met. In these cases, it is the pupil's inability to conform to the requirements of the school community about how pupils should act that cause management problems for the teacher.
- student owned problems, where a student's needs are being interfered with by people or events that do not include the teacher. In these cases, pupils do not frustrate the teacher's personal or professional needs.

Of course, all teachers are responsible for their classrooms and so have an ownership of all the problems that occur, but it may be that some problems cause less emotional upset to teachers than others.

In the tales names and genders have been changed randomly to preserve anonymity rather than choose neutral pronouns such as "they" and "he or she" which would have disrupted the narrative nature of the accounts. Let us now turn to the first tale, "A Tale of Three Cultures".

A Tale of Three Cultures

This is the diary which reflects on a pupil, anonymised as John, who was supported in a behaviour base in a primary school. John came from a home where his father, widowed a year previously, had a history of drug abuse and violence. His father had difficulties with his health and had part of one leg amputated. John had nine siblings, seven of whom were in prison. One brother had left the area and was doing well. The brother one year older than John was in residential care. John's mother had alcohol related problems and had been the victim of violence within the home.

John had been in the primary support base for a number of years but had become violent and should have moved on to secondary school the previous year. At the time the diary was written, he was being supported in a transition arrangement. The teacher who kept the reflective diary picked up John each day to take him to school and

worked with another two teachers to provide tutorial support in a one to one teaching situation. The unusual transport arrangements were due to John's violence in a taxi which led to the firm boycotting him. This arrangement was seen as short term in order to improve John's confidence.

The first issue that is apparent from this diary is that John's attendance was very poor. The diary records 28 school days and John attended for only 14 of these. There is much in the literature, both in government guidelines and in research, concerning the complex nature and causes of truancy (see, for example, Malcolm, Thorpe & Lowden, 1996; Kinder, Wakefield & Wilkin, 1996; Atkinson, Halsey, Wilkin & Kinder, 2000, all cited by Edward & Malcolm, 2002). Pupils who truant vary, not only in the extent of their truancy, but also in the causes of their absence. Kinder et al., in 1996, rated the causes of truancy as

- influence of the peer group
- relationships with teachers
- a curriculum lacking in relevant content and non motivational with teachers
- family factors caused by attitudes or problems
- bullying
- classroom context—lack of teacher authority or child's personality or learning difficulties.

It seems unlikely that John's truanting is caused by the influence of his peer group. It appears, from reading the diary, that he has few, if any friends. "*John finds it very difficult to mix socially*". It is possible that relationships with teachers were poor, but again the diary seems to indicate that relationships with the diary's author were positive on the whole. Relationships with other teachers were sometimes more difficult: "*he refused to work with other member of staff (Mrs N)*". Relationships with other significant adults involved in education, such as the primary school inclusion worker, for example, also seem to be positive. There is no indication of bullying. Both the classroom context and the curriculum could be sources of disaffection leading to truancy but the diary indicates that there is an attempt by this teacher, at least, to tailor the curriculum to the student's needs.

What is very clear from the diary is that family factors appeared to be the most likely cause of truancy.

- 15.3.04 I went to house at 10.15. Dad not in*
- 18.3.04 Went to house. Dad thought John had left with me at 8.30*
- 14.04.04 Called and woke dad up at 9.30. Dad and I made the decision to leave it until tomorrow*

Edward & Malcolm's (2002) work suggested that the perceptions of educational professionals were that family factors such as

- parental condoned absence
- education not being valued
- inadequate or inconsistent parenting; domestic problems
- economic deprivation

were all possible sources of general dissatisfaction which may lead to absences.

Sacker et al. (2002) indicated that parental involvement is influenced by the socio-economic status of the parents, judged by their occupation or level of education.

Working class families may place less value on education because of the culture of poverty that has developed in certain areas (Nechyba et al., 1999). For this reason parents may be less likely to become involved in education. Kohl et al. (2000) found that the less educated the parent, the less likely it was that they would become involved in their child's education. This may be because they lack the concept of parents as partners in education. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1997) suggested that parents make decisions about their role and may feel that teachers and not parents are responsible for education. Again, socio-economic class may influence the perception of parental role (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1997).

Research indicates that there are issues of institutional barriers being a cause of lack of parental involvement in the education of their children (see, for example, Reay, 1996; Crozier, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2001; Tett, 2001; Vincent, 2001; Vincent & Martin, 2000, all cited in Desforges, 2003). Schools tend to espouse middle class values, to which some groups of parents may not conform, and this may prevent parents from feeling valued partners. Work carried out by Britt (1998) and cited by Desforges (2003)

suggested that families who have problems concerning debt, alcohol, overcrowding in the home and low socio-economic status are less likely to be positively involved in their children's education.

It is clear that family involvement in John's education was not always positive for many of the reasons outlined above. It appears that John's father often condoned John's absence from school. Circumstances in the home appear to have contributed to John's tiredness and inability to attend school. Education may not have been considered a priority for John, given the variety of difficulties faced by the family.

The reluctance of children to have parents involved in their education is acknowledged by the UK government (Coughlan, 2005). John may have been active in discouraging or obstructing his father's active participation in the programme set up by the school to encourage his attendance. Children may do this to alleviate parental stress. It may be that John felt that his father had a great deal to cope with. It is clear from the reflective diary that John was worried about his father: "*he was worried his dad would be upset at him coming home early at 10.30*"; "*he was becoming more and more agitated...(he) told me his dad was in hospital*".

What evidence is there in this reflective diary of a capable teacher, supporting a child whose needs are not being met, initially by his home environment and ultimately by the education system?

Teacher Competence Characteristics Evident in This Log

Making a positive response to barriers to learning

Personalises the learning process

The teacher is aware of John's disengagement with the curriculum on offer and attempts to remedy this: "*he worked for about half an hour then became agitated.....I tried changing the work in an attempt to engage him*".

Teacher Performance Characteristics Evident in This Log

Demonstrates a commitment to social justice

Demonstrates a commitment to equality

Shows great commitment to work

This is demonstrated in the actions of liaising with the home and physically taking the pupil to school. The teacher, in this case, clearly values the student and is prepared to extend the rôle of the teacher in order to build positive relationships with the home, to the extent that he is willing to collect the child each day to try to ensure he has the opportunity to attend school.

Draws on pupil strength

This teacher shows capability in using the pupil's areas of learning strength as a tool to support other aspects of teaching and learning. "*...reading was done by negotiation. Art seems to be the key*".

Teacher Personal Characteristics Evident in This Log

Is caring and approachable

The reflective log provides evidence that John relates to the caring side of this teacher: "*he spoke to me in the car*"; "*he became more relaxed in the car and told me...*". The log also provides an insight into the way the teacher cares for John: "*I am not surprised he is so stressed*". Other comments, for example, "*called and woke dad up at 9.30 . Dad and I made the decision to leave it until tomorrow*" suggests that the teacher wanted John to achieve success in his engagement with school and made a professional judgment, based on local knowledge, about when this was less likely to be achieved.

Establishes good relationships with pupils

The entries in the log suggest that John and the teacher had developed rapport. The reporting that John had only worked with the diary's author "*and has only worked with me*" suggests that there is a relationship established and it is a positive one.

Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students

The teacher reports that he was upset that the interagency group involved with John and his parent went ahead and met despite the fact that neither of them could attend. "*John did not attend this meeting as the social worker who was going to pick him up said she could not...I was not happy about it going ahead in their absence but it did*". These statements indicate regard, concern and respect for the pupil. I feel that the inclusion of the sentence "*She did not tell them but told me at the meeting*" is

important. It highlights an element of disapproval that the main shareholders in this meeting were considered so unimportant by some agencies that common courtesy was not extended towards them.

Good at reading people's moods and understanding non-verbal cues

This teacher had worked with John for some time and could read the non-verbal cues of boredom and upset that John displayed. *“He worked on numeracy skills for 15 to 20 minutes and then started to put his head on the desk”*. One incident recorded describes John becoming more and more agitated. The teacher decided to take him home, but on the way John mentioned that his dad was in hospital. The teacher observed *“I am not surprised he was so stressed — the only time his mother went to hospital she never came home”*.

Integrity

There is evidence of this teacher's integrity in the diary. *“I feel I cannot allow John to dictate who he will and will not work with”*. It might have been easier to prevent confrontation in this instance by continuing to work with John rather than making the decision that he has to learn to work with other adults also. The description of the events in the interagency meeting also illustrates a level of integrity, when the teacher continues to voice concern, despite opposition from other quarters. *“I expressed the view that we should be looking at ALL (practitioner's emphasis) the issues preventing John from accessing mainstream education...there was disagreement...”*

Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats

This teacher clearly embraced the idea of supporting this pupil in a transition from primary school to secondary school. The recording in the diary is factual and with an emphasis on John's welfare at the centre of all decisions made by the teacher. The diary is quite unemotional with one exception, discussed below.

Stays calm and composed in trying situations

The recording in the diary appears to reflect a practitioner who has the child's best interests at heart, but is fairly laid back and tends not to provoke confrontation, unless it is important to move the child on to becoming more independent in some respect. The most trying situation for the teacher was the review meeting described as the last

incident in the log. This is where the emotions of the teacher are revealed, despite what appears to be an outward display of calm during the incident. The incident where the teacher was most upset did not involve the child in person, rather another professional. *“I was informed....she had decided not to make the appointment agreed at the last meeting. (I wanted to scream, not very professional)”*. The sentiments expressed here clearly indicate that the teacher felt that he and his colleagues were failing this child. The teacher had invested a great deal of time and effort in establishing a relationship with the child and the home, and had come to know the pupil well. The understanding of the various home circumstances, such as the father’s instability, the mother’s death and the placing in care of the next oldest sibling were seemingly undervalued by other professionals.

This teacher’s tale records the difficulties in trying to successfully merge three cultures — the home, the school and that of interagency working. The culture of the home is accepted. There is also an acceptance that it is a difficult culture to influence but one which can be addressed positively by taking steps to form relationships and by an element of trust. The culture of the school is recognised as being difficult for the pupil to conform to, given environmental factors outwith his control. Again there is a compromise reached, with what appears to be genuine understanding, concern and regard for the pupil, while at the same time a conformity to the requirements of the education system. The third culture is that of interagency working, promoted as essential to meet, successfully, the needs of the various students in our system (SOED, 1998; SEED, 2001b; SEED, 2004). This culture, as evidenced here, is one where there is a lack of shared goals, lack of understanding of rôles, and lack of collaborative working. The end result of the incompatibility of the three forms of culture is that the needs of the child are not being properly met.

This case is one of the sort described by Brophy and McCaslan (1992) as a student owned problem. Teachers tend to feel more confident of effecting some improvement of student owned problems. They see the student as a victim of circumstances. As discussed earlier, the work of Chan (2003) suggests that confident teachers are more likely to effect a positive change in students’ behaviour. This could in part account for the positive steps that the author of this diary takes to address John’s problems of

accessing mainstream education, despite being met with a lack of support from the home.

Is there evidence in this reflective log that the teacher writing it is a capable teacher? There is evidence of a few competence characteristics and a few more performance characteristics. These, it will be remembered, are the attributes most often included in government documents and literature on capable teachers. However, there are more affective characteristics evident in this reflective diary. These are attributes which are difficult to measure, but which are valued by pupils and considered important by teachers themselves.

A Cry From the Heart

Introduction

This diary records incidents involving a group of pupils in a class in the upper school, around the stage of primary six. The chief protagonists are anonymised as Nick, Sean, Dom and Ed. The reflective diary was kept by the class teacher. Recorded are those behaviours which are defined by SEED (2001b) as incidences of low-level, inappropriate behaviour, more challenging behaviour and seriously disruptive behaviour.

- Low level inappropriate behaviour — talking out of turn
- More challenging behaviour — out of seat, shouting, arguing with teachers, intimidating other pupils, swearing
- Seriously disruptive behaviour — defiance, aggression, violence (SEED, 2001b, p.13)

These incidences are in a category of behaviours that Brophy and McCaslan (1992) describe as teacher owned. They are behaviours which make the teacher feel upset, angry and frustrated. The teacher in this diary is striving for control and the actions of a group of pupils mean that her control is threatened.

There are a number of issues which are highlighted in this diary. First is the impression of a teacher who is at the end of her tether and feeling unable to cope. Second is the impression of a number of male pupils who have seized power in the

classroom. Third is an impression of a school which has no strategic plan for behaviour management. Finally, there is a question of the ethos of the school.

Feelings of Powerlessness

There is a clear indication in this diary that the teacher writing it felt unable to cope. *“I am near to tears”*; *“a very difficult day”*; *“on telling head teacher about Nick I become upset and she put depute head in class and I get a break till lunchtime”*. Even when she recorded days when things had been less traumatic, this teacher noted having managed a drama lesson *“without things degenerating into a shambles”*. It seems as though she expected things to go badly. It appears that her professional self-esteem was very low. The feelings of lack of power and status were reinforced on an almost daily basis, by having to send children out of class or ask for help. *“Depute head came and took Nick out to help”*, *“teacher next door hears Gary (shouting) and reports him to Depute — he is removed.”* *“Sent Nick to P7...Sean eventually to P3”*. Rogers (1997) suggests that this form of “support” implies that not all teachers have the same status. By this he means that in the hierarchy of a school, there are staff members who either have more power, or are seen to be more important than others. In this account, the class teacher often sent children to the primary seven teacher, the depute head or the head teacher, either for a “time out” or for the application of sanctions. Students become aware of this quite quickly, and it can reinforce some of their undesirable behaviours.

The teacher who kept this reflective diary outlined some of the strategies used in response to inappropriate behaviour. These included ignoring behaviours, praising positive behaviours, awarding house points, time out cards and removal from class. There is a hint at the end of the diary that this teacher cannot rely on the backing of the head teacher in carrying through sanctions. A behaviour agreement had been drawn up for one child. The class teacher felt that the contract had been broken — *“I think by Ed’s behaviour he has broken agreement. I told head and showed her the other teachers’ comments ...She shrugged...”* This attitude is further discussed in the section “A question of ethos” below. It has been argued (see, for example, Dewey, 1916; Jackson, 1968) that attention must be paid to the hidden curriculum of the school, that is, the messages that are conveyed, albeit unintentionally, through the actions of members of staff. In this school, students were made aware that teachers

did not all have the same status, and the day to day responsibility for their learning belonged to someone of low status. In many cases, the involvement of the higher status teacher may have entailed a show of power, for example, raised voice, threats to phone parents, detention, etc. The nature of this show of power served to lower further the status of the class teacher. The students learned that power came with threatening behaviour, and this reinforced inappropriate behaviour to both peers and teacher (Rogers, 1997). Teachers react quite negatively to students who display hostility or defiance. They tend to reject students with these characteristics, veer to towards a desire to punish the students and try harder to assert their authority (Brophy & McCaslan, 1992). A vicious circle can occur where negative responses and punishments fail to bring about the desired change in pupils' behaviour, so the teachers' professional self esteem is further eroded, and they try even harder to assert their authority.

Feelings of Power

The group of children who are the focus of this reflective diary are resisting authority and carrying on a power struggle with the teacher. They resist the teacher's efforts for control by making statements like "*I wont do it*"; "*F*** off*". They also resisted non-verbally. They grimaced and mimicked the teacher — "*he keeps turning round...giggling, parodying me*". Students can also resist by turning away, laughing at inappropriate times and deliberately doing what the teachers says not to do — "*I ask him to sit down and work quietly. He shouts out and laughs hysterically*". "*Nick on the floor...feet in the air, glasses on back of head shouting and laughing wildly*". There is also evidence of violence towards staff: "*hits and kicks P7 teacher*", which is a form of non-verbal resistance. It appears that, despite strategies being used by the teacher, this group of students, led by one in particular, are hostile to authority, and continue to disrupt the class, defy the teacher and get in fights and scraps with peers. Their continued disruption is evidence that they have seized the power in the classroom.

It is possible that the seizure of power, through inappropriate behaviour, was hiding difficulties of academic attainment. SEED (2001b) suggested that better behaviour will lead to better learning. It could be argued that better learning might then lead to better behaviour. There is no indication in this diary that the students were able to

cope with the curriculum on offer. In fact, there is a reference to one child having to be removed from his maths group by the learning support teacher “*as he can't understand what the rest of small group were doing!*” It is possible that these hostile, aggressive students were also under achievers. It is important to consider this aspect as it might influence both the choice and success of strategies used to reduce unwanted behaviours.

A Strategic Plan for Conduct

This teacher appeared to have had no planned strategies for effecting positive change in behaviour. More often curt demands for a change in behaviour were made with no explicit explanation of what the desired behaviour should be. Teachers often make assumptions that pupils will understand teacher expectations of appropriate behaviour, despite there having been no discussion or modelling of them. There is little evidence in the diary of offers of reward for improved behaviour, any discussion of why a behaviour is inappropriate or teaching of coping techniques. This may be because the school had no explicit behaviour policy in place to support staff. There may have been a policy that was imposed rather than having been agreed by consensus, but clearly the efficacy of this policy has not been recently reviewed. It appears that the measures that are in place, such as detention, timeout to other classes and referral to members of the senior management team are ineffective in managing a positive change in these students' behaviour. Schools are required to have a behaviour policy (SEED, 2001b). In the writer's experience and from anecdotal evidence, schools often have a paper policy which is not always enacted. Behaviour policies which are effective in bringing about positive changes in pupil behaviours are those where all staff members have agreed to the strategies and carry them out consistently and fairly.

This teacher might benefit from the support of a behaviour co-ordinator who could help her assess the learning environment. A supportive peer working with the teacher to address issues of classroom organisation such as seating arrangements, groupings of pupils, resource allocation and storage can help to identify areas which may cause problems which could exacerbate incidences of inappropriate behaviour. The display of class agreed rules would enable the teacher to refer to these and use phrases like “we agreed...” which takes the heat out of many situations. The explicit teaching of expected behaviours makes it clear to pupils what teachers want them to do, rather

than always telling them what not to do. Teachers sometimes make assumptions that children know the behaviours they are looking for when in some cases children are unaware of them. Issues such as these and many like them can be raised at whole school planned activities times, and practitioners can be encouraged to reflect on the “in-class” causes of the behaviours and ways of reducing these (Grieve & Mackay, 2004).

A Question of School Ethos

Research (see, for example, Moyles, Suschitsky, & Chapman, 1999) indicates that teachers and pupils work better in an atmosphere where they are valued. In the section entitled feelings of powerlessness, the issue of the staff hierarchy was mentioned. It appears from this diary that the message given to both students and teachers was one that indicated that some individuals on the staff had more power than others. The nature of teacher-pupil relationships is an element of what has been described as the hidden curriculum (Postman & Weingartner, 1969; Meighan, 1986). According to Kelly (1989) students learn much “because of the way in which the work of the school is...organized but which are not...even in the consciousness of those responsible for the school arrangements” (Kelly, 1989, p. 8). Issues of conduct are by their very nature emotive. Teachers often take inappropriate behaviours as a personal affront, rather than recognising a cry for help from a pupil. If the informal or formal policy of the school indicates that inappropriate behaviour is an issue to be dealt with by those with more authority, then practitioners may feel ineffectual. A vicious circle can occur; when teachers feel less capable, they become less capable.

The ethos in the school appears to be less than supportive of this teacher, whatever her capabilities. There is the indication of the head teacher not valuing the teacher’s views: “*she shrugged...*”. The inclusion of two testimonials from other professionals seems to suggest that this teacher is trying to convince me that she is not exaggerating the extent of the difficult behaviours she describes. This perhaps is an indication that she is used to having her perceptions of difficult behaviour dismissed by colleagues or senior management. Included with the diary was a verification of the difficult behaviour witnessed in the classroom by a support teacher — “*I am an inclusion teacher working with children who have ALN (additional learning needs)...At no point did Mrs C raise her voice or show sign of irritation*”. A further note was

included from a supply teacher “*Sean – removal after 4-5 warnings*”; *Nick moved to seat at side after several warnings*”. This class teacher, it appears, feels that her professionalism is being called into doubt by staff in her school. This may serve to make her feel inadequate.

What evidence is there in this reflective diary of a capable teacher, supporting children who are trying to resist her authority in the classroom?

Teacher Competence Characteristics Evident in This Log

Is concerned about the quality of her teaching

This teacher feels she is failing the pupils in her class. There is a minority whose needs she is not meeting but she is concerned for the class as a whole: “*The lesson is in danger of degenerating into a farce*”; “*Dom, Nick and Gary shout, laugh, giggle, argue and generally try to upset class...I am trying to keep class together*”. These comments indicate that the teacher is aware of how difficulties with discipline are making it almost impossible for her to achieve quality teaching.

Teacher Performance Characteristics Evident in This Log

Uses praise appropriately

This teacher clearly knows about rewards and praise: “*verbally reward people with hands up during spelling*”; “*continue to give house points to reward good behaviour*”; “*Gary more focused in maths — praised him*”. However, there is little evidence of praise to the minority group who have issues of conduct.

Teacher personal characteristics evident in this log

Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for pupils

There is evidence of concern of some of the environmental issues that have shaped the behaviours of some students: “*Spoke to him at lunchtime and he says his parents are arguing again...told him I understand but he must calm down*”. However, the positive regard that she may have held students in seems to have been eroded by the struggle to keep authority in class: “*Nick is severely disturbed, has a language disorder and has apparently been sexually abused. He has added another dimension to an already difficult group of children*”.

Stays calm and composed in trying situations

From the diary there is evidence that the teacher is very stressed. However, it appears that she stays calm and composed in class: *“I sent Nick a message to the office”*; *“Gave time out for one minute”*; *“ignore him”*. The testimonial from the learning support teacher validates the calmness in class: *“Mrs C asked him several times to stop, she attempted to help him with his piece of work”*; *“At no point did Mrs C raise her voice or show a sign of irritation”*. The stress shows not only in her description of her emotional state in the reflective diary — *“I’m near to tears”* —but in the fact that she was upset when discussing the incidents with the head teacher: *“On telling HT about Nick I become upset”*.

Sense of humour

Although this is not evident in her record of dealings with the group of boys she is describing, there are nevertheless remnants of humour in her account: *“pm went well. Only had to remove 8 pens from Nick’s facial orifices the once!”*.

From the initial analysis above, it would appear that this is a teacher who is not capable. There is little evidence of competence, yet this teacher must have been competent at some point. The teacher must have met the criteria for SFR when she finished her probation. However, judged solely by competencies she would be incompetent. Performance characteristics are few and indicate an awareness of strategies that could be used. Clearly, the diary is focused on the small group of male students and it is unfair to judge her capability in areas not mentioned in the log. Feelings of powerlessness appear to have overwhelmed this teacher and it appears that she has almost given up trying to achieve order with these youngsters. As far as personal characteristic go, there is more evidence of negative than positive. There is little evidence of dealing calmly with stress, or enthusiasm for motivating pupils. It is possible that these indicators of a capable teacher have been there and have been eroded by the lack of effective support systems in the school.

The capability of this teacher seems to be following a U-shaped learning curve, similar to that observed in language learning and child development (Piaget, 1929; Westermann, 1998). This curve describes a state where skills and knowledge have been acquired and are embedded. Then, through experience or exposure to other

forms of knowledge, these competencies are eroded. There is also a recognised form of cultural U-shaped learning curve, which seems appropriate to consider (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). As a person enters a new culture, familiar cues are removed. A person may feel anxious because they do not know how to behave in the new culture. At first they are eager to embrace the new environment and challenges. Later, however, they pass into a stage where they feel they have no longer made the correct decision or they have lost their sense of identity. One can perhaps relate this to the teacher who kept this diary. At first she may have been eager to work with this challenging class. However, as the term progressed, the lack of familiarity with the environment may have made her less sympathetic with some aspects of it. The teacher started out with competency and performance characteristics. At first she was capable but at the time of recording the diary her capabilities had perhaps diminished, for a number of reasons. These may have been related to the particular mix of pupils in her current class, or to lack of professional confidence, or lack of knowledge on how best to support children who have issues of conduct. They may also have been related to the school's lack of structured and evaluated support. However, given suitable conditions, it is reasonable to suggest that her skills should increase. The sorts of conditions which would enable an increase in capability may be related to a whole school approach to behaviour, similar to examples of good practice contained in the ethos network for schools (<http://www.ethosnet.co.uk/>), or in "Promoting Positive Discipline" (<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/deleted/structure/hmi/ppd.htm>). Any whole school approach should, of course, be monitored and evaluated regularly to assess its effectiveness.

As mentioned at the start of this section, the incidents in this diary are mainly teacher owned. The children described are displaying hostile-aggressive behaviours and defiance (Brophy & McCaslan, 1992). Much of the behaviour is of the sort categorised as seriously disruptive behaviours by SEED (2001b). The students concerned show hostility towards the teacher, their peers and the school community in general through intimidation and threatening behaviour and are easily angered: "*Dom and Nick hitting each other with sticks again*"; "*Others shun him and he loses it — kicks Grieg*". The students are also resisting authority and carry on a power struggle with the teacher, first and foremost, but also with other members of the school community.

Is there evidence in this reflective log that the teacher writing it is a capable teacher? Going on the evidence alone, this teacher could be judged as not capable. There are few competency, performance or even personal characteristics evident in this account. However, the context in which this teacher is placed may have made the difference between her being capable and not capable. Capability, then, may have to be judged in relation to the other issues which have a bearing on how teachers conduct their work. With support in place and a discipline policy agreed and enacted, for example, this teacher may well be judged as highly capable.

Do as You Would Be Done By

Introduction

This diary reflects on a whole class and the interactions between the teacher and the pupils. The teacher has adopted a very structured approach for the reflection, mirroring the outline I had provided. The notes are brief but give a flavour of the teacher's style. The context described for most of the incidents is the classroom, but episodes relating to the gym hall and the playground are also considered. The students referred to are in primary six, and the teacher is their class teacher.

What is clear from this diary is that the teacher is aware of the way her responses improve or exacerbate the inappropriate behaviours of the pupils in the class. In all the incidents described the behaviour could be described as low level, inappropriate behaviour (SEED, 2001b). It seems that the problems of inappropriate behaviour are shared, that is, the needs of neither the teacher nor the students are being fully met (Gordon, 1974). The students described in this reflective diary were not directly threatening the teacher's authority but rather were unable to live up to the expectations of the teacher and schools expectations of behaviour. They created problems of classroom management.

Teacher Responses

The teacher describes a questioning session which started to go awry: "*me asking question...children shout out answers and questions...I reply...picked up by others behaviour ricochets ...*" She then illustrates her feelings: "*recognised myself being drawn into it...annoyed at myself...*" As a result of this reflection she stopped replying

to the students who were shouting out. By taking this action she was no longer rewarding their inappropriate behaviour with a response (albeit a negative one). The teacher then described a further strategy used, that of explicitly stating “*what behaviour was acceptable*”. She describes a feeling of rapport developing as she spoke to the class and appealed to the ringleaders’ sense of maturity, and comments “*this worked well*”. However, this strategy worked only for a limited time and then the behaviour deteriorated. The comment about feeling at this stage describes anger “*relaxed initially. Angry — stopped activity.*” The diary then goes on to illustrate further reflective thoughts on the episode described. The teacher pondered on the fact that this class was new to her. They were primary six pupils who were trying to be “cool” and raise their self esteem in the eyes of each other. She realised that she was being drawn into the engagement rather than maintaining a distance: “*I realised I was being hooked...it still happens occasionally*”.

The next incident took place in the gym hall. Again the actions were not seriously disruptive ones, rather “*overzealous behaviour*”. Clearly in contexts such as this there are issues of health and safety and it is important the pupils are aware of the behaviours which they must demonstrate. In this instance the teacher resorts to time out for the main offenders, and the diary records that the children were “*offended — stroppy. Sat down*”.

Further incidents in the classroom focus on the talking out of turn that has a wearing effect on teachers. This teacher describes a number of strategies such as: “*golden time*”; “*regrouped class (social groups difficult)*”; “*tables for giving and removing points*”. Later reflection indicates that she considered that her expectations of behaviour might have been unrealistic “*perhaps can’t expect social groups to remain quiet*”, and made a decision to “*use social groups sparingly as a treat*”.

Interestingly, the teacher also reflected on the behaviour of the group with the games tutor, also in the gym hall. The reflective comment here is that the children need to be told exactly what behaviour is desired before the games class commences: “*need to outline behaviour before the class*” although the time out strategy worked short term again. The teacher also comments on the transition of pupils from the classroom to the gym hall. She appreciated how this movement unsettles the pupils.

The next incident recorded in the diary is a similar one to earlier records, on shouting out and arguing. The teacher reflects that *“ignoring doesn’t work, children persist then others react”*. The diary records the teacher’s reflection on past experiences and making a judgment about the effectiveness of the strategies in that situation. On this occasion, the teacher told the children that she was not going to reply to the children who shouted out. She then went on to praise the children who behaved in an appropriate manner, in this case, raising their hands. She then described a session where she talked to children about expectations of behaviour, asked for comments on what they considered to be inappropriate and asked for their opinions on sanctions. Later the diary reports: *“situation much improved, but still occasional outbursts”*.

The final formal incident recorded refers to a playground event, although it is unclear what happened. The episode is described as *“children upset by others injustice”* and the action was *“retaliating”*. However the support strategy described was: *“listened to child’s viewpoint. Asked other teacher to hear the class”*. It appears that there was an incident in the playground which was dealt with in a manner the children initially thought was unfair. The teacher writing the diary heard the views of the class and then asked for another opinion. Whether this other opinion was independent is unclear. The reactions and feelings were recorded as *“unfair?”* but it is unclear whether this was the feeling of the class or the teacher.

The final reflections in the diary are very interesting. The teacher reflects that *“treating children with respect is the key”* and their need for *“seeing justice being done”* is of utmost importance. She also talks of *“explaining how I felt”*; *“asking opinions on my teaching”*. This approach seemed alien to the children at first, but after initial unease the pupils became more accustomed to having their views sought: *“feedback encouraging”*.

What evidence is there in this reflective diary of a capable teacher, supporting a group of children who upset her classroom management and organisation by low level, inappropriate behaviour?

Teacher Competence Characteristics Evident in This Log

Is concerned about the quality of teaching

Makes a positive response to barriers to learning

The teacher keeping this diary is clearly concerned about the quality of her teaching. This is evidenced in the keeping of the log and the reflection on how her interaction with the class could be improved. She realises that low-level indiscipline can be a barrier to learning, not only for the pupils perpetrating it but for others in the class too.

Practice informed by reading and research

The teacher refers in her log to transactional analysis and has the three roles of parent, adult and child circled in her reflections. This is evidence that her responses were in some ways modelled on her reading of Berne (1966) who wrote about transactional analysis. Berne wrote of achieving his ideals by understanding acts of communication as transactions in which people give and receive positive “strokes”, or exchanges, and by showing how unhealthy patterns of stroking could be changed to create better communication, interaction and joint living. This philosophy is underpinned by two main ideas. The first is that people can change, and second, that we all have a right to be in the world and be accepted.

Teacher Performance Characteristics Evident in This Log

Helps students to learn independently

There is little evidence in this reflective diary of students being encouraged to learn independently in areas of the curriculum. However, the teacher asks for pupil’s opinions and is thus encouraging independence in thinking and problem solving: “*asked opinions about sanctions*”; “*listened to children’s viewpoint*”.

Maintains good discipline

The teacher has no issues of seriously disruptive behaviour recorded in her diary. This suggests that she maintains a reasonable level of discipline most of the time, although she is still searching for a successful way of working to eliminate the low level disruptive behaviours.

Teacher Personal Characteristics Evident in This Log

Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school

Explicit statements about expectations of acceptable behaviour are part of this teacher’s repertoire: “*Explained what behaviour was acceptable*”. Her approach

means that the pupils are left in no doubt about the behaviours they should be engaged in.

Establishes good relationships with pupils

The teacher is working on establishing rapport with pupils and there is evidence that this is working successfully; “*Explaining how I felt*”; “*encouraging feedback*”. She understood that the process of gaining trust and establishing rapport would not be a swift course of action, but perseveres with the strategy.

Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students

There is reference to the teacher appealing to the students she considers the instigators:” *tackled ringleaders and appealed to their sense of maturity and/or need to be recognised*”. This could be the action of someone who respects the students and is prepared to demonstrate that regard in her actions. This teacher’s reflection on her expectations of behaviour and consideration of their appropriateness illustrates the regard in which she holds her students. This is further evidenced by her willingness to consider their views, and her consideration of Berne’s transactional analysis: “*transactional analysis — explain this to children?*”.

Takes time to listen to pupils

As discussed above, the teacher’s actions of taking pupils’ views into account in deciding on delivery, and sanctions, are clear evidence of her listening to pupils in a meaningful way; “*need to slow everything down: curriculum doesn’t allow for this*”.

As outlined earlier in this section this diary reflects on a class where the teacher tries to model the sorts of behaviour she hopes will be enacted by the pupils in her class. The diary records an appraisal of the teacher’s feelings when issues of classroom management arise. The approach that the diary writer takes is one which accepts that her responses to inappropriate behaviour may have a considerable effect on the relationships in the classroom. Her approach might be described as somewhat democratic, in that she includes the pupils in some of the decision making processes.

Is there evidence in this reflective log that the teacher writing it is a capable teacher?

Like the teachers in the other tales there is evidence of competence and performance characteristics. However, yet again, this diary chronicles a number of personal characteristics that enable this teacher to accept that both she and her pupils have needs which need to be addressed. It is clear that these inform her endeavours to enlist the support of the pupils in making this understanding explicit to all in the class context. It would be difficult to measure the extent of these personal characteristics, but again these are the ones which most students value and indeed which practitioners themselves value.

PERSISTENCE PAYS?

Introduction

This is a diary which focuses on incidents concerning one pupil, a boy, anonymised as Lee. He was a primary two pupil and the teacher who recorded the diary was his class teacher. Lee was seven and had recently begun to attend a unit run by the primary pupil support service. He attended the unit four mornings per week and then returned to his mainstream primary class for the remainder of the time. A number of agencies were involved with Lee. These included psychological services, social work, speech and language therapists, pupil support service and learning support. He had a special needs assistant for part of his time in school. Assessments have been carried out to try to ascertain Lee's stage of development and his needs. The results of these suggested that his emotional and social development was equivalent to that of a three year old. He had pronounced speech and language problems but maths was an area of strength.

There are a number of issues raised through by the reflective log. First, this case does not fall neatly into a category, such as these defined by Brophy and McCaslan (1992). There are elements of a student owned problem, namely, the delayed development and the difficulties with speech. The involvement of social work suggests that the home environment may also pose difficulties. However, the low level indiscipline and the more seriously disruptive behaviours (SEED, 2001b) described also make it a shared problem. Neither the teacher's need for order in the classroom nor the needs of Lee, in terms of a flexible education system are being met. These aspects will be discussed more fully below. What is clear from the reflective log, however, is the teacher's understanding and a total lack of apportioning blame on any person, including the pupil, for the behaviours that occurred. This is in direct contrast to the findings of Croll and Moses (1985) where most teachers blamed the home and the

factors within a child himself for inappropriate behaviour in class. The teacher seems to have a great deal of patience and persistence, and a confidence that she can cope with the behaviours that occur. She tends to be consistent in her approach to the inappropriate behaviours. The other thing that is clear from the diary is that the teacher starts each day afresh with Lee. There is no evidence of a negative expectation of inappropriate behaviour. There is however, a clearly reflective element that permeates the lessons as the teacher's actions are based on past experience of what worked and what was less successful. Finally, there is evidence of a concerted approach by staff to the difficult behaviours that are experienced. This suggests that there is a plan of action, based on a behaviour policy.

Persistence, Consistency and Patience

This teacher's experience and knowledge of Lee and his behaviour is evident from the reflective log. On the first page she identified that Lee's bike having been brought to school was going to cause problems: "*Knew this would be a distraction to learning this afternoon. Tried to engage Lee in lesson, he was distracted and reluctant to participate*". The reluctance to participate became total avoidance, a strategy that the teacher also recognised: "*left the room after asking for toilet-am aware this is an avoidance strategy for him*". This pupil had a tendency to run away when he was thwarted in his desires, and at times became violent: "*he physically lashed out*"; "*punched Aaron in stomach*"; "*they had to restrain him*"; "*he instantly lashes out and tries to kick me*". Despite this, the teacher tried to reason with Lee and make him begin to take responsibility for his actions: "*try to avoid confrontations but Lee needs to become responsible for his actions*"; "*I say as he leaves that I gave him a choice and he chose to carry on...*".

A Fresh Start

Lee attended a behaviour support unit so clearly his behaviour must be seriously disruptive (SEED, 2001b) to be accorded a place in such an establishment. He attended four mornings per week, and it would be almost expected that a teacher would anticipate difficult behaviour in the mainstream classroom on his return each day. The teacher who wrote this log was prepared for difficult behaviour but in a positive, proactive way rather than in any negative sense. "*Settling in after lunch is at times a problem for Lee. Try to make sure no problems coming in from playground*";

“task on desk very helpful today, practical and easy, suited Lee well”; “was introducing new genre of play...too difficult for Lee, gave him new sequencing beads”. Not only was the teacher proactive, but she appears not to have carried over sanctions for inappropriate behaviour from one day to the next. In fact, sanctions are rarely used. Instead, the teacher uses rewards as incentives.

A Concerted Approach

Despite the lack of research on a systemic approach to managing behaviour (Evans, Harden, Thomas & Benefield, 2003) much of the literature suggests that a whole school approach is an effective manner of tackling indiscipline. It appears to be supportive for teachers, in that there is procedure that is known and followed. *“spent time with Mrs McLauchlan (SLA) in resources room”; “Miss C took class for a couple of minutes-Lee not in lines”; He reappeared with Mrs Gardner, school helper..”*

These statements illustrate that members of staff in the school are aware of their role in supporting both the teacher and Lee. It is possible that this concerted approach came about because of Lee’s violent behaviour and tendency to run away. These behaviours have implications for health and safety. However, it does seem that the school has agreed and adopted strategies and perhaps policies “for the management of pupil care, welfare and discipline” (SEED, 2001b).

What evidence is there in this reflective diary of a capable teacher, supporting a troubled and immature youngster whose need are varied and not entirely met by the current national imperatives for schools?

Teacher Competencies Characteristics Evident in This Log

Is concerned about the quality of his /her teaching

Clear about lesson structure

Is well prepared

These competencies are clearly evidenced in the reflective log. *“First lesson to reinforce and continue talking about houses and homes around the world”; “planned lesson for afternoon on animals’ houses and homes- began with fictional children’s story”*. Statements such as these indicate that this teacher has carefully planned aspects of delivery of the curriculum and is clear about their structure. The teacher related Lee’s needs to those of the class and considered the bigger picture when

planning. *“Lee can normally join in (circle time) for half allocated time...previous experiences left Lee frustrated if in “drama” too long...prefer he joins later rather than leave early. Beneficial for class too”*. The holistic approach taken by the teacher in considering both her delivery and its effect on Lee and the other pupils in the class, is an indication of a concern she feels about the merits of her teaching.

Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate differentiated programmes of work, IEPs, etc.

Personalises the learning process

Responds positively to pupil differences

The diary contains information that illustrates this teacher’s efforts to respond to Lee’s needs, while at the same time ensuring that appropriate learning was taking place. She took a very proactive approach: *“Settling Lee to task quickly on entering class helped him to stay focussed”* which demonstrates that she was responding to both pupil difference and also making the learning process personal and relevant for Lee. *“Role played café/restaurant...good discussion and use of language”*. This statement underlines her awareness of Lee’s individual needs. It also shows an understanding of the genuine issues of fitting the system to the child rather than making the child fit the system.

Works well with others

As mentioned above, the diary entries indicate an involvement of other members of staff in supporting both the teacher and the pupil. While it is likely that this agreement would have been arranged with the consent of the head teacher, relationships such as these need to be negotiated and nurtured. There are a number of members of staff mentioned, from janitor to the head teacher himself. There is nothing in the diary to indicate that these people were ever in anyway unsupportive, and this suggests that relationships were positive. The support system as described moves into place very easily, suggesting that everyone is clear about his or her role.

Teacher Performance Characteristics Evident in This Log

Draws on pupil’s strengths

The diary entries indicate that this teacher was aware of Lee’s strengths and took careful consideration of them when planning her teaching approaches: *“Lee enjoys*

television. Video of Easter story reinforced learning / RE lesson today"; *"Lee likes to make things and especially presents for people"*. This is a very positive approach to take as it makes it more likely that Lee will achieve success in tasks: *"Story book good way of delivering lesson and keeping all children interested...Lee responded well"*. This in itself may provide opportunities for intrinsic motivation for Lee and extrinsic motivation in the form of a reward.

Helps students learn independently

This teacher appears to be helping Lee to learn independently by allowing him some autonomy over his learning. This is done through the medium of choosing, and the teacher explicitly records the interactions and interchanges between Lee and his support for learning assistant (SLA). This independence of learning relates to the formal aspects of education. However there is evidence that the teacher is endeavouring to instil some autonomy in Lee's social learning too. She created opportunities for him to make "good" choices and to take responsibility for his actions: *"(Lee) finally chose to go to assembly"*; *"I told him that if he did not stop shouting he would have to leave...I say as he leaves that I gave him a choice and he chose to carry on..."*; *"Lee needs to be responsible for his actions and I ask him why he did it"*. What is not clear from the diary is whether Lee was explicitly taught about making choices and considering outcomes.

Uses praise appropriately

Literature (see for example, (SEED, 2001b; Swinson and Cording, 2002) suggests that appropriate praise can help to reinforce desired behaviours. The reflective log does not explicitly record many instances of praise, if the concept of praise is limited to approval expressed in words (Hawkins, 1986). However praise does not always need to be verbal; it can be more meaningful to the student in other forms, that is, praise as a reward — something given in return for what was done (Hawkins, 1986; SCCC, 1998). *"Announced that Lee was pupil of the week as he had been trying hard the week before"*; *"Completion of task led to a reward of a choosing time"*. The entries in the diary suggest that the teacher had made a judgment, based on her experience with Lee (and other children) about the most fitting response to appropriate behaviour. It appears that most of the time the praise, or reward was specific and credible: *"if he completed the task...he could go and watch the Easter play"*.

Teacher Personal Characteristics Evident in This Log

Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school

In any classroom pupils and teachers have rights and responsibilities (Porter, 2000). One of a teacher's responsibilities may be to model the behaviours expected by the school community. The teacher should embody the values about which students are learning. In that way, students have a chance to experience the ideals they are learning about in school (Rose, 2004). The diary illustrates the teacher's calm and non-confrontational approach, with requests being made rather than orders issued: "*after a few requests from myself*"; "*Try to avoid confrontations*"; "*I discussed with him why he had left and why I wanted him in class*". Further, the consistent approach, coupled with the competence of responding positively to Lee's "differences" will highlight to all pupils how much she values all those in her class. In this manner too, she is embodying values which she hopes pupils will adopt.

Creates and sustains a positive learning climate for all

There is evidence that this teacher endeavoured to create a positive learning climate for all, through careful planning and delivering of the curriculum. However, it could be argued that she was unable to sustain it because of Lee's difficulties. I would, however, suggest that each time the positive climate was breached, this teacher endeavoured to rebuild it: "*I can hear from the corridor his shouting...they had to restrain him...after 20 mins Lee returns...discuss why he chooses this type of house...Lee now calm and willing to work*".

Deals calmly with stress

The pupil who is the subject of the diary was finding it difficult both to cope with the mainstream classroom setting and the daily transition to it from a specialist unit. For this reason, incidents of inappropriate behaviour occurred very frequently. Despite this, the language used in the diary tends to be positive, with descriptions of a measured and consistent approach. "*Did not chase him, but went back down through kitchen*"; "*Lee runs up and hides behind curtain — we ignore him...and begin game*". However, there are two comments that imply that the teacher is feeling a little stressed at times: "*Now feeling frustrated as he continues to ignore my requests*"; "*Did not like*

my tone of voice". It has been argued that this self awareness is one of the most basic aspects emotional competence (Saarni, 1999), and as such illustrates that the teacher could identify both the feelings of anger, and frustration and ascribe these feelings to incidents that caused them. This teacher learned not to be reactive in situations where such an approach might be counterproductive.

Good at reading people's moods and understanding non-verbal cues

This is another area described as emotional competence and as discussed above, teachers can avoid responses which might exacerbate situations and behaviours. The teacher commented on Lee's moods in some situations: "*Showing signs of not being calm*". The comment preceded an action, which was usually proactive "*Explain that it won't be easy but that he has to try...sit with him while he draws*". "*He throws himself on my story chair and covers his face*" (comment); "*At his desk I have left sorting teddies, a craft activity*" (proactive action).

Has integrity

The teacher demonstrates integrity in her dealings with Lee and his relationships with others in the school community. Despite knowing that confrontation with Lee will provoke possible violence, there are times when she felt it was important that justice was done. One instance of this is recorded in the incident with A. "*Lee needs to be responsible for his actions and I ask him why he did it. He instantly tries to lash out and kick me*". Another example is the teacher trying to support Lee's socialisation with others in his class. "*Assembly this afternoon...Lee did not want to go...wanted him to take part — feel he isn't mixing with class as much as he could*". The teacher's insistence that Lee should be included in the class' activities provoked him into running away, but he redeemed himself later by calming down and conforming.

Knows pupils well

Lee "*always avoids getting a row — anxious and misbehaves*". The teacher can see past the behaviour to the cause and this is a direct result of her knowing the child well. "*Lee likes to make things and especially presents for people*". Although there are no direct mentions of the teacher's interactions relating to personal aspects of Lee's life, remarks like this recorded in the diary indicate that there had been conversations between Lee and the teacher which related to topics other than school work.

Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils

There are entries in the diary describing a range of learning activities which suggest that the teacher worked hard to motivate her pupils: “*began with children’s fictional story, a flap book to keep class interested...Showed fact book with lots of pictures...*”; “*read Spring story....draw daffodils in a cup....Lee and a small group made collage – nest, sheep chicks etc. ...*”. The planning of a range of activities, tailored to the diverse needs of the pupils suggests that this teacher was enthusiastic about the teaching process.

Exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for students

Some characteristics mentioned already are in themselves indicators of the positive regard concern and respect that this teacher had for her pupils. The fact that she avoided reacting in ways that might cause further upset to both Lee and other members of the class indicates her concern and regard. Her knowledge of Lee, and the detailed planning of work to support him in a trying situation also indicates the respect she had for him. The final few comments regarding the next term’s arrangements indicate a concern and regard for Lee and his struggle to remain in mainstream education.

Is there evidence in this reflective log that the teacher writing it is a capable teacher?

The evidence in this diary suggests that this teacher displayed a number of competencies and performance characteristics. She also displays a range of personal characteristics. This teacher would probably be considered competent by a range of people involved in education, and as with the other teachers who have reflected on their work in the diaries presented here, it is personal characteristics that score highly.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the data gathered from practitioners who had kept reflective diaries of their classroom interactions. It related the evidence to the characteristics which formed a model for capable teachers and which were discussed earlier in the thesis, in Chapters Nine, Ten and Eleven. However, there is a need for more commentary and discussion on the evidence, particularly as it relates to the personal qualities of teachers. The next chapter examines the data in more depth and relates the

emerging ideas to the wider issues that have been raised in the course of the investigation.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

COMMENTARY AND DISCUSSION

The reflective diaries, each of which was discussed in detail in the preceding chapter, reveal evidence of teachers using affective qualities in their interactions with students whose behaviours were considered inappropriate in school. These affective qualities, described as qualities of capability in this study, were those rated most highly by experienced practitioners, their head teachers and pupils (see Chapters Ten and Eleven). The diaries show evidence of competence and performance characteristics as well as those qualities categorised as effectiveness. The former characteristics, also as discussed earlier, are the characteristics most often used by government agencies in assessing how capable are teachers.

This chapter comments on and further discusses the concept of effectiveness, and how judgements on this concept are made. These are related to the purposes of education as perceived by the various stakeholders, the understanding of the concept of inclusion, styles of managing conduct and quality indicators. In this process it endeavours to relate perceptions of effectiveness in action to the wider issues discussed throughout this investigation. The chapter also looks closely at the concept of personal qualities of teachers, those characteristics grouped under the heading of effectiveness, qualities which may contribute to their personalities. It discusses the hypothesis that these characteristics are more important than official competence and performance characteristics in judging teachers who are capable of successfully supporting those children with conduct issues. Through the evidence gathered from the reflective diaries, the case is made that the competence and performance measures, determined largely by government and government agencies are based on ideologies which may have not been thought through clearly and which may indeed be mutually incompatible.

Perceptions of effectiveness

A Tale of Three Cultures

The first of the reflective diaries, "A tale of three cultures," described the situation of a young man whose educational needs were not adequately met either by his home environment or the current education system as he experienced it.

The government and other teachers would class this teacher as somewhat effective. There is clear evidence that the teacher makes a positive response to barriers to learning, recognising not only curricular barriers but those barriers arising from the home environment and the fact that education is not valued in that background. Curricular barriers are recognised and addressed. While being unable to change the home background, the teacher understands that education is not a priority in the life of this family. This appears to be a somewhat common familial response, and mirrors the attitudes of those groups of society for whom education was something to be endured rather than enjoyed; part of life but not real (SCRE, 2002). Although classified as performance characteristics, the commitment to social justice and equality, as well as the teacher's perception of his rôle in education, are enacted here in a manner that leaves us in no doubt that this teacher is caring and approachable and has established good relationships with home and pupil. So although this family might not have had much time for education as such, there seems to have been a personal rapport established, and thus the parent and pupil might consider this teacher effective. Government officials, both local and national, and other teachers may be surprised that this teacher has so few competence and performance characteristics reflected in the diary. There is no evidence of concern about quality of teaching, lesson structure and subject knowledge. There is absolutely no evidence of concern about test results, or competence in literacy or numeracy. What is reflected in the diary has less to do with the craft of teaching, rather it reflects a much more focused approach directed towards the individual student and his needs. This seems to echo the arguments made by Gerwitz (1997) concerning teachers who spend more time managing behaviour and taking on a guidance role. It may be that this teacher had a different view of what are the priorities for education for students like John, who display inappropriate conduct. It may be that for him academic success was not high on his list of priorities. If this was indeed the case, then the teacher's views are similar to those expressed by the groups which are marginalised by society (and to which John seems to belong)

(SCRE, 2002), namely that there is too much emphasis on academic standards. However, that same group sees education as worthwhile only if it leads to employment, and employers expect certain standards of literacy and numeracy. This view relates to commodious education, discussed in Chapter Three, where the knowledge and skills taught are influenced by market economy. Although, to some extent, this group valued the paper qualifications which enabled them to find work, they still felt that the academic success was what was valued in school, and that did not allow some of them the chance to “shine” (SEED, 2004).

The teacher who supported John was effective in managing to get him to attend school for half of the term. Perhaps that teacher agreed with Dewey’s and Rousseau’s view (mentioned in Chapter Two) that all children have a tendency toward learning and teachers need to recognise this and facilitate that learning. John had learned that formal education was not valued by his parent. The teacher was endeavouring to facilitate more formal learning, valued by those in positions of power, by encouraging John to attend school and by negotiating the curriculum. In this he was effective. Unfortunately, government would rate the situation, and therefore the teacher, as ineffective, by concentrating on the negative side, that is, the truancy, rather than the positive side, the attendance.

In Chapter Three the importance of the hidden curriculum was discussed. This is illustrated clearly in the diary. The teacher understands the importance of the messages communicated by the school and those involved in John’s education and support. This is exemplified in the remark made about the social worker who did not collect John and his dad in order that they could attend a meeting to discuss John’s progress and support. The message communicated here was one which makes it clear that some members of the community are more valued than others. The implicit message is one of exclusion rather than inclusion. Another example of the attention paid to the hidden curriculum by John’s teacher were the times when the teacher clearly realised that, because of a number of factors, John was not about to achieve success in some set task. Rather than risk damage to John’s self esteem, the teacher was flexible enough to respond in a manner that meant there would be no confrontation or failure. This is possibly because the system of which the teacher was part was loosely coupled (Weick, 1985), as mentioned in Chapter 6. Because John

was supported in a transition arrangement, it is possible that his teacher had different processes and actions in his facilitation of teaching and learning which neither the mainstream primary or the secondary school which he would ultimately attend implemented. However, the actions he could take, without influencing the system as a whole, meant that he was more effective in meeting John's often unpredictable needs. The approach taken by this teacher to include John and manage his behaviour is reminiscent of the eco-systemic approach, discussed in Chapter Six. The system is being evaluated and altered to respond to John's needs rather than forcing John to fit the system. In the past the forced fit has clearly failed, as John opted to truant.

When working with students whose behaviour is considered to be challenging to the school, it is often easier for teachers to compromise their integrity for a calm and quiet life (Elmore, Peterson & McCarthy, 1996). John's teacher felt that it was important to maintain his integrity, not only in the face of opposition from other professionals, but in respect of his views on John's best interests. He expressed his professional integrity by insisting that all of the issues, which were perhaps preventing John from accessing mainstream education, were considered. It is possible that some of these issues were ones with which other professionals might be uncomfortable. There is no indication in the diary of what these issues were. But from reading the account of the situation, it is possible to surmise that there might be issues of other teachers' attitudes being negative towards John. Students' perceptions of teacher interactions with them can affect those very interactions (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). The diary records that John refused to work with certain other teachers, and so it is possible that John's perceptions of some other teachers were not positive. Other issues might concern professionals who were not involved in education, but worked in other related areas. Other professionals involved in reviewing John's support did not carry through the agreed course of action. Clearly matters of this sort need to be addressed, but often teachers may feel they have no autonomy to question a particular course of action and will allow it to go unchallenged in the interests of professional harmony.

The affective qualities evident in this teacher's interactions with John confirm what most teachers who were considered to be experienced in supporting children with issues of conduct rated highly in terms of effectiveness. This teacher's practice seems to exemplify a positive relationship in action. The positive interactions between the

teacher and the student are personal actions which illustrate the values held by the teacher. The interaction indicates that the teacher feels that the student is worthwhile in his own right and deserves respect. The issue of teacher-pupil interactions will be discussed further in a later chapter.

A Cry From the Heart

The second of the reflective diaries, “A Cry From the Heart”, describes a situation where a group of male students have the power in the classroom. The title was initially chosen to reflect the cry of a teacher feeling powerless and unable to cope. However, after considering the evidence another possibility emerged. It could equally refer to the students, for whom the power struggle might be disguising feelings of inadequacy and low self esteem, provoked by an unsuitable curriculum. If this second scenario is the case, then it mirrors the actions of some sections of today’s society. There are members of society who feel marginalised by the general preoccupation with material goods, with success measured in terms of employment, and whose home environment is such that positive interactions are infrequent. These groups may easily form a community of their own and become socialised into the culture of that society. This is done through the example of role models, for example, peers or older youths or adults that younger members find attractive in some way. An example of this occurred in January, 2005 (<http://uk.news.yahoo.com/041220/344/f8wu8.html>), with media reports of a thirteen year old being prosecuted as the youngest ever driver to be convicted of driving while drunk. This young man had a string of convictions for stealing cars and other criminal offences. His actions could be seen as a method of gaining power in a society in which he felt alien. In Chapter Three it was suggested that one purpose of education in school is that the students would come to an understanding of society and their place in it. This purpose had been achieved in the case of the young offender, one might argue. His formal education had endeavoured to socialise him for a society in which he could see no place for himself. He had learned the lesson that he did not belong, and it was a powerful lesson. In contrast, his informal education had socialised him for a sub-section of society which held values and attitudes which were at odds with those held by the dominant society. In this case, it is possible that this young man’s full potential, which educators are expected to encourage, is counter to what is acceptable in the dominant society. Perhaps it is our education system, rather than the teacher, that is ineffective in meeting the needs of

these young males. It may be that the whole ideology of the fulfilment of individual potential (as perceived by those with power) is at odds with current realities of life for many in the 21st century. It was argued in Chapter Two that socialising education, for the community, may be concerned with the human dimension, where the dispositions to be encouraged might include trust, diligence, respect and acquisition of knowledge rather than merely information. There is evidence in the diary of the teacher being a rôle model for many of these dispositions, showing positive regard, concern and respect for her pupils, yet despite this, the pressure of the peer group, and possibly the home, seems more influential.

It was stated in Chapter Twelve that this teacher appeared to have no strategic plan for managing discipline in her class. It was argued that this may have been because there was no agreed whole-school behaviour policy. However, looking closely at the evidence in the diaries, it seems that the senior management use a limit setting approach. There is no evidence to suggest that the children are encouraged to think through problems and learn from their past misdemeanours. The evidence there is, limited though it may be, tends to suggest that the school views the problem of discipline as student centred. Another possibility which might affect the teacher's effectiveness is that she may prefer a less authoritarian approach. She displays respect to her pupils and there is evidence that she has a clear understanding of the sort of behavioural norms to which she expects all students to conform. She, therefore, might instinctively be more humanist in her approach and find it difficult to implement a more authoritarian regime. Opportunistic data gathered at a number of postgraduate behaviour courses indicates that many teachers' preferred management styles do not match the needs of those in the class. Many teachers underestimated the amount of adult regulation many of their pupils required, when their own preferred style was considered fairly *laissez faire*. Evidence of use of praise was noted in the diary, but it was also noted that the purpose of praise was not clearly understood and it was not directed at those seen to be the "trouble makers". The diary makes it clear that this teacher understood that the purpose of discipline was to maintain order in the classroom so that efficient learning could take place. Discipline was meeting the teacher's need for order primarily, not to meet the needs of those pupils whose behaviour caused concern.

There are few examples of characteristics of competence and performance in this diary. This need not necessarily mean that this teacher was ineffective, even by government standards. The situations and the students she is describing are ones which are less likely to evince comment on national test results, or on pupil attainment. It is highly likely that others in the class are achieving academic success, appropriate to their age and stage. Indeed there is implicit evidence that the others must have been achieving a satisfactory standard in work. If the targets set for the school by the local authority were not being met, it is more likely that the head teacher or member of senior management team would have stepped in and supported the teacher. However, the teacher herself is clearly concerned that she is failing all her pupils because of her struggle to keep order in the class.

The lack of support for this teacher reflects on the vision and leadership (or lack of them) within the school. In Chapter Seven, it was suggested that schools should devise policies and procedures which are underpinned by aims to which the school aspires, and in which all believe. Members of staff should accept the need for a consistent approach (Munn et al., 2000). This does not appear to be the case in the school in which the teacher who wrote this diary was based. From the evidence in the diary, it appears that the head teacher neither led the school towards a vision, nor acted as a change agent by encouraging the staff to create a practical vision which could be put into action (Senge, 1990; Frost & Durrant, 2003; SEED, 2003).

SEED (2000) included in its national priorities for education the support and development of teachers' skills. The teacher in "A Cry From the Heart" was undertaking postgraduate study in order to enhance her professional development. However, a school with a well thought out and articulated behaviour support policy and a positive ethos might well have taken steps to assist her in school. For example, the school could have had a behaviour co-ordinator who could help this teacher, and others, assess the learning environments provided for the students. A supportive peer working with teachers to address issues of classroom organisation such as seating arrangements, groupings of pupils, resource allocation and storage could help to identify areas which may cause problems which could exacerbate incidences of inappropriate behaviour. The whole staff could have agreed a few important rules which would be applied consistently school-wide. The display of class agreed rules

would enable the teacher to refer to these and use phrases like “we agreed...” which takes the heat out of many situations. The explicit teaching of expected behaviours makes it clear to pupils what teachers want them to do, rather than always telling them what not to do. Teachers sometimes make assumptions that children know the behaviours they are looking for when in some cases children are unaware of them. Issues such as these and many like them can be raised at whole school planned activities times, and practitioners can be encouraged to reflect on the “in-class” causes of the behaviours and ways of reducing these (Grieve & MacKay, 2004).

Further evidence regarding the ethos in this school is the inclusion of testimonials from other professionals working with the teacher, to corroborate her description of events. It is the case in some schools that teachers feel that they cannot admit to having problems, especially problems of discipline. Indiscipline can have profoundly negative effects on teachers. Teachers subjected to abuse or intimidation report a feeling of loss of dignity at work and feelings of humiliation or shame, isolation and depression (ASTI, 2005). A school environment conducive to learning and teaching (SEED, 2000) should include not only the physical environment but also the emotional environment. The evidence in the diary suggests that this teacher did feel isolated and depressed. These feelings may well have been exacerbated by the show of power that accompanied the support she was given, by having to send for, or send children to, senior management. There is also evidence in the diary that staff members in this position imposed their will on the students by shouting and threatening. These would have been powerful messages to the students that in order to gain attention, and power, it was necessary to be aggressive. This is in direct contrast to an approach where teachers model the calm, respectful, pro-social way of achieving results. The manner in which the teacher received support, that is, from calling on senior management may have made her relationship with the pupils more difficult. As discussed in Chapter Eight, pupils’ perceptions of their teacher, including their position in the hierarchy of the school can have a positive or negative effect on how capable a teacher can be in the classroom context. From experiences in the classroom, students infer that teachers will act in a particular manner, given certain situations (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). The students use this inference to act in particular ways. In the situation described in the diary, the school circumstances were influencing pupils’ perceptions negatively.

There are clearly a number of factors not relating directly to this teacher which have bearing on whether she should be judged effective or not. As Gerwitz (1997) suggests, teachers can be more successful in some schools than in others, depending on whether the values and attitudes of the staff and the school are in accord. The evidence in the reflective diary, describes a teacher endeavouring to establish positive interactions with students in unsupportive local and national settings, within a school which had a negative ethos, and an education system more concerned with commodious education, than encouraging life skills and life long learning. The curriculum and the educational priorities were such that some children were showing signs of a disaffection with school that might put at risk their engagement with it in their remaining time as primary pupils and, of course, in secondary school beyond.

Do as You Would be Done By

The third diary to be further discussed is the short “Do as You Would be Done By”. This short diary reflected on a primary six class and is written by a teacher who was aware of her responses to children and how these could affect the behaviour of the pupils. This is an interesting approach, as it corresponds with much of the work of Tartwijk, Brekelmans, Wubbels, Fisher and Fraser in the late 1990s although the teacher herself was interested in the work of Berne (1966). The youngsters in the class described appeared to have difficulty matching the teacher’s and school’s expectations of appropriate behaviour. Though not explicit in the evidence in the diary, this may be because the values of the home or local community were at odds with those of the school. Perhaps the school needed to establish a dialogue between the school and home (Vulliamy & Webb, 2003).

This teacher appears to be effective in encouraging the pupils in her class to think independently and solve problems in aspects of the curriculum probably best described as personal and social development. In this respect, it appears that she was giving her pupils more say in their education, as discussed in Chapter Eight. Further, this is an approach which parents might find positive. Parents value teachers who develop an atmosphere of mutual respect in their classrooms (Carole Millar Research, 2002), and by giving the pupils a voice, the teacher was modelling the attributes she hoped to encourage in her students. It appears that this teacher was involved in socialising education, encouraging responsibility and the ability to work

collaboratively. This approach influenced her behaviour management style. She tended towards the less authoritarian end of the continuum, described in Chapter Six, adopting methods of the Neo Adlerian and Humanist approaches. The teacher is devolving limited power to her students, and is interested in the students' views of events: "listened to child's viewpoint" (Chapter Eleven). A proactive response to inappropriate behaviour is sought by this teacher, rather than always responding to incidents after they have taken place. This is not always successful, but the teacher does reflect on her response and consider her part rather than always seeking to apportion blame elsewhere. This is in contrast to the evidence of the teacher discussed in the previous diary "A Cry Fom the Heart". The approach to maintaining discipline clearly reflects the teacher's personal characteristics. A less authoritarian approach, as evidenced in her practice, can only be successful if the teacher establishes good relationships with the pupils, and exhibits positive regard, concern and respect for all the pupils. This teacher was judged to be effective in these areas.

Aspects of practice that are open to change or improvement are highlighted by the willingness of this teacher to reflect on her responses, both cognitive and affective, to children's inappropriate behaviour. Her practice is also based on aspects of reading and research, as part of her continuing professional development. This might suggest that the ethos of the schools is such that the community is regarded as a learning community for staff and pupils alike. This is totally in line with government's five national priorities for education in Scotland (SEED, 2000). The government's vision included developing the skills of teachers and enhancing learning environments so that quality learning and teaching can take place. The skills and knowledge gained by the teacher, through reading current research, have enhanced her practice and also enhanced the children's educational experience by developing rapport between pupils, and pupils and teacher. The rapport established, and her confidence that she could manage inappropriate behaviour in a manner that meshed with her own values, enabled the teacher to recognise the need for enhanced self esteem on the part of the pupils. This recognition enabled her to use strategies to build this in a manner acceptable to the school community and society, unlike the situation in "A Cry from the Heart", discussed earlier. In that case, the need for enhanced self esteem was met by peer approval, and not the approval of the school community, and therefore the method of enhancement was considered inappropriate by those with power.

Persistence Pays

Despite being based on an individual pupil, rather than a class, this reflective log has many similar characteristics to those described immediately above. The evidence suggests a teacher who has confidence in her ability to manage what, at times, could be a daunting situation, in terms of difficult behaviour enacted by the target pupil. This diary has evidence of a whole school approach, which the others hinted at implicitly only. There is clearly efficient leadership, with a planned and consistent approach to supporting the teacher, as she endeavours to meet the needs of this pupil, and maintain some sort of balance between meeting the needs of one against the needs of the majority. The strategic plan for managing behaviour appears to be based on a mainly humanist approach, with elements of a systems approach incorporated. Both these approaches to behaviour management are less authoritarian than some of the others, and as mentioned earlier, rely on a relationship based on mutual respect. This is perhaps more difficult to achieve with a child who not only is chronologically immature but also has developmental delays in language. In practical terms, the respect is evidenced in the diary by the teacher's willingness to take every day afresh and not carry over troubles and problems from the previous day. She does, however, further reflect on each day's experience and endeavours better to use the lessons learned to alter her practice to meet Lee's needs.

In contrast to the other three diaries, this one has clear evidence that supports a number of competency characteristics concerned with the basic craft of teaching. Perhaps because the teacher felt confident in her multi-faceted role as teacher, supporter and manager, she felt more able to discuss, in a more rounded way, other aspects of her roles. Therefore, there is written evidence that the teacher was well organised, prepared and clear about her lessons. Where other diaries have little evidence of IEPs, differentiated work programmes, collaborative working (although many of these will have taken place) this diary has evidence of an approach which is truly inclusive, matching the system to the child rather than fitting the child to the system. The inclusive approach is demonstrated through enhanced professional actions underpinned by professional and personal values which often are not expressed verbally.

The diary illustrates the consistency of approach that this teacher uses to support Lee. Reading the diary, one is struck by the depths of patience that this teacher appears to have. There are many references to similar behaviours being repeated and the knowledge the teacher has gained from that repetition is used to try to take a proactive approach rather than constantly reacting to circumstances. There also appears to be a consistency of approach by all those involved, from the janitor to parent helpers. This has not happened by chance. For there to be consistency, there has had to be consensus. Achieving consensus involves discussion, negotiation and compromise; all time-consuming initially but paying off in the long term. The consistency is also related to each person knowing their rôle, and this reflects a positive school ethos with good collaborative team work, where each member is valued. This inclusive approach at the level of staff is applied to all areas of the school population and clearly informs the approach in the inclusion of a diverse group of students, of which Lee will be one. The inclusive approach, valuing all members of the school community would also help to promote the collaborative approach that underpinned the management of Lee and assisted the teacher in her actions on which can be judged her competence and performance. This is in direct contrast to the teacher in “A Cry from the Heart”, where the exclusive atmosphere contrived to act against her competence and performance.

It seems as if the teacher’s use of Lee’s strengths allows her to motivate him by encouraging success, and rewarding that success with tasks that he finds motivating in themselves. In this way, Lee may come to find learning intrinsically motivating. This approach is looking at education from the point of view of his individual potential, and trying to engage him in the curriculum. The teacher’s style of motivating Lee also contributed to his independence in learning by encouraging him to make choices. This skill, once learned, can be later built upon.

The competency and performance characteristics evidenced through the reflective diary ensure that this teacher would be considered capable by those with powerful voices in education. Those with less powerful voices, such as pupils and parents or carers might also consider this teacher to be capable. Teachers who model the attributes that they expect their pupils to show are those whom both pupils and their parents consider effective. This teacher does that, by staying calm, being consistent,

and non-confrontational. She also listens to her pupils and takes an interest in them personally. This characteristic is highly rated by pupils.

The reflective log kept by this teacher shows evidence of integrity in action, as does the diary “A Tale of Three Cultures”. It is the one personal quality which might provoke a confrontation or a negative response in the pupil, yet despite this teachers still feel it is important not to compromise. There are a number of meanings of integrity but in these situations, the meaning wholeness (Fowler, 2004) is apposite. It describes, in the writer’s opinion, a teacher who is well rounded in competence, performance and affective qualities and has a vision for students and their learning. By having an overview and a clear idea of the purpose of education, teachers like this one endeavour to enable and empower their students to be more likely to achieve a positive individual potential. By creating and sustaining a positive learning environment, it is possible that teachers will encourage learners to become learners for life, and they will certainly have more chance of establishing a positive relationship with pupils.

Personal Qualities

No printed word, nor spoken plea can teach young minds what they should be. Not all the books on all the shelves – but what the teachers are themselves. (widely cited on the net)

The purpose of gathering data in the form of reflective diaries was to discover whether teachers did in fact use the affective qualities most consistently rated as important by experienced teachers, their head teachers and pupils. The data demonstrates that even teachers who might be regarded as less capable of raising attainment and even in maintaining discipline in a class were consistently using affective characteristics in their dealing with pupils. Teaching is an interaction between practitioners and pupils. As discussed in Chapter One, it is the responsibility that the teacher feels towards the pupil that makes teaching different from passing on information. Responsibility is an affective quality, and is based, in this context, in valuing education and valuing people. Values are not always explicitly articulated by teachers, but in this case, perhaps actions speak louder than words. It is true that the sense of responsibility that teachers feel towards their charges would also influence

the characteristics relating to competence and performance. When actions in the classroom are analysed, these provide evidence of the teacher's professional and personal values. We communicate our values in our actions and behaviours. Some of the most recent documentation published by SEED and other government agencies is beginning to recognise that quality of relationships is an important factor to be considered when working with children whose behaviour is considered inappropriate. A recent report on teachers' perceptions of indiscipline reiterates the view, discussed in Chapter Two, and again in this chapter, that schools and teachers are in the business of promoting certain dispositions such as courtesy, kindness and respect for others (Munn, Johnstone & Sharp, 2004; SEED, 2004). Relationships combine both the affective with the cognitive domains yet none of the official rhetoric recognises the importance of the affect in teaching. "Staff use their skill and judgement, humour and authority not only to maintain control but to build respectful relationships with pupils" (SEED, 2004, p. 8). The writer believes, and the data from the diaries confirms, that teachers require far more affective qualities than humour to build successful relationships. The study carried out by Munn, Johnstone and Sharp (2004) indicated that some teachers believed there were factors in the environments in which their schools were situated that contributed to indiscipline. These findings are corroborated by other studies, but what is not reported in this study is whether teachers are absolving themselves of any responsibility for poor discipline. The report from Munn et al. makes depressing reading, reporting as it does that child deficit still creeps into teachers' thinking about behaviour. The data in the reflective logs suggests that teachers who are effective in supporting students with problem behaviours, whatever their cause, succeed because of their personal qualities which contribute to positive relationships and mutual respect and understanding. Where there are environmental difficulties, teachers' personal qualities such as those discussed earlier may be even more crucial. Children who come from emotionally impoverished or socially disadvantaged backgrounds may have lower self esteem and may be more likely to perceive negatively words and behaviours that others may consider unexceptional (SEED, 2001b). Effective teachers are aware of this and understand that modelling virtues of honesty and hard work, for example, may encourage these attributes in their pupils (Fenstermacher, 1990).

The data from the diaries and from the questionnaires prompted me to return to the literature to look more closely at the idea of interactions between teachers and pupils. These interactions may in fact be the key to successfully supporting students who exhibit behaviour which challenges teachers and schools. Positive interactions, one result of positive values, may be the key to effective teaching

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

COMMUNICATING EFFECTIVE TEACHING?

Focusing on the teacher

Thirteen years ago, the year 1992 was declared in Europe to be the year of the teacher. This was the conclusion of ten years during which research had concentrated more on teachers than on other aspects of education. This focus on teachers has not changed. Indeed, in Scotland recently, the issues of teachers, their effectiveness and professionalism was increased with the publication of the report “A Teaching Profession for the 21st Century (McCrone, 2000). As discussed in this thesis from Chapter Six, the concept of effectiveness depends on the different perspectives of the many stakeholders in education. However, it seems possible that educators today hold a view of effective teaching that can be defined in terms of a plethora of procedural strategies, such as choice, organisation, and presentation of teaching materials; motivational strategies; and assessment. The data gathered and discussed in Chapters Twelve and Thirteen of this thesis suggest that teacher-pupil interactions, governed in large part by the teacher and influenced by their values and personal qualities have an important rôle to play in how effective are teachers at working with students who display challenging behaviours. Competence and performance are important considerations, but effective teaching can also be described in terms of teacher-student relationships. In that context, we must recognise that a teacher's interpersonal skills are crucial to creating and maintaining a positive working climate. Essentially, effective teachers have to be excellent communicators as well as fine craftworkers (Wubbels, Levy, & Brekelmans, 1997). Recognising that conviction, this is an appropriate time in this thesis to return to the literature and explore the notion of transactions and communication. Transactions (the interchange between pupils and teachers) may be seen as a radically different lens for viewing issues of conduct in the schools. As transactions, issues of conduct may be seen in terms of acts of communication, bringing conduct inside a different body of theory and rhetoric for its understanding.

Research into teaching carried out in the 1960s was based on three variables

- Centrality— the behaviours and characteristics of teachers, their teaching methods and styles and their personal qualities.
- Relevance — to do with relationships between all those involved in teaching and learning. This in part related to the norms of teachers, the community and society.
- Site — to do with age and stage, and curriculum.

(Gage, 1963).

Clearly, the central variables articulate very closely with those concepts referred to as relevant. Research at that time into teacher characteristics, as now, found it difficult to define and isolate distinctive and specific features of personality and how these related to effectiveness in the context of both pupil conduct and achievement (Getzels & Jackson, 1963). In the 1960s and 70s, questionnaires were devised to ascertain teacher's attitudes, and these appeared to be a better indication of effectiveness than previous attempts to research personalities. Teachers who were considered to be more or less effective differed in the amount of empathy and caring that they demonstrated. Teachers who knew about children's abilities and aptitudes, home environment, emotional problems and attitudes were more effective in enhancing children's learning and social development (Ojemann & Wilkinson, 1939). This was reinforced by the work of Burrell (1951) which demonstrated that teachers who made an effort to meet a child's emotional needs enhanced that child's learning, and also the pupil's behaviour in class improved. Clearly, effective teachers must have a combination of competence and performance characteristics as well as an interpersonal style that promotes a positive affective classroom climate.

What is meant by an interpersonal style? An interpersonal style is a way in which people can behave. It is not a description of personality, although a behavioural description of personality is very similar (Gage, 1963), being the totality of a person's usual behaviours. However, interpersonal style need not be fixed and the only way in which a person, in this case a teacher, can act. This is because interactions can be influenced by partners in the communication. A teacher's interactive style may be influenced by the interpersonal styles of the participants in the interaction, and these are in turn influenced by personality, attitudes and environmental factors (Magnusson & Endler, 1977). English and English (1958) described social interaction (which takes

place in all classrooms) as a relationship between two or more people. The relationship is such that the behaviour of either person is a stimulus to the behaviour of the other. Sears (1951) talked of a dyadic unit, a unit that describes the interactions of one or more people. A caveat was introduced by Cronbach and Meehl (1958) when he argued that much research on interactions dealt with how teachers treated pupils, without considering the main effects caused by the dyadic nature of the interaction. There was, in other words, a difficulty in the interpretation of the interactions if not all participants were taken into account. McIlwrath and Huitt (1995) describe a model of the interactions between teacher and pupil in classrooms, based on the work done by Good, Biddle & Brophy (1975), and on work by Cruickshank (1985) researching the teaching-learning process.

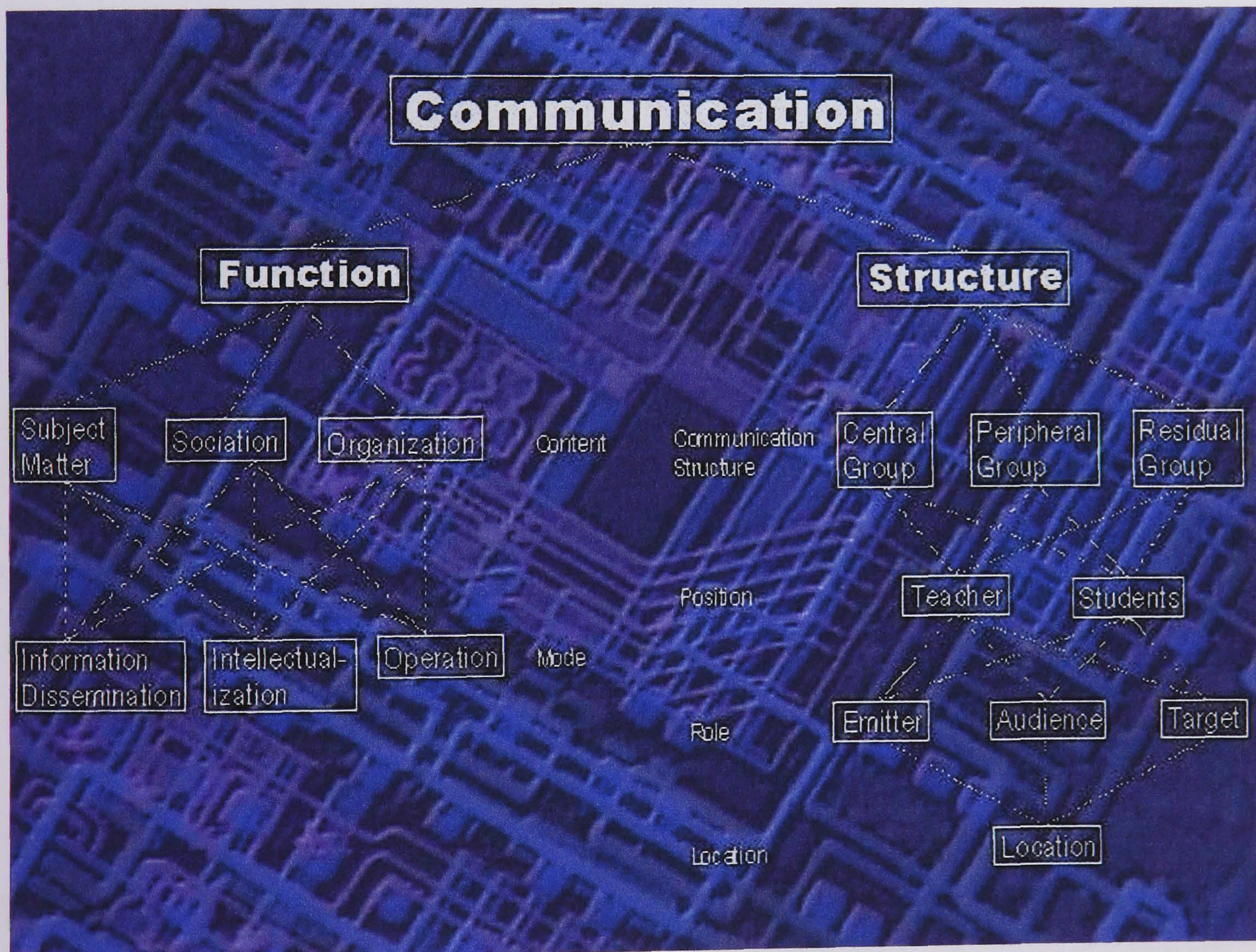


Figure 10 Transactional process in a classroom (McIlwrath & Huitt, 1995)

Clearly, classroom interaction is complex and needs to be defined properly. In Chapter Seven of this thesis, an interaction was defined as a “series of interpersonal messages exchanged between persons” (Tartwijk, Brekelmans, Wubbels, Fisher & Fraser, 1998). This is similar to MacKay’s (2000) definition of communication — a

sharing of ideas. It will be argued that interaction is the same thing as communication in the context of this study.

This thesis is concerned with the support of young people whose conduct is considered inappropriate or challenging by teachers and schools. As discussed in many of the previous chapters, educators at all levels can often suggest that inappropriate behaviour is a characteristic of individual students. It may be that the key to conduct lies in classroom interactions where teachers' communication needs to be considered. The next section of this chapter will summarise the key factors in a sound communicative relationship and will use these as criteria to form a framework to discuss classroom communication in more depth.

An Interactions Framework

Interactions, or communication can be regarded as a system (Watzlawick, Bavelas, & Jackson, 1967; Banathy, 1992; MacKay et al., 1996). Implicit in a system is a process over time and a set of objects with relationships between them (Lennard & Bernstein, 1960). In the context of a system of communication, the objects are people communicating with other people. We may consider the system of communication in terms of its function, its structure, its process and finally the interaction of the system and its environment. This is summarised in Table 21 below.

Table 21 Understanding communication as a system (Adapted from MacKay & Anderson, 2000)

Aspect of System	Meaning
Function	What communication is meant to achieve
Structure	The means by which the communication is achieved
Process	The sequence of the act of communication
System-environment interaction	How the art of communication takes account of its surroundings and how it influences them

This approach relates well to the earlier thinking of Créton, Wubbels and Hoomayers (1992) who argued that for healthy relationships in the classroom, the following criteria require to be met

- Consistent messages should be sent and received
- Communication patterns should be flexible and changed if necessary
- There should be an awareness of the “punctuation” of communication
- There should be an understanding of how communication is perceived by the partners in the interaction
- An ability for the style of communication to be altered, using metacommunication.

The communication framework in Table 21 can be combined with the relationship criteria to form the table below, which gives an interesting structure for discussion in the following sections of the chapter.

Table 22 Communication as a healthy system of interactions (from Créton, Wubbels, & Hooymayers, in Wubbels & Levy (1993); MacKay & Anderson, 2000)

Aspect of System	Meaning	Criteria
Function	What communication is meant to achieve	“Sharing of ideas”
Structure	The means by which the communication is achieved	Consistent messages sent and received An understanding of how communication is perceived by the partners in the interaction
Process	The sequence of the act of communication	An awareness of the “punctuation” of communication
System-environment interaction	How the art of communication takes account of its surroundings and how it influences them	An ability for the style of communication to be altered, using metacommunication.

All the aspects of the system of communication described above are intertwined. Changes in one aspect will affect all the others. Communication processes not only comprise behaviours, but have influence on behaviour. Doyle (1983) suggested that the ways in which teachers behave in classrooms is shaped by teacher–student interactions, and also governed by trying to secure students’ cooperation. How a teacher communicates affects the communication of the students with the teacher, so communication could be seen to be a circular system. This circularity applies over the time span of communication, even if the communication lasts over a number of days, and even if there is a break in communication. An example of this is the context of the classroom, and related to issues of conduct, could be when a child is excluded from school and returns just as disaffected as when he left. The context for him sends the same message of not being valued, the work has not changed, the teachers’ attitudes may still be the same, and so on. In contrast, in Chapter Twelve of this thesis in the section entitled “Persistence Pays”, Lee returned to his mainstream class from the behaviour unit secure in the knowledge that his teacher would apparently be pleased to see him, and have some task that he enjoyed ready for him.

Another way of looking at this aspect of the system of communication is as a dance (MacKay, 2000). In a dance there are partners with whom we must connect. The dance steps form a pattern and the way one participant executes the dance steps affects the other’s execution.

The system of communication is affected by the response of the participants to change. Thinking about communication in a classroom context, it is easier to effect change in the teacher’s behaviour rather than trying to change all the students’ behaviour. However, many teachers value routines and rituals, and these very processes imply an element of resistance to change (Doyle, 1983).

The Function of Communication — Sharing Ideas

Communication is a process by which ideas are exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behaviour. The ideas which are to be shared can vary, but all communication is purposeful, and involves a generation and transmission of message concerning information, thoughts, ideas, or feelings by one person to one or more persons who receive, interpret, and respond according to the

intention of the message. Halliday categorised the messages of communication in young children. This is communication at a basic level but serves to highlight clearly the functions of interactions. MacKay (2000) extended this categorisation to include adult language.

Table 23 Functions of single-word utterances (See Halliday, 1975; MacKay, 1989, 2000)

Label	Purpose	In adult language ...
Instrumental	Satisfies speaker's needs	'I want ...'
Regulatory	Controls others	'Do this'
Inter-actional	Fosters relationships	'Hello'
Personal	Expresses own uniqueness	'Here's what I think'
Heuristic	Increases knowledge	'Tell me why ...'
Imaginative	Creates own world of make-believe	'Let's pretend ...'
Informative	Recounts experiences	'I've something to tell you'

Ninio and Snow (1996) classified communicative acts into 12 categories and 67 subsections, but also offered a second framework, which can be related to Halliday's and MacKay's arrangements.

Table 24 Speech interchange outline, Ninio & Snow, 1996

• Class	• Explanation
• Negotiations	• Directions to the listener, commitments by the speaker, declarations about a state of affairs
• Markings	• Communications to signal that an event has occurred
• Discussions	• Exchange of information in an established and sustained conversation
• Performances	• Carrying out verbal moves – rule-bound activities within an agreed and understood framework determined by the communicators and/or the social setting in which they live
• Metacommunication	• Demands for clarifications so that the hearer can understand the communication of the speaker (or writer) more clearly
• Uninterpretables	• The intent of the interchange is not clear

It is clear that the purposes of communication in children, at even a basic level, are exactly the same for adults. The purposes of communication apply to everyone, but it is easy to relate these to the profession of teaching where teachers spend much time explicitly engaging in all these functions every day as part of their job.

Returning to the idea that communication is a dance, the functions of communication could be thought of as the music to which the dance is shaped. The music provides the inspiration to engage in a dance.

The Structure of Communication — Consistent Messages

Austin (1962) suggested that communication could be understood by making a distinction between

- *Sending and receiving messages*
 - what is said
 - what is the intended meaning
- *How the communication is perceived by participants*

- the effect of the meaning on the hearer.

Sending and receiving messages

Communication is about what is transmitted and how the transmission takes place. These two aspects can be described as the report and the command aspects (Watzlawick, Beavin & Jackson, 1967; Wubbels & Levy, 1992). The information, the content or the instructions comprises the report aspect, whereas the command aspect is concerned with how to interpret the report element of the interaction, that is, it defines a relationship. The command aspect of communication often involves non verbal means (Wubbels & Levy, 1992), and may well be engaged in without full awareness of the initiator of the communication. Often the ideas we wish to share can be ambiguously communicated. In a classroom situation a teacher who points out a student's mistakes by saying "Oh, I see you have made a few mistakes here" can be sending the message "I want to help you to improve". The message taken from the same interaction could be "You are not bright enough to learn this". The relationship aspect of the communication can involve gesture, bearing, facial expression, prosody, pitch of utterance, articulation and the context itself. This list is not exhaustive. What is important, in terms of communication, and especially where it is concerning students whose conduct gives rise to concern, is that teachers are aware of the report and command aspects of their communication, so that the students receive the message that is intended. If a teacher sends mixed messages, that is, where the message is perceived differently at the levels of report and command, then students' conduct may be affected. Conflicting messages usually have a negative effect on the partner in the interaction (Créton, Wubbels, & Hooymayers, in Wubbels & Levy 1993). The conflicting messages are not in one direction only. Students can send equally mixed messages to teachers. Pupils who ask a lot of questions could be showing a great deal of interest in a subject, or could be diverting the teacher's attention from a less positive (from a student's perspective) aspect of classroom teaching.

In looking at issues of communication, in the context of conduct, it is important to look at the command aspect of the communication. It appears that there are times when communication takes place mainly on the command level (Créton, Wubbels & Hooymayers, in Wubbels & Levy 1993) This can be especially true in classrooms

where teachers and students employ strategies to avoid confrontation (Pollard, 1985), a point discussed in Chapter Six. Students may adopt ways of communicating at a report level which seems, on the surface, to relate to the subject of the interaction. However, the underlying command aspect may be conveying a completely different idea, which the teacher purposely ignores to avoid confrontation and to maintain a level of apparent harmony within the classroom. This is often the case in issues of defiance, where students are trying to resist authority or assert their own, as in “Teachers’ Tales, A Cry from the Heart” (Chapter Twelve of this thesis). Students’ verbal response can seem fairly appropriate but it can be said in a tone of voice or accompanied by a gesture or action that changes the whole communication. If the teacher ignores this command aspect of the interaction, and the student maintains the report aspect, then each is placing a stress on a different aspect of communication. This allows them to connect in a relatively peaceful way and therefore avoid confrontation. Teachers may have to learn to look at the command aspects of students’ communications, the non verbal behaviours rather than the report, or content aspect of communication to assess the meaning of pupils’ answers and interactions. This is particularly important in cases where there are relationship issues, such as behaviour considered inappropriate for classroom situations.

Teachers may start interactions assuming that their conversational partners, i.e. the pupils, are cooperating in the interaction. Teachers, by the very nature of their profession, spend much of their time involved in classroom interactions concerned with imparting information or questioning. Grice (1981) talks about four conventions which are involved in aspects of interactions. They are...

Quantity — the amount and sufficiency of information imparted

Quality — what is communicated is relevant

Relation — interaction based on a belief that it is true

Manner — unambiguous, brief and clear.

These conventions govern the report aspect of communication and help to achieve the informative, regulatory or personal function that teachers choose to communicate in interactions in the classroom.

Watzlawick et al. (1967) take the command and report aspects of human communication a step further and describe ways of communicating described as

digital and analogic. In communication, objects can be referred to by a name or can be denoted by a likeness. For example, in a written sentence “The dog chewed his bone” the nouns dog and bone could be represented by pictures. In spoken communication, the dog and bone could be pointed to. The two types of communication, one with one with a representation and one with a word correspond to analogic and digital communication. The actual word dog needs to have nothing dog-like about it, it is a semantic convention in English, and there is no correlation between the word and the thing it stands for. This aspect of communication seems to correspond with the report view. In analogic communication, on the other hand, there is a reference more easily understood. Analogic communication is almost all non-verbal communication and would include all the “relationships” aspect of gesture, bearing, voice inflection discussed earlier in the discussion on the command aspect, to which it corresponds.

Participants’ perceptions of communication

We tend to think of the report element being delivered with a range of gestures, and types of body language, but in the context of the classroom it is important to remember the way a message is received may well rely on the history of past interactions, and the environment in which it takes place. These factors are included in the command or analogic aspect of communication. Clearly human communication relies heavily on the digital, or report aspect. It is this aspect that has communicated human beings’ civilised accomplishments. However, there is a huge area of human experience, the area of relationships, which is better expressed by the analogic or command aspect of communication. If relationship is the main focus of interactions, digital communication is less suitable. Analogic, or non verbal communication accompanies speech with a wealth of other information, which can be perceived either positively or negatively by the partner in the interaction. This has important considerations when we consider interactions in the context of the primary school classroom, as children have often been credited with particular intuition regarding sincerity or insincerity of human attitudes. This may be because it is easier to deceive verbally, whereas body language is more difficult to disguise. Mehrabian (1981) suggests that

7% of the meaning of communication is interpreted from the words alone

38% of the communication is interpreted by the way the words are used

55% of the communication is interpreted from facial expression

The concept of communicating a hidden curriculum has been discussed elsewhere in this thesis (see, for example, Chapter 3) and this, too, is communicated by the command aspect of interactions. In Chapter Twelve of this thesis, in the teacher's tale entitled "Persistence Pays", the command aspect of the communications delivered with calm requests accompanied by appropriate tasks and rewards communicates that the teachers thinks highly of the child, and wants him to achieve success.

The structure of communication is represented by the steps in the dance. The steps give a shape to the dance and there is a pattern to them, which partners endeavour to follow. Often, partners are experts in performing together and their steps match exactly. However, sometimes participants in the dance forget the steps or the steps are performed out of sequence so that one partner loses their place. There are occasions when dancers haven't learned all the steps, so the dance will be hesitant and not fluid. This is the same in the dance of communication.

No matter how hard we try, it is impossible for us not to communicate, in respect of the relationship aspect, because it is present in all human interactions (Woolfolk and Brooks, 1983). Even when we don't use verbal communication, our body language speaks volumes. We "cannot *not* communicate" (Watzlawick et al, 1967, p.49), so sending messages at the command level is unavoidable. Where there is an attempt at not communicating, the sender is exchanging ideas with the recipient, which influences the recipient's response. Teachers who ignore pupils can be sending out the message that they are not interested in them, and so pupils may respond in a manner that will ensure that they gain the teacher's attention.

Processes of Communication — Complementary and Symmetrical Interactions

The type of interaction described above is a complementary communication, where the behaviours of the participants are different, that is in a more contrary fashion. Another example of this in the classroom context is where a teacher disciplines a student for behaving in an inappropriate manner. In this case, a student's communication influences the teacher's response, so the behaviours each are engaged in are contrary to the other. Interactions can also be symmetrical in nature, where the behaviour of one person is followed by behaviour of a similar nature from their

partner (Watzlawick et al., 1967). An example of this in the classroom could be where both teachers and students engage in cooperative, friendly, supportive behaviours.

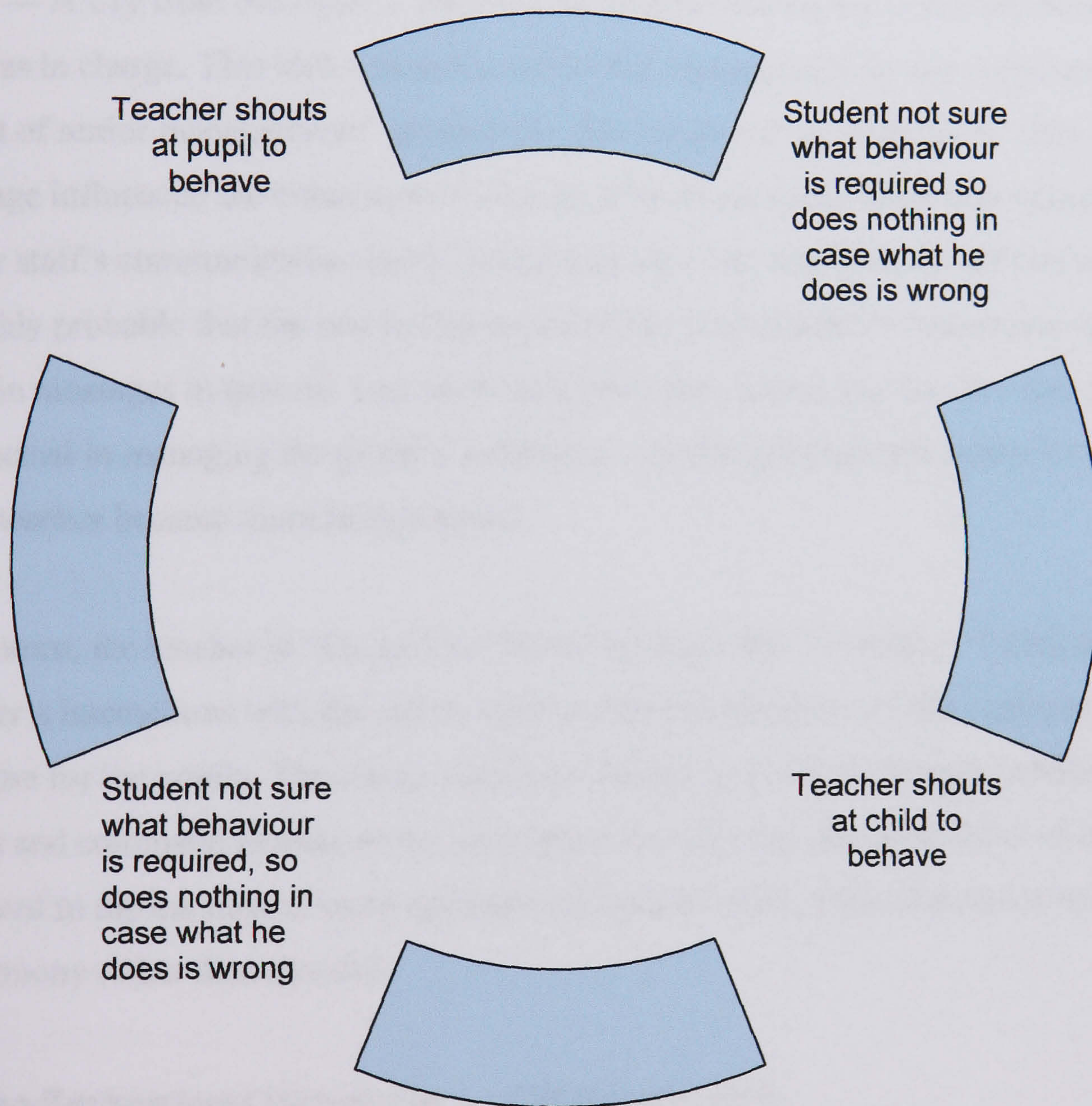
The preceding examples perhaps suggest that complementary interactions are negative, and symmetrical are positive. This is not the case. Either or both can be counterproductive in any relationship. It is true that in many classroom interactions there are more likely to be a greater number of complementary interactions. This has to do with the balance of power in schools. In many teaching and learning situations, teachers tend to be active and students tend to be passive. Teachers are communicating ideas regarding knowledge and skills and students are the receivers of those ideas. However, both complementary and symmetrical aspects of communication can lead to difficulties. If communication is symmetrical in nature in an interaction where there is anger and aggression, the situation may escalate further. A teacher's anger, for example, may be met with defiance from a pupil. On the other hand, the complementary aspect of communication, where a teacher dominates the interaction can lead to students becoming ever more submissive. Neither symmetrical nor complementary aspects of communication can be described as always positive or negative.

Processes of Communication — The Art of Punctuation

One particular aspect of interactions that needs to be considered when thinking about flexibility in communication styles is the idea of the punctuation of an interaction. To observers not involved in the interaction, it may appear that communication is an uninterrupted sequence of interaction. To participants in the interaction, however, there is a sequence to the events. A contribution in partner A's communication is followed by a contribution from partner B, which in turn is followed by a contribution from A. Because B's contribution follows a contribution from A, it could be considered a response to A's stimulus contribution. B's contribution could also be considered a reinforcer to A's behaviour because it follows on. Participants in interactions provide figurative full stops to delineate the beginnings and ends of interactions. They insert pauses in interactions and imagine similar punctuation in the messages of their partners. Because people interpret the punctuation of interactions in different ways, they ascribe cause and effect to different behaviours. In the example below (Figure 11) the writer illustrates how the teacher could punctuate the

interaction by saying that the child was shouted at because he was behaving badly by not engaging in the desired behaviour. Because he still did not respond appropriately the teacher had to reprimand him again. From the student's perspective, however, the teacher's behaviour was for no reason and to avoid being shouted at again, the student did nothing, in case what he did was misinterpreted.

Figure 11 The circle of communication



In classroom contexts, a teacher who acts in an authoritarian manner may act in this way because the students are considered to be inattentive and noisy. The students, on the other hand, may act that way because they consider the teacher's manner too harsh. This aspect of how communication is punctuated is an important one to consider where issues of conduct are problematic. Teachers and students usually do

not disagree over whether certain events occurred, but they do disagree about cause, effect and blame (Wubbels & Levy, 1992).

As mentioned earlier, interactions need not be limited to one sender and one receiver. Interactions can be between one partner and one or more partners. Sometimes the interactions of the other partners influence the way a message is perceived. A response from a teacher or a pupil can be confused by messages being communicated by others in the context. This was clearly illustrated in Chapter Twelve, “Teachers’ Tales — A Cry from the Heart”. The idea the teacher was trying to convey was that she was in charge. This idea was deflected by the message sent by the command aspect of senior managements’ interactions that the power lay with them. This second message influenced the behaviour of a group of children in the class who accepted the senior staff’s communication more clearly than the class teacher’s verbal messages. It is highly probable that the non verbal aspect of the class teacher’s interaction would contain messages in gesture, tone or bearing that were conveying the idea that she was ineffectual in managing the group’s behaviour . As a result their behaviour for the class teacher became more inappropriate.

In contrast, the teacher in “Do as You Would be Done By” (Teachers’ Tales) the teacher’s interactions with the whole class communicated power with a measure of freedom for the pupils. The whole class responded in a positive manner to both the report and command aspects of the interaction. In this case, the behaviours of all involved in the interaction were symmetrical and the ethos in the classroom was one of harmony rather than discord.

System-Environment Interaction — Altering the Style

As previously mentioned, whether interactions are successful depends on a context and the history attached to interactions of the past. In order to encourage successful communication, there needs to be a willingness on the part of the partners in the interaction to be flexible in their behaviour. If teachers realise that communication with certain students is causing problems, then they should be willing to engage their communication partners in discussion about why the communication is breaking down. This willingness to be flexible and discuss problems is known as metacommunication, that is, communication about communication (Watzlawick et al.,

1967; Wubbels & Levy, 1992). Ninio and Snow (1994) describe metacommunication as a function of language, with its purpose being a demand for clarification about the communication, so that the receiver can better understand the sender's intent.

Teachers need to feel confident enough to enter a discussion with students about the communication difficulty and how it might be overcome.

In the dance of communication, one participant can be less able or less confident in performing the routine on the dance floor. An understanding and empathic partner in the dance, as in communication, can adjust their rhythm, hold their partner closer and encourage them in an attempt to make them feel more confident in the execution of the dance. This empathic response in one partner will shape the response of the other, who will realise that they can dance, at least with this partner. The empathic response made by the first partner in the dance depends on their willingness or motivation to act in that manner. It is the same in the dance of human communication.

Leary (1957) cited by Gage (1963) believed that personality had a key role to play in communication. He suggested that humans communicate in a way that allows them to feel good about themselves and relieve feelings of anxiety. He developed a model which could illustrate all human behaviours. Wubbels et al. (1993) used a model based on Leary's to research teacher pupil interactions in classrooms. Teacher-pupil interactions occur in two time scales. The first is of short duration, lasting seconds or a few minutes. An example of this molecular behaviour (Wubbels et al., 1993) would be the explanation of a term, asking a student for an answer and similar communications. This short term behaviour will of course change depending on the participants and the context. Observations of these behaviours would be insufficient to describe accurately a teacher's interpersonal style. Rather data would need to be gathered over time and analysed to discern a pattern of repeated behaviours which could comprise a communication style.

The research subsequently conducted in the Netherlands, the United States and Australia resulted in profiles of styles of communication of effective teachers as perceived by both teachers and pupils. The profiles indicated the degree to which teachers were considered to be dominant or submissive, and how close or cooperative they were with those with whom they were communicating. The model used describes

eight different communication styles: leadership, helpful or friendly, understanding, encouraging student responsibility or freedom, uncertain, dissatisfied, admonishing and strict.

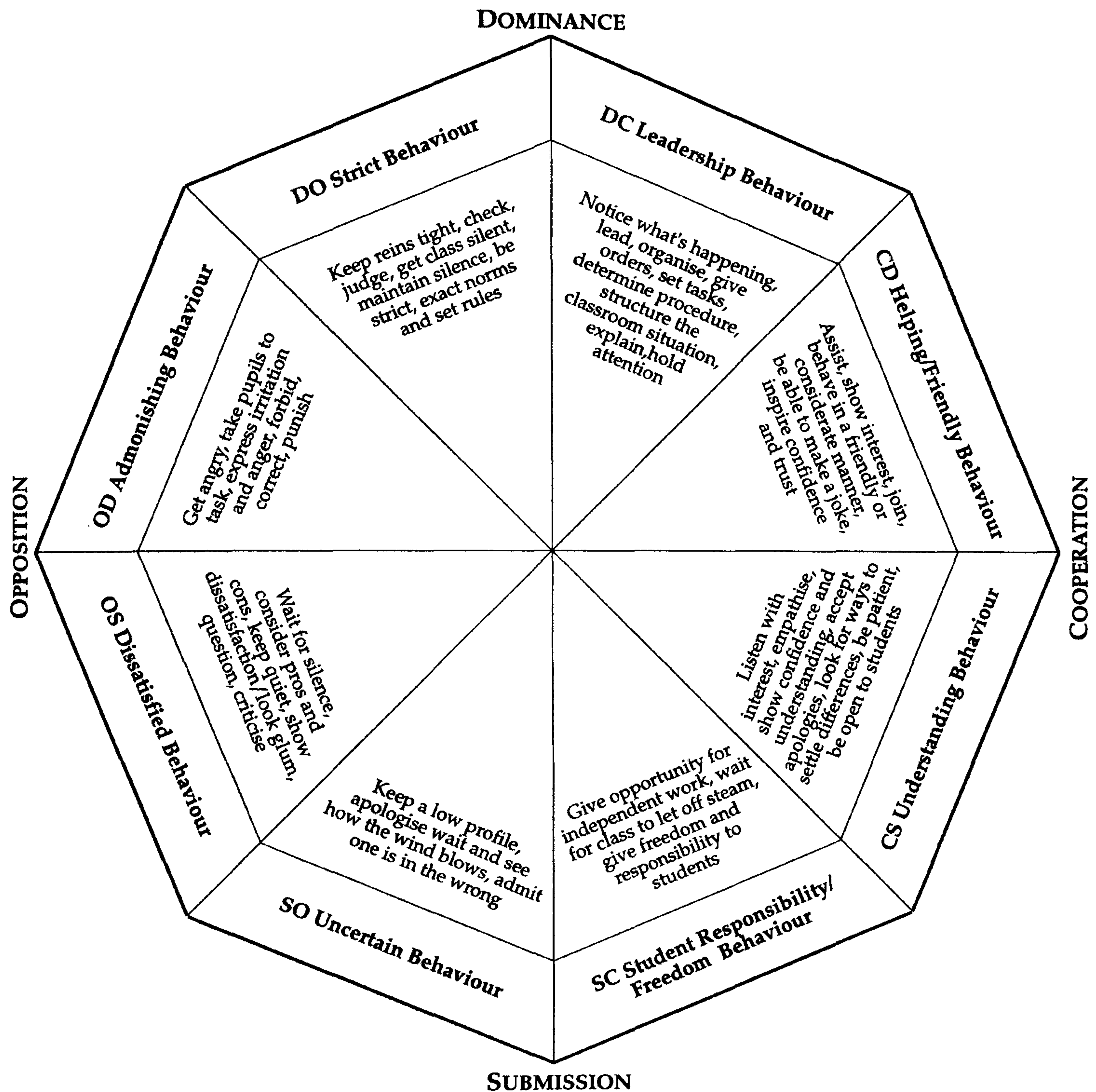


Figure 12 Model of Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour (Wubbels & Levy, 1993)

The results of the research showed that students' perceptions of good teachers highly rated those communicative styles that tended to emphasise leadership, friendliness, and understanding. Teachers who were rated highly also allowed students to have responsibility and freedom. Teachers' ratings of effective teachers matched the students' models. If teachers and pupils agree, as they did in the study carried out by Wubbels et al., and as they did in the data gathered for this thesis, why is there still so much low-level, disruptive behaviour reported in schools?

However, it appeared that teachers' and students' perceptions of individual teacher communication styles differed. There was a considerable mismatch between the way teachers perceived their communication style and the way their students perceived it. Interestingly, teachers who were more experienced thought they were more cooperative and dominant than did their students. This is an interesting consideration. In Chapter Nine, it was suggested that there was a need to consider capability as it related to teachers' career stage, that is, whether they were relatively inexperienced or highly experienced. It seems that in communication style at least, more experienced teachers may be unaware of the pragmatics of their interactions. The discrepancy between the perceptions of the more experienced teacher and the students of the classroom interaction may have a bearing on whether teachers are considered effective. The GTCS, for example, insist that teachers have a minimum of six years experience before they can apply to become chartered. This may suggest that government bodies seem to value experience in practitioners. Of course, the characteristics that sources such as government bodies are interested in are competence and performance rather than effective in terms of personal qualities. It is interesting from the point of view of the students, that experienced teachers are considered less effective than the ideal teacher and less effective in communication than they themselves think.

Sometimes the students' perceptions of their teacher's communication style could be more positive than the teacher's self-perception. It seems that students' perceptions of teachers' communication styles are not based on verbal communication, but far more on the analogic or command aspect as discussed earlier in this chapter. This indicates that the functional aspect of communication is managed competently but it may be the next stage, that is, getting the intended message heard and perceived in the same light as is intended, that may be problematic. If we assume that students understand the verbal language used, then educators may need to look at the pragmatics of human communication in order to solve issues of inappropriate conduct.

Perhaps it can be argued that communication through language or body movements is influenced by emotion, and that emotion and feeling are the core of what must be first received, analysed and then responded to. As Mey (1993) suggested, all pragmatic acts are heavily marked by their context. As was discussed earlier in this chapter, the

context includes all the aspects of the interaction — all the aspects discussed as contributing to the dance of communication. Work done by Goleman (1995) and others (see for example, Bodine & Crawford, 1999) on emotional intelligence may link the areas of the pragmatics of human communication with emotional competence. The next chapter seeks to investigate this possibility.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

INTELLIGENT ABOUT EMOTIONS

“He who has eyes to see and ears to hear becomes convinced that mortals can keep no secret...betrayal forces its way out every pore” (Freud, 1905).

Emotions play a large part in our social interactions so it is perhaps surprising that there has been little research carried out on teachers' emotions, how they may influence learning and may be influenced, in turn, by social and cultural factors. Despite the paucity of research in this particular area, there has been much written recently about emotional intelligence and emotional competency. In the 1980s, different ways of thinking about intelligence were being propounded that contrasted with theories of general intelligence and its measurement, major preoccupations of academic and applied psychology for the previous hundred years. One of these, described as emotional intelligence, became very popular in areas of business and education especially. Interestingly, this concept is being considered as one which should be used in schools to improve children's learning and behaviour (SEED, 2004). Much current educational policy and rhetoric is aimed at encouraging the development of emotional intelligence in children despite, as will be shown later, the research base being composed of samples of managers and salespeople from several industrial corporations, and graduate students from courses in management, engineering, and social work. The writer is concerned that the idea of emotional intelligence has been absorbed, not only by popular culture but by academic circles and by those who plan the school curriculum, without being validated by any scientific study.

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate the concepts of emotional intelligence and competence and relate these not to students' learning, but to teacher capability in supporting youngsters whose conduct appears problematic in school. It first

- considers the aspects of emotional intelligence
- seeks to define emotional competence

- compares the concept of emotional literacy with communication in general and pragmatics in particular.

In investigating these issues, consideration will be given to their relevance to teacher pupil interactions in classrooms.

Selling Emotional Intelligence

Gardner (1983) suggested that academic learning was a narrow construct of ability and sought to introduce the idea of “multiple intelligences”. This was not a particularly new idea; since the 1920s ideas regarding other components of intelligence had been put forward, with mention of such skills as the ability to understand others, and to behave and act judiciously in relation to others. Salovey and Meyer (1990) and Goleman (1995) developed these ideas further and called their concept emotional intelligence. The idea was grasped enthusiastically as a panacea for society’s ills. It seemed to have some scientific basis, as recent developments in brain imaging technologies meant that the brain’s circuitry could be mapped. This seemed to show a connection between the prefrontal cortex and a part of the limbic system called the amygdala. There have been suggestions that the amygdala receives the emotional message from our senses before the frontal lobes receive a cognitive message (see, for example, Baron-Cohen, 1995). Goleman (1995) used this theory to suggest that those who are more successful in all areas of their life are in control of their emotions and are less likely to be dominated by emotional impulses.

Emotional intelligence is the intelligent use of one’s emotions (Bodine & Crawford, 1999). It is about knowing one’s own emotions, recognising emotions in others, managing emotions and handling relationships (Salovey & Meyer, 1990). Goleman (1995) defined it in terms of being any desirable disposition that was not cognitive intelligence. However, more recently, emotional intelligence has become understood as a demonstration of competencies which comprise self awareness, self management, social awareness and social skills at appropriate times, ways and with sufficient frequency to be effective in any particular situation (Davies & Bryer, 2004), hence the term emotional competence. Saarni defined emotional competence as a number of distinct but interrelated component skills which include the appraisal of emotion, the expression of emotion and the understanding of emotion (Saarni, 1999; Saarni, cited by Bohnert, Crnic, & Lim, 2003). Goleman (1998) argued that our emotional

intelligence determines our potential for learning these competencies to a greater or lesser extent.

Towards a Model for Emotional Competencies

Goleman (1998) suggested that there were two distinct areas of competence in handling emotions. There was a personal competence, which included self awareness, self regulation and motivation, and a social competence, which comprised empathy and social skills such as influence, communication, and collaboration. Saarni (1999) identified eight skills of emotional competence, which were not categorised into social and personal groupings but which clearly related to these areas. These skills concerned appraisal, expression and understanding of emotions.

The bulleted list below combines the competencies in order to move towards a model that might be helpful in considering classroom contexts. It suggests a model of competencies for emotional intelligence, based on the work of Goleman (1998), Bodine & Crawford (1999) and Saarni (2001).

- Awareness of one's own emotional state
- Ability to control and accept one's own emotional experiences
- Cope with aversive or distressing emotions
- Ability to discern others' emotions
- Capacity for sympathetic involvement in others' emotional experiences
- Ability to recognise that the inner emotional state need not correspond to outer expressions, both in oneself and in others
- Awareness that relationships are largely defined by how emotions are communicated and by the reciprocity of emotions within the relationship

The way personal emotions are dealt with is central to social interactions, so clearly this is an issue which deserves consideration in the context of the classroom. Any discussion of teaching and learning should consider the emotions experienced by the participants in that process. This thesis is concerned with the support of children whose conduct challenges teachers; therefore, it seeks to look at the issue of emotional competence from the perspective of the teacher. This stance makes an effort to move away from what the writer perceives as yet another attempt by the literature to suggest that the problems of conduct lie solely with the child and is in contrast to the approach taken by Goleman (1998) who suggested that there has been a steady decline in children's emotional intelligence and that "schools are left as the one place where communities can turn to for correctives to children's deficiencies in emotional and social competence" (Goleman, 1995, p. 279). Rather, this discussion seeks to build on the systems approach to communication, described in Chapter Twelve, where teacher behaviour played an important role. If the focus is on teachers' emotional competence, it may identify areas which may impinge on the experience of many students.

The next section looks in particular at some of the constructs which, it may be argued, underpin emotional competence. These are based on the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) (Boyzatis & Goleman, 2002) which groups competencies into clusters. These are identified as self awareness, self management, social awareness and relationship management. Each of these constructs is examined in turn and related to classroom interactions.

Self Awareness

This construct is concerned with recognising personal emotions and their effects. People who can recognise their emotional state may alter the way they perceive events and actions and, in turn, may alter the responses that they make. Awareness of emotional state, it is argued (Bodine & Crawford, 1999), allows an individual to choose an appropriate response. This may be an important concept to consider when thinking of teachers and their responses to issues of conduct in their classrooms. Teachers may make an emotional response to behaviour that they consider to be inappropriate in school. This may be for a number of reasons. They may feel personally threatened by behaviour that is seriously disruptive, or simply drained by

the continual low level behaviours that appear to feature on an almost daily basis in many classrooms. It was discussed elsewhere in this thesis (see, for example, Chapters Nine & Eleven) how a teacher's response can either provoke a more troublesome reaction from a pupil or can defuse a situation. Perhaps teachers need to develop an awareness of how they are feeling and use that knowledge to understand the choices they can make in responding to a given situation.

Goleman (1998) took self awareness a stage further and suggested that knowing our strengths and weaknesses can be empowering. He construed this as self efficacy. We can develop a strong strength of self worth. These ideas seem to articulate with some of the issues discussed elsewhere. Chan (2003) suggested that if teachers felt capable then they were more successful in managing what could potentially be challenging situations. In "Teachers' Tales" (A Cry from the Heart) the teacher featured was made to feel overwhelmed by many situations in the context of her daily work. Her self esteem may have been lowered by these circumstances and thus developed a vicious circle of inappropriate behaviours from pupils and feelings of helplessness for the teacher. However, it could also be argued that many teachers have a number of strengths, and are self confident that their practice is worthwhile, well informed and appropriate. This feeling of self confidence and, indeed, professional confidence, may become eroded by initiatives imposed by school management or government, in which there have been little real consultation or which are not firmly based on valid research. It is not always easy, as earlier discussed, to change the culture of a school or a local authority. Teachers may have self confidence but may not have the autonomy or power to be change agents.

Self Management

An awareness of our feelings and emotions, so it is argued, allows us to manage them more appropriately. If teachers are aware of how their emotions affect their communication with students they may be able to make a more considered response, based on their knowledge of similar situations in the past. Managing impulsive feelings, staying calm and controlled in trying situations may allow teachers to communicate more clearly with their students. It may also encourage students to manage their emotions better as the teacher models the sorts of behaviour that students should engage in. Salovey and Meyer (1990) and Goleman (1998) further

argued that self awareness included having integrity, being conscientious, and being innovative.

Integrity

The writer would suggest that there is a need to discuss the issue of what is meant by integrity in the literature. Integrity could mean being prepared to stand by one's principles. It may mean taking decisions that could be unpopular, because there is an adherence to a moral code, held by that person (Webster's Revised Unabridged Dictionary, 1913). This was exemplified in "Teachers' Tales, A Tale of Three Cultures", where the teacher persisted in suggesting an approach to the interagency meeting with which others disagreed. The stance taken by the teacher seems to have been based on professional expertise and also an underpinning belief in equality of access to education for all students. There may be assumptions made in the literature on emotional intelligence that everyone subscribes to the same moral code. Clearly, for teachers, there may be difficulties in matching a stance, assumed as a professional requirement, and personal beliefs. This was clearly illustrated in the first round of data gathering for the thesis, discussed in Chapter Five, Realities of Inclusion, where some teachers agreed personally with the principle of inclusion but could not maintain that perspective in their professional lives. In contrast, it seems that others found the principle of inclusion in mainstream schools, assumed to be an appropriate moral stance by government, to be unpalatable. This may link to some suggestions made (see, for example, Stout, 2000) that if people concentrate on self and are concerned only with how they feel, this may prevent them from seeing a larger, common good.

Conscientiousness and Innovation

Goleman (1998) defines conscientiousness as the traits of punctuality, reliability, and responsibility. He himself points out that conscientiousness can stifle innovation. (It will be remembered that innovation was one of the outliers in the survey of 44 indicators of capability in Chapter Nine.) Most teachers would be happy to be described as conscientious but may feel that innovation has no real place in their teaching, because of constraints of curriculum, resources, time and policy, whether at school, local or government level. The writer would suggest that these attributes have very little to do with emotions and this point will be discussed in more detail in the section entitled "What is emotional intelligence?"

Social Awareness

The key element in social awareness is empathy (Goleman, 1988) which he defines as being able to read another's emotions. If empathy is well developed then it is possible that there is also an understanding of the factors which are colouring the other's feelings. The writer questions that the ability to read another's emotions, and have some understanding of the issues behind them, is enough to promote a positive interaction. For example, being able to see that another person is upset does not necessarily mean that the partner in the interaction will cease the interaction. In fact, in the example "Teachers' Tales, A Tale of Three Cultures", it is likely that the members of the interagency team recognised that the teacher was upset that decisions were being taken without full agreement of the team. It is possible that the interagency team understood the professional reasoning behind the emotion yet they went ahead despite that recognition. Goleman (1998) argued that in cases like this, the empathy between the partners in the interactions was not finely tuned. In terms of teachers working with children from diverse backgrounds, teachers may be aware that their pupils' own skills of empathy may not be well developed. It is also possible that teachers cannot truly be empathic with the experiences of some children, if empathy is construed as being able to imagine oneself in another's place and understand, from that perspective, others' feelings, desires, and ideas.

Relationship Management

The basis for any relationship is communication; it is in this area that emotional competence may ally itself closely with interactions as discussed in the previous chapter. Bodine and Crawford (1999) discussed four emotional competencies necessary for efficient handling of relationships. These were described as

- self disclosure
- assertiveness
- listening
- facilitating.

In Chapter Thirteen of this thesis there was discussion of communication as a healthy system of interactions (Créton, Wubbels & Hoomeyer, 1993; MacKay & Anderson, 2000). It seems that this articulates closely with the emotional competencies listed

above. The following table is my conceptual summary of the articulation between communication and emotional competence.

Table 25 Linking of emotional competence to concepts discussed earlier

Emotional Competence	Meaning	Communicative criteria	Aspect of System
Self disclosure	Telling the other person what you think, feel, need	Sharing ideas	A function of communication
Assertiveness	Standing up for opinions, ideas, beliefs, while respecting those of others	Sharing ideas	A function of communication
Listening	Hearing the other persons verbal and non verbal messages to determine real meaning	Consistent messages sent and received An awareness of the “punctuation” of communication	A structure of communication A process of communication
Facilitating	Enabling the other person to deliver a complete message and in turn delivering your message in a manner that is understood by others	An understanding of how communication is perceived by the partners in the interaction An ability for the style communication to be altered, using metacommunication	A structure of communication A system environment interaction

Goleman (1998) tended to see relationship management in terms of handling another’s emotion skilfully. This may be because the focus of much of his argument is based on corporate management and the commercial marketplace, where there is an emphasis on closing a deal to the satisfaction of the company. Saarni (2001) understood emotional competence in relationship management as a transactional phenomenon which encompasses many of the attributes discussed in this chapter thus far.

It appears, then, that many of the aspects of emotional competence have been recognised in work done on communication. However, before discussing this in detail, there are some aspects of emotional intelligence and competence that deserve further consideration.

What is Meant by Emotion?

Emotions used to be considered as almost entirely negative, in terms of affecting the efficient functioning of humans (Schaffer, 2004). Recently a wealth of literature has sought to persuade that emotions play an important part in relationships. Earlier in this chapter I suggested that some of the competencies mentioned by Goleman (1998), related to his category of self management, seemed to have little to do with emotion. These competencies included integrity, commitment, reliability and responsibility. These seem to be personal characteristics rather than emotions. Perhaps a person's honesty, reliability or conscientiousness at a given time may depend on their emotional state, though in the case of integrity this could be argued. Perhaps there is a need for a clear understanding of what the literature considers emotions to be. There may be a lack of clarity of common understanding because some concepts, such as emotion and mood appear to overlap (Morris, 1992). Much research has been done to try to distinguish these concepts (see, for example, Clark & Isen, 1982; Frijda, 1987; Schwarz & Clore, 1988; George & Brief, 1995, cited in Young, 1996). Emotions are thought to be specific and intense. They occur as a reaction to a particular event, whereas mood is diffuse and unfocused. Another viewpoint considered that emotions are caused by something more immediate in time than mood. If these constructs are considered, the competencies of self management as described by Goleman (1998) do not appear to relate to emotion, rather it seems more likely that they could be related to mood. As mentioned above, in the writer's opinion, the concept of integrity does not fit with the notion of either emotion or mood. It seems instead to belong to a category of a virtue or disposition (Stout, 2000). Integrity or honesty are ideals to govern human behaviour, and agreed by the public for individual and collective wellbeing (Mill, in Gray, 1991; Stout, 2000).

Emotional Intelligence — Pragmatics by Another Name?

The writer wishes now to consider the concept of emotional competence as another version of the pragmatics of communication. Table 25 is a display of how emotional

competencies seem to relate to the system of communication. While some aspects of emotional competence are too focused on a market economy approach, with research based on aspects of commercial success, and others have arguably very little to do with emotions, there are still other aspects which are underpinned by research over many years in the field of communication. In the writer's opinion this gives far more credence to many of the assertions made in popular literature (see, for example, Boyatzis, 1982; Goleman, 1998). By linking the slightly subjective and vague attributes of emotional intelligence with communicative criteria, there is a framework which teachers can use to reflect on their classroom interactions and consider how effective they are.

The final section of this chapter will look at each emotional competence and explore the links with the pragmatics of communication.

Self Disclosure

The emotional competence described as self disclosure perhaps suggests to teachers (and others) that they need to share details of their intimate feelings with their pupils and they might judge this as inappropriate. However when understood as the sharing of ideas and of saying in a calm, non judgemental way "I feel sad that you always run out of the room" teachers might be more prepared to reflect on the ways ideas are communicated to pupils. Linking emotional competence to communication allows teachers to consider fully the context of their interactions. The theory of emotional competence alone does not have an explanation for the situation where a teacher responds in one way to a student and is provoked to respond in a different manner to another who behaves in the same manner. Lazarus, cited by Sutton and Wheatley (2003) suggested that each individual emotion experienced involves making a judgement about personal harms and benefits that result from every interaction with every individual. If this is the case, then it goes some way towards explaining why a teacher might feel angry when confronted by a student swearing, and yet feel sad when the same swearing is done by another student. However, there is no discussion of how this emotional judgement is made. The writer suggests that it may relate to the analogic aspect of communication — the relationship aspects of gesture, bearing, voice inflection, on the part of the student. It relates to the way the message is received by the teacher, and that can explain the different responses. The teacher's

response is in turn perceived by the others involved in the classroom context, illustrated clearly in Chapter Thirteen in Figure 7, “Transactional process in a classroom”. The other students are the audience who perceive the difference in interactions between the teacher (emitter) and the two individual students. As discussed in Chapter Fourteen, communication is circular, even when there is a break in it, so students will remember the teacher’s inconsistent response in future a transaction.

Assertiveness

In much of the literature, assertiveness is seen as a positive emotional trait, which enables one person to make another person see things from their perspective. It is usually characterised as being a more emotionally intelligent form of aggression. Considered from the communication perspective, however, it is a function of communication. Dore (cited in MacKay & Anderson, 2000) used a classification system for pragmatics that included asserting. Assertiveness could also be related to what Ninio and Snow (1996) called negotiation. Negotiation, a function of speech interchange gives directions to the listener, makes a commitment by the speaker and makes a declaration regarding a situation.

Listening

There are two elements of communication in listening; a structure and a process. Emotional competence is about hearing verbal and nonverbal messages and a determination of real meaning. This articulates closely with the idea of sending consistent messages, considered a structure for a healthy communicative interaction. In Chapter Fourteen, *Communicating Effective Teaching*, there was discussion of the possibility of nonverbal communication sending a different message from the words used. This was linked to the command aspect of pragmatics which relied on aspects such as gesture, bearing, facial expression, prosody, pitch of utterance, articulation and the context itself. The writer would also suggest that hearing the message, even with all the nonverbal clues, is not enough. The punctuation of the exchange (as discussed in Chapter Fourteen) is an important element, and this does not appear to be considered in emotional competency literature.

Facilitating

It appears to the writer that the emotional competence of facilitating has two elements, the delivering of one's own message clearly, and the enabling of the other partner in the exchange to deliver their message. Again there are links with pragmatics. In order for one person, let us say in this case the teacher, to communicate clearly, there is a need for an understanding of how the partner will perceive it. This understanding will involve consideration of the command or analogic aspect of communication. Saarni (2001) considers issues of this nature in her discussion on communicating emotions. She identifies three dimensions which are possibly relevant to classroom interactions

- the status of the participants in the interactions
- the closeness of the relationship
- the context, whether public or private.

These elements are particularly relevant in classroom interactions, and in many ways, cannot be separated because each has influence on the other. In Chapter Six, *Managing Issues of Conduct*, there was some discussion about teachers' preferred styles of classroom management and interaction. There was a discussion of a continuum of approaches which range from authoritarian to laissez faire. The writer suggests that the management style of the teacher may have a bearing on how messages are received by students to the extent that some classrooms will be dominated by teacher led interaction, and less by pupils. Classrooms which have a democratic approach, where teachers are facilitators may afford wider opportunities for interactions between partners considered as equals. Each interpersonal style will have an emphasis on different communicative functions. For example, in a classroom with an authoritarian teacher, communication may be for informative, regulatory and heuristic purposes that are, respectively, to inform, to control and to increase knowledge of the pupils in the interactions. In a classroom where the teacher's style is more democratic, there may be less regulatory communication (although clearly there will still be some) and more interactional communication. More personal communication, such as, for example, "Here's what I think", may be used in an attempt to encourage pupils to feel able to express their opinions.

The teacher's interpersonal style, as well as professional judgement, may influence the approach to classroom management, and classroom ethos. It can be seen, then that

relationships in the communicative act will vary, but there is, as Saarni (2001) suggests, a need for their consideration. As McIlwraith and Huitt's (1995) transactional process indicates, (see Chapter Fourteen) the majority of classroom communication takes place in a public context. Teachers need to consider whether this is appropriate for all communication, with all of their students, all of the time.

An understanding of how communication will be received in the context of classrooms and teachers will also involve consideration of both the cognitive and communicative competency of the student. Consideration of the cognitive competency of the pupil partner in an interaction is part of the rôle of a competent teacher, discussed at length in Chapter Nine, where there would be an expectation of a differentiated approach in interactions in an attempt to respond to pupil differences and to make a positive response to barriers to learning. The communicative competency of students also needs careful consideration. Some students may have poor pragmatic abilities. Their cognitive understanding, their language, and social-emotional development may affect their interactions and teachers need to be alert to this possibility.

Summary

This chapter set out to examine the concept of emotional intelligence which has become popular as a means of improving aspects of children's cognitive and affective performance. It concentrated on the emotional competencies that might influence the way teachers interacted with their students, rather than trying to identify deficits in aspects of children's academic or behavioural accomplishments. It argued that there are some skills, described as emotional competencies of relationship, which relate very closely to communicative skills. Other competencies, concerned with recognising feelings caused by stressful situations such as inappropriate behavioural acts, are worth considering in terms of a variety of responses made by teachers in these situations.

It appears that interpersonal aspects of classroom interactions may play a considerable part in how effective teachers are in supporting children with behaviour that is seen to be inappropriate. Interactions, as defined earlier, are a "series of interpersonal messages exchanged between persons" (Tartwijk, Brekelmans, Wubbels, Fisher &

Fraser, 1998). Clearly, then, in classroom interactions, some consideration must be given to the pupils' parts in the interactions, but this is outwith the concern of this thesis, which seeks to relate issues of teacher effectiveness to their classroom interaction and discipline management. The combination of emotional awareness and relationship management as a healthy system of communicative interactions is challenging, yet it is one which confirms the views of experienced practitioners and their pupils when they identify the necessary traits of teachers who seek to manage inappropriate behaviour and support all pupils appropriately.

CHAPTER SIXTEEN

CONCLUSION

Introduction

This investigation began because the author had noticed that teachers and the general public believe that instances of inappropriate behaviours are increasing in schools (Munn, Johnstone & Sharp, 2004; Ross, 2005). That perceived increase exists in spite of initiatives and strategies which are designed to reduce or alleviate instances of misconduct in primary classrooms, and which are being implemented currently. The thesis set out to investigate why difficult behaviour continues to be in the headlines and everyday conversations of teachers and politicians. The study has covered a range of issues which relate to perceptions of behaviour which is considered inappropriate for the classrooms of standard primary schools. Four main themes were identified. The first three were (1) the purpose of education, seen from the perspectives of the government and the community, (2) inclusion as experienced by practitioners and (3) effectiveness as a concept applied to schools and teachers. The fourth and final theme concerned classroom interactions, and identified communication in general, and communicative pragmatics in particular, as areas of utmost importance.

A principal outcome of the thesis is that effectiveness as a concept applied to schools and teachers, and communicative pragmatics are related closely.. Therefore, this final chapter will begin with a section which makes a case for the radically different lens that the study has provided for understanding issues of conduct and effectiveness in terms of communication and relationships — themes three and four. That section will be followed by another which revisits the first and second themes, the purpose of education and the experience of inclusion, as they have been illuminated by the study. The thesis then comes to an end with some reflections and a finale.

A Radically Different Lens

Overview

The author argues that we need a radically different lens for viewing indiscipline in schools. Conduct is seen as an issue of communication, and the teacher's communication in the first instance: the communicating teacher is a capable teacher.

This lens avoids an apportioning of blame, but provides a framework for teachers to consider how classroom interactions may contribute to instances of inappropriate behaviour. No blame is ascribed to the teacher, despite teachers' communication being the focus of the study. Communication is a circular process. An understanding of the process and the manner in which communication can deliver mixed messages makes it evident that there are issues for both the sender and the receiver of the communication. Capable teachers understand and employ these characteristics of communication.

In addition, the thesis has argued for the importance of styles of communication that are described well as emotional competence. An awareness of how emotions can influence communication is useful when teachers are in situations where they are dealing with challenging behaviours. Awareness can help teachers to reflect on their communicative practice and make changes if appropriate. More excitingly, the area of emotional competence defined as relationship management was shown to articulate closely with pragmatics. This alliance with a body of theoretical knowledge that is already influential in other areas of educational support gives the concept of emotional competence much more credence in education than the model most popularly espoused by business.

The remainder of this section has two principal parts. The first of these concerns classroom interactions and the consideration these deserve when discussing behaviour considered inappropriate in classrooms. The second part concerns emotional competence and discusses its relevance to teachers' response to all their pupils, but in particular to those whose behaviour they find challenging. The section ends with a summary of the relationship between these two areas.

The Capable Teacher? Communication and Emotional Competence

Classroom Interactions

The thesis has often asserted and shown that interaction is fundamental to teaching. The interpersonal messages of both teachers and students form an interaction. The behaviours of both the teacher and the pupil become conjoined in this process, and each has an influence on the other (Tartwijk, Brekelmans, Wubbels, Fisher & Fraser, 1998; Kansanen, 2003). It was suggested in Chapters Eleven and Twelve that teachers

who had an abundance of effectiveness characteristics might be more successful in forming positive relationships with students for whom inappropriate conduct was an issue. Characteristics of effectiveness are related to interpersonal skills, and these may affect the tone of classroom interactions. Chapters Fourteen and Fifteen investigated two areas of interest related to teacher-pupil interaction: communication and emotional intelligence.

Skilled communication is important in classroom interactions because teachers have such an important role to play in providing learning experiences for all their pupils. If their communication is less than skilled, learning of all sorts may be impeded.

Chapter Fourteen outlined a number of purposes for communication, and suggested that teachers use all of these aspects every day. A teacher's communication serves to control others, to increase knowledge, to express a uniqueness, to recount experiences, and to create a world of make believe. A final purpose is to establish relationships. And for positive, motivational relationships to be fostered, teachers need to communicate interest and pleasure. Teachers who are interested in children, who respect and regard pupils in a positive light, reflect these aspects in their communication.

This thesis argues that the concept of communication is one that deserves serious consideration when discussing issues of pupil misconduct. It argues that teacher communication is the key which unlocks many of the difficulties in effecting positive change in classroom behaviours in all pupils, but especially those who may have difficulty in matching the establishment's accepted norm. The qualities described as teacher effectiveness or capability in this work influence the pragmatics of communication — the subtle messages that are communicated, nonverbally in many instances, from the teacher to the pupils.

It was argued that the complexities of this effectiveness can be understood conveniently by viewing communication both as a system and as a dance.

Communication is undoubtedly a system with

- a function — the sharing of ideas
- a structure — consistent messages, sent and received

- a process — complementary and symmetrical interactions, and how exchanges were punctuated by partners
- a system-environment interaction — being flexible in style of communication to facilitate better interaction.

Each area of the system contributes to a dance of communication which is inspired by the music of function, has a pattern of steps which structures the dance and in which the partners in the process of the dance complement and support each other. As with all dances, the dance of communication can go wrong if one partner fails to hear the music, steps out of time or gives up on a partner who is not as accomplished. The dance of communication in a classroom can go wrong when either pupils or teachers fail to follow the rules of the dance. However, it has been argued that the partners with most responsibility for progress in the dance are the teachers, who should have had more practice and be more skilled. They must often take the role of the lead partner, and their personal characteristics play a key part in how they themselves dance and partner others. Many dances are, in part, an expression of emotion, and dancers need to know how to best to convey it appropriately in varying circumstances.

Emotional Competence

The thesis also discussed emotional competence, a theory that has been adopted by popular culture as emotional intelligence, and is beginning to attract interest in academic circles. The writer was concerned that this concept, popular in management and sales, was being suggested as yet another way of working with children (SEED, 2004), who we are assured, are generally becoming more and more deficient in this area (Goleman, 1998). Instead, the thesis argued, first, that it is teachers who should appraise their emotional competence honestly. Second, the thesis maps the areas of emotional competence to the system of communication and in doing so anchors the concept in a corpus of knowledge and research which has history and credence.

Finally, the thesis argues that emotional competence is the same as the pragmatics of human communication. It therefore follows that teachers who are emotionally competent are good communicators. Good communication depends on good interpersonal skills and an understanding of the many levels at which we communicate. Effective communication with others in the classroom is a dance in which teachers understand and support pupils less able to dance to the music of the

school, and to encourage them to realise that they too can take part in the dance and dance well, if they are willing to try.

Summary on Capability and Communication

The links made between pragmatics theories and emotional intelligence give strength to theories of emotional competence. These theories may have been easy to dismiss because of their relationship to popular culture and the lack of a strong research base, especially in relation to education. The consideration of the pragmatics of communication, linked to emotional competence and with respect to inappropriate pupil behaviour, highlights some implications for future research questions. Thus, the rationale for further studies based on the radically different lens is that the rôle of pragmatics of communication should be highlighted in future research questions. For example, the focus of this thesis was the teachers' communication in particular but the writer recognises that the child is a partner in communication. There were assumptions made that the child was a capable communicator, albeit less well developed and skilled in the art. However, the writer believes that further study is merited in this area. Research questions need to address, in particular, the communicative competence of those pupils whose behaviour is seen as challenging.

A second area, soon to be investigated by the writer, concerns the specificity of the pragmatic communications which may effect positive change in inappropriate behaviour enacted by pupils. Research should investigate what particular aspects of pragmatics of communication influence most pupil behaviour.

The concept of inappropriate behaviour is a complex one, not least because of its subjective nature. Perhaps this subjectivity is as good a reason as any to locate the issue of difficult behaviour with the teachers as it is their burden (if that is how they choose to perceive it), and certainly their responsibility to address as a challenge. Communication may be the key to conduct, but there are access codes that need to be entered, before the lock springs open. These codes concern realistic and achievable aims for education, an understanding of inclusion in practice and a re-thinking of the concept of effectiveness when applied to schools and teachers.

Educational Purposes and Priorities: How They May Affect Behaviour

Introduction

This section summarises the discussions of the thesis into the purposes and priorities of education, and their importance and relevance when considering behaviour that is seen as inappropriate in mainstream primary schools. Discussion of purposes and priorities leads into discussion of another governmental concern, that for inclusive education. From these theoretical insights, the discussion returns naturally to matters of capability and effectiveness.

Purposes of Education

Those in positions of power in education and those who have authority require to consider the purpose they hope education will achieve. This is because aims of education determine the means to achieve those ends. Having clear, stated purposes of education means that their goal attainment can be evaluated. Chapter Three discussed a number of aims for education and how these ultimate aims affect the curriculum and its delivery. Three possible purposes for education were identified:

- education as acquisition of knowledge
- education for socialisation
- education for individual potential.

It was acknowledged that there are aspects of our education system which are treated as a business, with performance indicators and a system of accountability related mainly to measurable results. Measurable results in education include national test scores achieved by pupils. These measurable results are used as the basis of definitions of schools which are successful and teachers who are effective, as well as defining children in terms of academic ability. Not all knowledge can be measured in terms of academic success. This thesis invites discussion of knowledge as a tool for rational thought, a concept that often seems to be overlooked in much political rhetoric. The oversight is surprising, given the government's move towards a campaign to encourage lifelong learning. One purpose of a liberal education is to encourage the acquisition of tools which enable the pursuit of further learning. Perhaps it is not too cynical of the writer to suggest that the government's purpose behind encouraging lifelong learning has little to do with critical thinking, but is rather a way of selling the re-training (argued as different from education) necessary for the change in work patterns and employment opportunities as the country moves

from heavy industry to service industries. Interestingly, as discussed in Chapter Three, some Scots see critical thinking as something which is not to be encouraged in our youth.

Problems of an education system designed, in part, to encourage students to gain skills and knowledge that would enable them to take their place in society were also acknowledged. Socialising education was seen to rely on an “official” definition of society, with which not all would agree. Society in 21st century Britain is diverse in culture, and not all members of society conform to the social order envisaged by government and state schools. Culture need not refer to multiracial cultures, although consideration should be given to this aspect. Culture can also refer to a culture of poverty, unemployment, and one in which education is undervalued by some groups in society, especially those groups which are marginalised. If our system of education cannot be flexible enough to cope with the needs of pupils who come from such backgrounds, then it is possible that difficulties in managing inappropriate behaviours will continue. The manner in which our schools are organised encourages conformity, a throwback to the 19th century education acts of the late industrial revolution, and conformity is likely to be at odds with a knowledge based system which encourages youngsters to make rational choices. That context has an implication for discussing the whole concept of behaviour and misbehaviour. The writer argues that teachers may be the primary target of indiscipline, but it is possible that what is really happening is that the system itself is being challenged by youngsters.

Education for individual potential, on the other hand, was seen to be problematic in today’s climate of accountability. There was a feeling in Scotland that there was a great deal of focus on academic results, and that areas of talent which were not academic were overlooked. This might lead to youngsters becoming disaffected, as they could see that they were unable to achieve success in the areas most valued by the system.

The Scottish Executive Education Department has translated the purposes of education into five priorities for schooling. These currently cover the areas described below.

- Raising standards of attainment for all, especially in the areas of literacy and numeracy
- Supporting and developing teachers' skills and pupils' self discipline
- Promoting equality so that every pupil benefits from education
- Working with parents and carers in order that children learn self respect, to respect others and the duties and to learn responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy
- Enabling pupils to develop skills, attitudes, expectations, creativity and ambition so that they may prosper in a changing society (SEED, 2000)

These wide ranging aims of Scottish education, the thesis argues, create a tension for those trying to deliver an education designed to meet them. It even seems that some of the aims are mutually incompatible. For example, as evidenced in Chapter Five (Realities of Inclusion) the aim of equality and inclusion seemed to create difficulties for teachers who were being asked to meet high targets for raising standards of literacy and numeracy. Developing creativity and ambition in children is difficult to accomplish in a crowded curriculum and with children from those sections of society where people may feel marginalised by poverty and unemployment. Chapter Three outlined the views of representatives of these sections of society. They felt that education in school was something to be got through before getting on with life. This thesis argues that such aims as those above may be based on interpretations of an ideal, but are ill thought out in terms of the curriculum and the education system to achieve them. Not only that, but the aims are not seen as worthwhile by some sections of the public. Despite widespread discussion, no consensus was reached by the Scottish people regarding the value of education as it is perceived by those in government who represent them. The writer contends that this in itself may contribute to tensions surrounding issues of indiscipline. If education is not valued by large sections of the community, and in particular by those sections who have been in the past excluded by the education system, then schools and teachers may find their value systems challenged by pupils from those backgrounds. The values and purposes of any educational community are expressed in the curriculum. Teachers organise their teaching to deliver the curriculum and students are expected to learn, in order that the purpose of education is achieved. The reality of the classroom is that teaching may be taking place but learning does not automatically follow, or the learning that takes

place is not what was intended. If the curriculum is mismatched to the students, then disaffection may result. Although this disaffection tends, perhaps, to affect students in secondary schools to a greater extent, the seeds of disaffection may be sown in primary schools.

Inclusion — Rhetoric and Practice

Educators seem to have failed to define satisfactorily what they mean by inclusion in the context of mainstream school and students who have additional support needs, including needs that arise from social, emotional and behavioural difficulties. Educators at all levels from that of class teacher to director of education sometimes talk and behave as if inclusion is no more than the education of all children in their mainstream schools whenever possible, as required by the education act of 2000 (SEED, 2001a). Inclusion, I would argue, is far more about the quality of a child's experience; how a child develops their skills, participates in the life of the school and learns and interacts with children from a range of backgrounds. However, to many teachers, the maintenance of a child in their class whose behaviour they considered challenging was a step too far (see, for example, Chapter Five, Realities of Inclusion). The rights of the child were certainly considered, but often from the point of view of the rights of the majority which were seen as being negatively affected by the rights of the minority. The rhetoric of the "Count Us In" document was used by this study's participants as an argument against the inclusion of children whose behaviour, it was claimed, impeded the progress of some pupils and therefore curbed the "entitlement of all pupils to receive a high quality experience from the education system" (HMIE, 2002a). It is important for educators to have a clear understanding of what inclusion means. Inclusion suggests that a system is adapted to meet the needs of the child, rather than the child fitting in with the system. It was argued that inclusion may entail a restructuring of the cultures, policies and practices in education so that schools may respond to the diversity of their students. At present it may be that many youngsters are placed in an environment which may have little to do with life as they live it, and this may be worse than being "excluded" locationally.

In Chapter Four, there was some discussion about the common understanding (or lack of it) surrounding the whole area of what constitutes inappropriate behaviour. It is difficult to define with any precision what behaviours are inappropriate, because of

the variety of the contexts in which they occur. Each school, as well as each teacher, may have a different expectation of standards of appropriate behaviour. Some schools and teachers may agree to discourage swearing in the school, for example, but appreciate that this is the language of the culture outside the school and that when tensions are high, children may revert to using language of this kind. In other schools, language of this sort would be considered unacceptable in any circumstances. The culture of the school and the culture of the community may be at odds, and so behaviours seen as acceptable in one context may be seen as unacceptable in another.

It was found to be easier, perhaps, to define inappropriate behaviour when it was really severe and clearly unacceptable, for example bullying or violence. It was less easy to agree on the more frequent, and possibly less severe, though nonetheless difficult behaviours, such as defiance, shouting out, rudeness, swearing and so on. An analysis of data gathered in the first round of data gathering (Chapter Five), indicated that government, especially at a local level, needed to enter into dialogue with schools to clarify issues of definitions, issues of support and issues of professional development. It seemed that where children with behaviours that challenged were concerned, there were often conditions prevailing in classrooms which indicated that the child was expected to adapt to the curriculum and the classroom environment. Such an expectation was in contrast to approaches where the provision was adapted to meet the child's needs. It could have been caused by lack of knowledge on the part of the teachers, something that was clearly identified by a number of the respondents discussed in Chapter Five, who talked about "normal children", and being untrained to deal with disruptive pupils. However, despite real need for continuing professional development for some specific members of staff, this general attitude continues to place the blame for behaviour on the child or its environment, rather than teachers considering their part in the interactions that take place every day. Interestingly, it has been shown in research by Tartwijk, Breckelmans and Wubbels (1998) that when a student whose behaviour is seen as troublesome leaves a class, another student acts out in a similar manner before long. This phenomenon, they suggest, indicates that there may be something about the quality of classroom interaction between the teacher and the pupils that causes troublesome behaviour in students. In fact, they suggest that students' perceptions of teachers' interpersonal styles may be an

important factor in issues of classroom discipline. The third theme, effective schools and teachers, examines interpersonal styles in more detail.

Effective Schools and Effective, Capable Teachers

Effectiveness is a subjective concept. Both schools and teachers can be considered to be effective by stakeholders having one perspective, and ineffective by other stakeholders who have a different perspective. The matter of different perspectives was discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight. Effectiveness, or my term capability, in educational terms may be defined as effecting positive gain in knowledge and understanding (Peters, 1973). This thesis argues that a gain in knowledge and understanding need not simply refer to a narrow academic focus. However, that is not the view of many of those with power in education. It is difficult to measure how effective schools can be in bringing about change in many of the areas which have been identified as priorities in education, in Scotland. How, for example, may one measure positive change in attitudes or expectations of pupils in schools? How may an increase in self respect and respect for others be measured? Are the enhanced school environments, so conducive to learning and teaching, the same for all schools and all students? In Scotland, three areas are measured by key quality indicators, contained in “How Good is our School?” (HMIE, 2002a). These areas are

- how well the pupils are performing
- how well the school is managed
- how effective is the school.

Pupils’ performance is related to 5–14 standards and individual targets set for pupils. These targets are those that are set in the areas of maths and language in primary schools. In order to assess management and general school effectiveness further, some local authorities are developing quality assurance and improvement measures based on schemes such as Investors in People or Charter Mark (HMIE, 2002c). This whole approach is redolent of corporate practice in business and commerce, and reflects the government’s preoccupation with accountability in the short term. In the longer term, this approach may erode teachers’ confidence and job satisfaction. Some of the children taught have achievements and success which are either too small to be picked up by the indicators used or cannot be measured by indicators. Schools may be categorised as ineffective, when they may in fact have achieved a great deal for many

of their pupils. Lack of success with reference to official understanding of achievement may erode teachers' self confidence and feelings of worth.

Teachers themselves are judged as effective by government against quality indicators of a sort. Certain standards have to be achieved in order to become registered to teach and again to become chartered. The indicators of quality, however, do not always match the perceptions of effectiveness as seen from the point of view of pupils and parents. This thesis has argued for different dimensions of quality in teaching, which would encompass not only traits described as competencies and performance characteristics but also an elusive quality described as capability, which has a great deal to do with the personal characteristics of teachers. Competencies and performance traits seemed to concern the craft of teaching and the notion of pedagogy. These characteristics are clearly important for all teachers to possess, in order that they may fulfil their rôles in the instructional process of classroom teaching. However, a hypothesis of this thesis was that there were, perhaps, some characteristics which assumed a greater significance in teaching children for whom conduct was an issue. The characteristics defined as effectiveness, or capability, seemed to influence the quality of interaction with all students, but also, it is argued, had a bearing on the chances of success when working with children whose behaviour is described as challenging to schools. The sorts of qualities which pupils themselves defined as pertaining to "good" teachers were those which the writer has categorised as characteristics of effectiveness. Experienced teachers also identified these characteristics as being particularly relevant in working successfully with children whose behaviour was considered inappropriate. This was clearly shown by the evidence gathered from the second round of data gathering, discussed fully in Chapter Eleven. Further evidence in the reflective logs in Chapter Twelve (Teachers' Tales) confirmed that in the case of the volunteer teachers, at least, this was not simply rhetoric but was in fact manifested in their practice. Interaction is possibly the most important part of teaching. This thesis suggests that characteristics of capability are particularly important in establishing positive classroom relationships and in creating an ethos where teachers can feel confident in using their professional judgement regarding appropriate methods of classroom and behaviour management to maintain discipline at a level acceptable to all who are in the class. Moreover, positive relationships and positive classroom interactions may have a positive effect on

students' academic learning. Having personal characteristics which have been described as essential for effectiveness is, of course, only a part of the concept of an capable teacher, but it is one which seems to figure rarely in government appraisals of the quality of teachers. The data collected in this piece of work suggests that it may merit more consideration than it is currently given.

Summary on Purposes and Priorities

This section has summarised the theoretical insights gained from this study regarding a number of educational concepts. In particular there is a need for government to consider carefully how its vision for education could be practically enacted in the classroom. In addition, there should be careful deliberation on how the education system might change if it is to support the inclusion of the needs of a diverse range of pupils.

The author would argue that the concept of effectiveness requires to become less focused on academic results, and teacher competence and performance. Instead, serious consideration should be given to the interpersonal characteristics of teachers, described in this thesis as capability. These characteristics are seen to be important in establishing positive relationships in the classroom, particularly with those pupils whose conduct is considered challenging. Yet, these characteristics appeared to be validated ultimately in terms of scholastic achievement only, in all Scottish and UK policy statements examined in the course of the project.

Reflections

Rationale for Further Studies

The rationale for further studies based on the theoretical insights of the thesis is that there should be a wider focus of research questions concerning inappropriate behaviour. Research questions, if authentic, should address issues of a common understanding of the purposes of education and the concept of inclusion. They should also consider a range of characteristics which capable teachers possess and investigate how these effect positive changes in reducing instances of inappropriate behaviour. New questions may focus far less on individuals and take a far greater account of the systems in place in schools and classrooms. A focus on the system would consider the

school as an interdependent community and so research questions may not only be teacher oriented or only pupil oriented, but will consider all involved in interactions.

Practical Considerations

There are three practical issues which arise from this study. First, we need to look at the place of communication in initial teacher education. Much of teaching is interaction and this was defined as interpersonal messages exchanged or communicated. Interpersonal messages both result from and cause students' actions. If, as I suggest, communication is a key to overcoming indiscipline, and indiscipline is seen as an area of grave concern, then perhaps there is a need to look closely at developing undergraduates' communicative skills. It seems that interpersonal skills are attributes highly valued by experienced, capable teachers and also by pupils. Teacher educators should perhaps consider developing a framework within which they could address aspects of pragmatics and their importance to graduating teachers. This strategy could be an effective one in the long term, as if it is true that we cannot **not** communicate, teachers need to be aware of communication's importance in relationships.

The second practical issue is that there could be consideration of alternative ways in which government priorities for education can be achieved. Currently, much advice to teachers emphasises control of pupils, whose behaviour is seen as targeting the teacher. This study suggests considering a range of issues, which together, or independently, may be factors in causing disaffection and indiscipline in classrooms. If some of these are addressed, and at the same time, teachers are encouraged to reflect on their communication and make positive change where necessary, it is possible that some at least of the government's priorities might be achieved less painfully for teachers and pupils alike.

The third practical issue is that this study has had a considerable personal impact on the author's teaching. Courses I have delivered in the past have always steered clear of a prescriptive "tips for teachers" approach and concentrated on how teachers may respond to issues of inappropriate conduct in the context of school and classroom. This study has taken the whole issue of teacher response and embedded it within the area of pragmatics. It has provided a different lens through which to view behaviour.

It articulates with the common view that the locus of control of inappropriate behaviour is with the teacher, but from the perspective of the teacher having the major rôle to play in interactions which may, in part cause the behaviour.

Finale: Two Metaphors

The study ends with two metaphors that have been mentioned frequently in the course of it. The first is that both teachers' capability and issues of conduct are a system, as understood in Banathy's (1992) terms of function, system, process and systems-environment. The study can be seen as an examination of a system of inappropriate conduct. The function of the system concerned an attempt to explain why troublesome behaviours experienced in primary schools seemed to getting no less frequent. The structure of the system was concerned with the meaning and purpose of education in respect of the education system in Scotland. It also concerned inclusion and its impact on classroom practice. Further areas involved in the structure included the concept of effectiveness as applied to schools and teachers, and communication, allied to an awareness of the effects of emotion. The process in the system was the journey that the writer made through these areas, investigating and reflecting on each one in turn. The system-environment interaction of the system involved a return to the literature in a response to the findings and a refining of a conceptual framework in which to site indiscipline.

The thesis has also used the metaphor of a dance at various points. The writer suggests that study could also be likened to a dance known as the Dashing White Sergeant. It starts with a group of dancers first dancing in one direction then the other. This represents the group of children whose behaviour does not conform to the accepted norms of their establishments. The dancers then split into two groups and one partner in each set performs the same steps with a different partner each time, before intertwining with both partners, though still maintaining a lead role. This represents the complex interactions of the many factors that may contribute to indiscipline in schools and classrooms. Finally, each set of three partners link arms and move on, leaving the other set of three dancers behind with a shout of joy. This represents recognition of factors over which teachers have some power and influence and which can have a positive outcome in terms of issues of conduct. The dance of communication — the key to conduct?

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Appendix A

Instructions and questionnaire for first round of data gathering

Examples

Teacher response

Head teacher response

Ref: PH/FES

6th June 2002

Dear

Development of an Integrated Support System for Young People with Social, Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties (SEBD)

You will already have received information from ... in relation to the above research project.

The purpose of this letter is simply to introduce the research team to you and to provide some background information to set the research project in context.

The University of Strathclyde research team are as follows:

- Paul Hamill - Head of the Department of Educational Support & Guidance
- Brian Boyd - Reader in Education, Department of Language Education
- Ann Grieve - Lecturer, Department of Educational Support & Guidance

I have enclosed a copy of the research proposal and this should give you an overview of the issues we intend to focus upon and some insight into how we intend to proceed.

It is very important to us that this one year project is underpinned by a sense of partnership involving the authority, schools and the research team. Our overall aim is to identify aspects of good practice and areas for potential development.

It is obviously very important that the researchers fully understand the context and in particular how the authority's vision in relation to integrated support systems for young people (SEBD) is being implemented in Primary Schools.

In order to assist us in obtaining this overview we have devised a brief survey which is attached. I would be grateful if you would complete it and return it at your earliest convenience.

You will see that we have put your name and the name of your school on the front cover of the survey. This is simply to enable us to keep track of who has replied. **This survey will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will not be accessible to anyone other than the research team.**

Individual headteachers will remain anonymous and will not be identified. The research team intend to use this information to create a comprehensive overview of the views of Primary headteachers in _____ in relation to current support/provision for young people whose behaviour can be challenging.

We are looking in particular for evidence of effective practice and areas which might benefit from further developments.

It will not be possible unfortunately for the researchers to visit all Primary Schools in _____ We do however intend to identify a sample of schools and through negotiation with headteachers undertake a half day visit to these schools to further extend our understanding of practice and provision for young people (SEBD) in the Primary Sector.

I realise only too well how busy you are at present and hope the completion of this survey does not add too much extra work. We are as you will appreciate relying heavily on your goodwill and I sincerely hope you will take the time to provide this information. Ultimately we hope it will help develop more effective practice and provision within

If you would like to talk to me personally about any aspect of the research project or the survey you can contact me as follows:

Tel: 0141 950 3330 Fax: 0141 950 3129
Email: p.hamill@strath.ac.uk

I look forward to receiving your completed survey which we can send electronically if that is more helpful to you. Thank you sincerely for your support in this matter.

Yours sincerely

Paul Hamill
Head of Educational Support & Guidance
University of Strathclyde

We would be grateful if you would complete the questionnaire as fully as possible and seal in envelope to protect confidentially. A member of the research team will collect it during this visit to the school.

1. Council has in place an integrated support system for young people with behaviour problems (SEBD)

- (i) Are you aware of this? Yes/No (circle as appropriate)
- (ii) Could you say briefly what your understanding of this is?

(iii) Describe its impact (if any) in your classroom.

2. Council are keen to ensure that all, as far as possible, young people with SEBD are included in mainstream schools.

What are your views in relation to this policy?

3. _____ has established a Pre 5/Primary Link Team to support young people with SEBD in the primary school. Are you

(i) aware of this team? Yes/No (circle as appropriate)

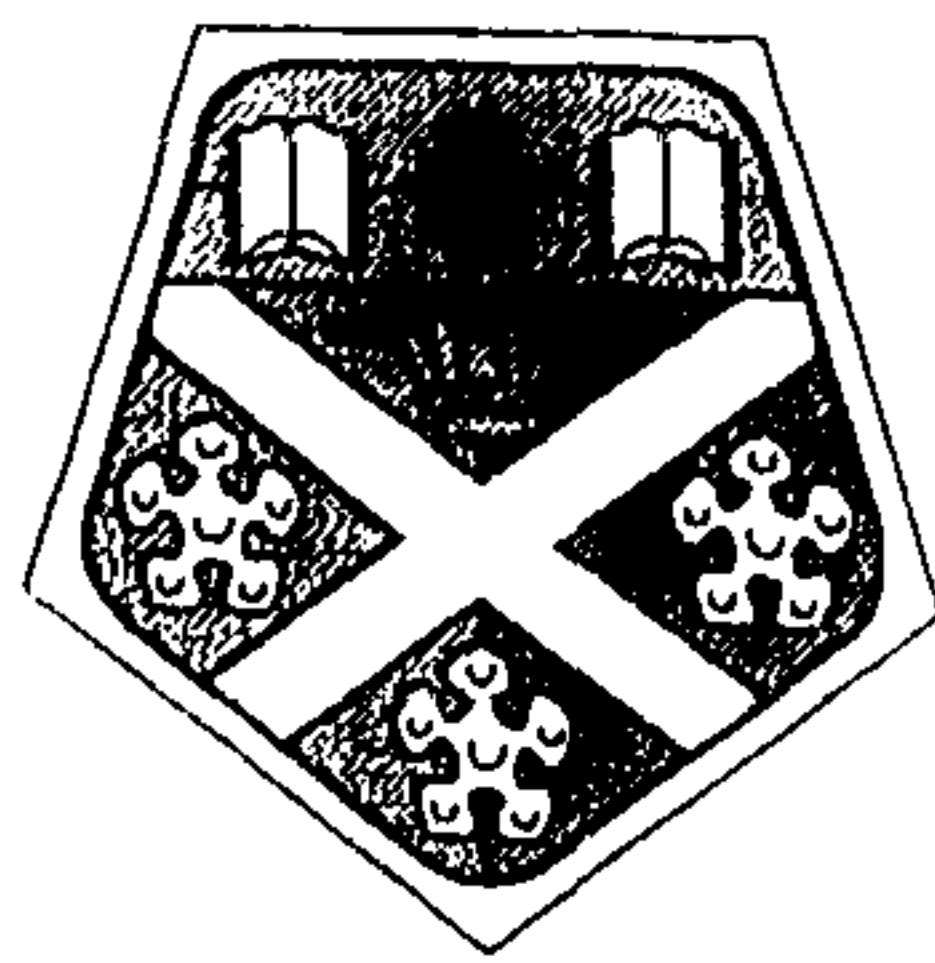
(ii) clear about their role and remit? (Please describe)

(iii) Currently using their services? Yes/No (circle as appropriate)

(iv) If Yes, please evaluate the effectiveness of the support

4. Have you requested support from this team and been unable to access it?
Yes/No (circle as appropriate)
If Yes, please give your opinions on why this might be.

5. You may feel some aspects of the inclusion of students with SEBD are not covered by this questionnaire. The research team is keen to ensure that all views are aired. Please feel free to make additional comment.



UNIVERSITY OF
STRATHCLYDE

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Jordanhill Campus

PH/MM

11 November 2002

Dear Teacher

Development of an Integrated Support System for Young People (SEBD) in

I am writing to you as director of the above named research project commissioned by [redacted] Council. This project focuses upon the support provided for young people whose behaviour can be challenging. It also addresses the key issue of including these young people in school.

The research team are from the University of Strathclyde and include myself, Dr Brian Boyd and Ann Grieve.

We are very keen to ensure that all teachers in [redacted] have an opportunity to express their views. We have already issued a questionnaire to the Secondary School teachers and the response has been very good indeed. We are now contacting all Primary School teachers requesting that they too complete a questionnaire. Consequently I have enclosed the following:

- a questionnaire
- a blank envelope.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please seal it in the envelope and return it to your headteacher. (This will ensure confidentiality)

Please be assured that no school or teacher will be identified. The researchers will treat all questionnaires with the strictest confidence. It is our intention to analyse all of these questionnaires and identify key themes/issues which are raised by number of teachers. Our final report will convey the views of teachers in [redacted] in relation to this important area of education.

Your headteacher has kindly agreed to collect all questionnaires in the sealed envelope and send them to us in a large stamped addressed envelope we have provided for this purpose.

I am very much aware of how hectic life can be for teachers. However, I would be very grateful if you could find the time to respond positively to this request.

I have asked your headteacher to return all completed questionnaires to me as soon as possible. I would really appreciate it if they could be returned before the Christmas holidays at the latest.

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete the questionnaire. Your support in this matter is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Paul Hamill
Head of Department of Educational Support & Guidance

THE PLACE OF USEFUL LEARNING

315



UNIVERSITY OF PEOPLE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL
SUPPORT AND GUIDANCE

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01896 3330
01896 3129

Paul Hamill, BA MEd DCE DipSpecEd
Head of Department



Development of an Integrated Support System for Young People (SEBD) in

We would be grateful if you would complete the questionnaire as fully as possible and seal in envelope to protect confidentiality.

1. _____ has in place an integrated support system for young people with behaviour problems (Social, Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties (SEBD))

- (i) Are you aware of this? Yes No (circle as appropriate)
(ii) Could you say briefly what your understanding of this is?

HOPEFULLY, ADDITIONAL STAFFING TO HELP YOUNGSTERS WITH PROBLEMS TO INTEGRATE IN A POSITIVE WAY INTO THE CLASSROOM.

- (iii) Describe its impact (if any) in your classroom.

A LEARNING SUPPORT TEACHER IS AVAILABLE.

2. _____ Council are keen to ensure that as far as possible, all young people with SEBD are included in mainstream schools.

What are your views in relation to this policy?

EXCLUSION IS A POOR ALTERNATIVE AND DOES NOTHING TO NURTURE A FEELING OF SELF-WORTH FOR THE CHILD. INCLUSION AND POSITIVE SUPPORT IS ESSENTIAL FOR TACKLING AND SORTING BEHAVIOURAL PROBLEMS.

3

Council has established a Pre5/Primary Link Team to support young people with SEBD in the primary school. Are you

- (i) aware of this team? **Yes/No** (circle as appropriate)
(ii) clear about their role and remit? (Please describe)

I AM UNCLEAR ABOUT THEIR ROLE,
BUT WOULD HOPE THAT FUNDING IS
PUT TO A HIGHLY PRACTICAL USE
WITHIN THE CLASSROOM.

- (iii) Currently using their services? **Yes/No** (circle as appropriate)
(iv) If Yes, please evaluate the effectiveness of the support

4

Have you requested support from this team and been unable to access it?

Yes/No (circle as appropriate)

If Yes, please give your opinions on why this might be.

5

You may feel some aspects of the inclusion of young people with SEBD are not covered by this questionnaire. The research team is keen to ensure that all views are aired. Please feel free to make additional comment.

STAFFING AND PRACTICAL RESOURCES SHOULD
TAKE PRIORITY OVER "THINK TANKS" AND
MORE PAPERWORK!

We know you are very busy, but your views on these important issues are of great interest to us and we would like to hear them.

All questionnaires will be treated with the strictest confidence.

2. [redacted] has established a Pre 5/Primary Link team to support young people (SEBD) in the Primary Sector. Are you:
- (i) aware of this team?
 - (ii) clear about their role/remit?
 - (iii) currently using their services?

Please respond below to Question 2

- (i) I have worked with staff from this team since its inception.
- (ii) [redacted] spoke to staff outlining the role of the service and how it operated to fulfil its remit. She provided staff with a very clear picture of the purpose of the service and the procedures involved in operating it.
- (iii) We are currently using this service to support several pupils.

3. If you have accessed the services of the Pre 5/Primary Link team please evaluate the quality of the service provided.

Please respond below to Question 3

The quality of the service at the chalk face depends very much on the member of staff working within each school. Staff changes, for a variety of reasons, make it difficult to maintain continuity for the pupil/pupils and these are the very children who require that continuity. The need to train newly appointed staff often means that the support is withdrawn from the school for the training period which adversely affects the pupil and the perception of the service as responsive.

The annual audit ensures equality of provision although increasing demands on the service mean that either it will have to expand or dilute the level of support it currently offers to school. Some of the paperwork can be repetitive as you are often applying for support for a pupil from a variety of personnel under the heading of Special Needs.

As mentioned before, staff can feel that the process of observation, evaluation and identification of a specific pupil's needs can be a lengthy process and when faced with a pupil who is proving very disruptive this can be downheartening. However, staff do appreciate the need for such procedures and the support that is usually forthcoming.

When in place the support can be very effective although for the most disruptive and disturbed pupils the burden on the class teacher over the week can be considerable and the limited support appear inappropriate to the needs of the child.

In a small school with a limited management structure, full liaison can be difficult to deliver and this can lead to misunderstandings.

5. ... s a policy aimed at reducing exclusions from school. Have you any comments you would like to make in relation to this policy?

Please respond below to Question 5

Like most head teachers and teaching staff, we fully appreciate that the best place for a pupil to receive an appropriate education is within an inclusive setting and endeavour to ensure that this can happen.

However, when considering pupils with severe SEBD who can be very disruptive not only within their own class but within the wider school setting, it can be extremely difficult to remain positive about this policy.

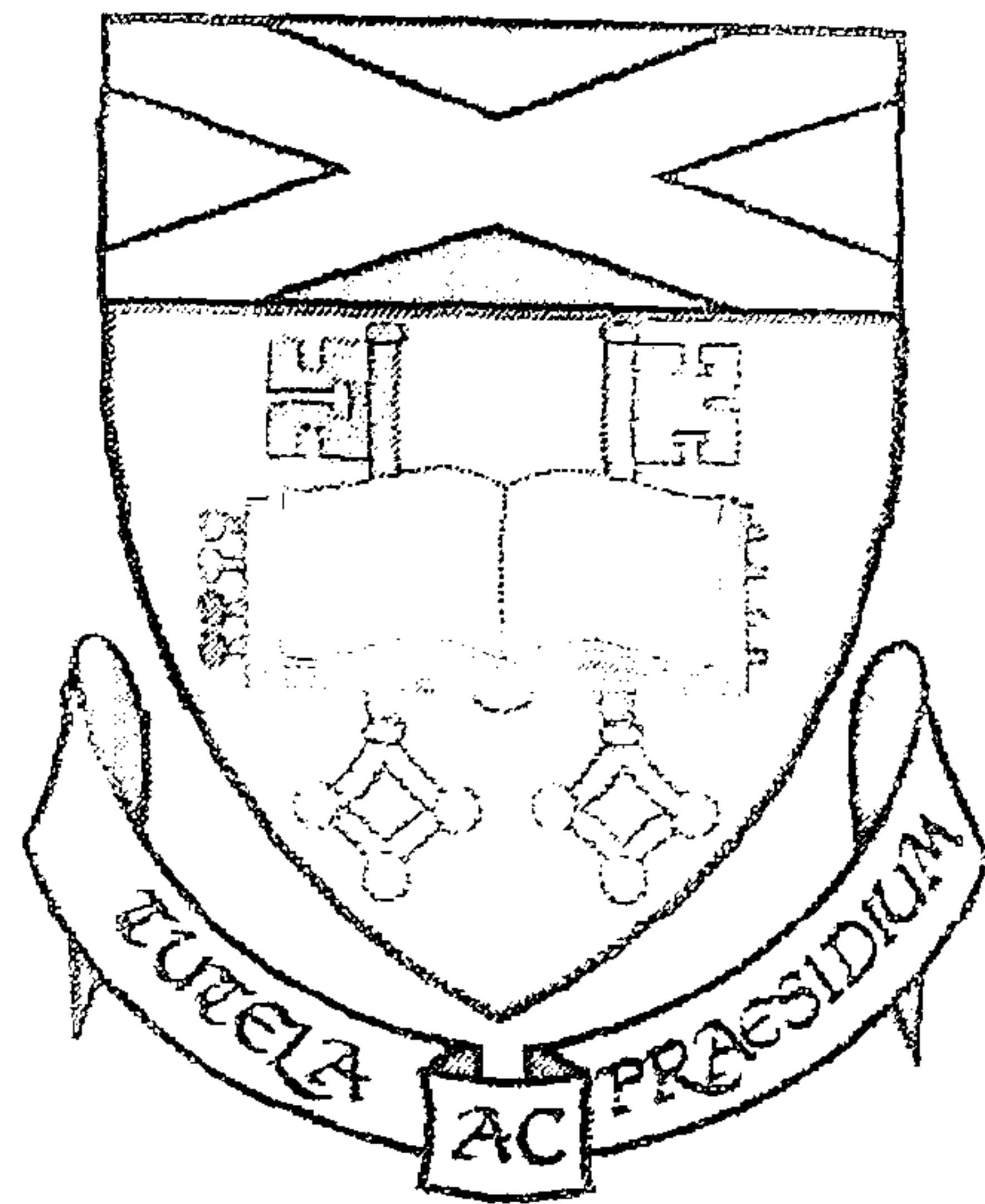
4. If you have not made use of the services of the Pre 5/Primary Link could you please say why this is the case.

Please respond below to Question 4

Not applicable

Appendix B

Code of Practice on Teacher Competence (GTC)



Code of Practice on Teacher Competence

1 Introduction

The Code of Practice on Teacher Competence provides the definition of competence in terms of the Standard for Full Registration (SFR) and explains the steps in the process for dealing with cases of short-lived under-performance and long-running under-performance. This Code is part of the Council's procedures for maintaining standards of professional conduct and competence in teaching.

It is important to note that this Code will be kept under continuous review and will be updated regularly.

It should be noted that where the alleged under-performance relates to administrative/managerial duties of a promoted teacher, similar procedures may be applied, but in the knowledge that the power of the Council, at the end of the day, to remove the name of a teacher from the register for long-running under-performance relates to teaching competence not administrative/managerial competence.

2 Definition of Teacher Competence

Teacher competence is described in terms of the SFR and applies to teachers who have gained full registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland.

The Standard describes the:

- ❖ professional knowledge and understanding
- ❖ professional skills and abilities
- ❖ professional values and personal commitment

which all fully registered teachers should be able to demonstrate in their professional activities.

Professional Knowledge and Understanding

Registered teachers:

- (a) have detailed knowledge and understanding of the relevant areas of the pre-school, primary or secondary school curriculum;
- (b) have sufficient knowledge and understanding to fulfil their responsibilities for literacy and numeracy; personal, social and health education; and ICT. (As appropriate to the sector and stage of development.);
- (c) *understand the nature of the curriculum and its development;*
- (d) have sufficient knowledge and understanding to meet their responsibilities to teach cross-curricular aspects;
- (e) have a broad, critical understanding of the principal features of the education system, educational policy and practice, and of their part in it;
- (f) have detailed working knowledge of their sector, of the school(s) in which they teach, and of their professional responsibilities within them;
- (g) can articulate their professional values and practices and relate them to theoretical principles and perspectives;

- (h) have research-based knowledge relating to learning and teaching and a critical appreciation of the contribution of research to education in general.

Professional Skills and Abilities

Registered teachers:

- (a) are able to plan coherent and progressive teaching programmes which match their pupils' needs and abilities, and they can justify what they teach;
- (b) communicate clearly, making skilful use of a variety of media, and interact productively with pupils, individually and collectively;
- (c) use a range of teaching strategies and resources which they can evaluate and justify in terms of curriculum requirements and of the needs and abilities of their pupils;
- (d) set and maintain expectations and pace of work for all pupils;
- (e) work co-operatively with other professionals and adults;
- (f) organise and manage classes and resources to achieve safe, orderly and purposeful activity;
- (g) manage pupil behaviour and classroom incidents fairly, sensitively and consistently, making sensible use of rewards and sanctions, and seeking and using the advice of colleagues when necessary;
- (h) understand and apply the principles of assessment, recording and reporting;
- (i) use the results of assessment to evaluate and improve their teaching, and the learning and attainment of the children they teach.

Professional Values and Personal Commitment

Registered teachers:

- (a) learn from their experience of practice and from critical evaluation of relevant literature in their professional development;
- (b) convey an understanding of practice and general educational matters in their professional dialogue and communication;
- (c) reflect on and act to improve their own professional practice, contribute to their own professional development, and engage in the process of curriculum development;
- (d) should show in their day-to-day practice a commitment to social justice and inclusion;
- (e) take responsibility for their professional learning and development;
- (f) value, respect and are active partners in the communities in which they work.

3 Procedures for Dealing with Under-Performance

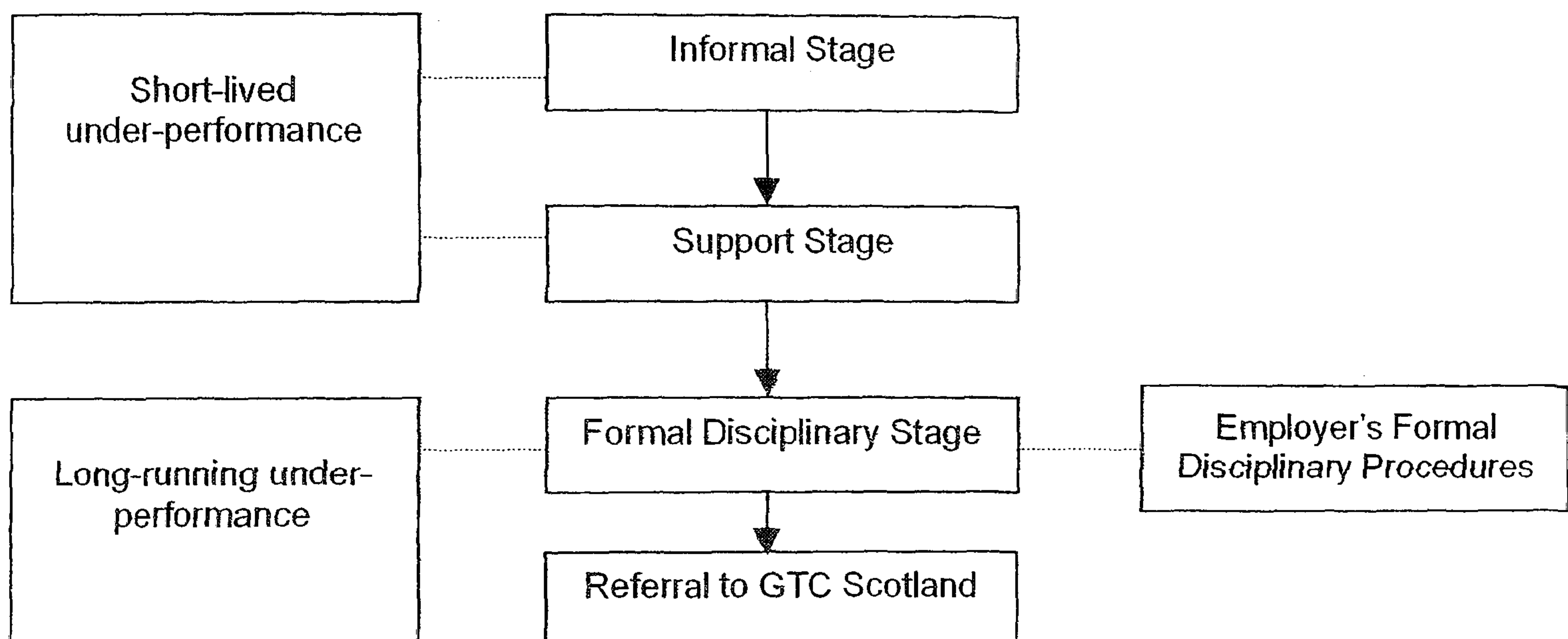
The procedures assume that the teacher has been performing at a competent level up to the point at which temporary under-performance is first identified.

Short-lived under-performance may be caused by many different factors such as illness, personal circumstances, lack of understanding of current methodology, loss of confidence or external factors beyond the control of the teacher. In stages 1 and 2 of the following procedures it is assumed that the teacher's problem is one of short-lived under-performance.

Long-running under-performance is the term used to describe the problem when stage 3 of the procedures is implemented. By this stage, although support and guidance and professional development opportunities have been offered to the teacher, this has not resulted in the teacher maintaining the level defined in the Standard for Full Registration.

(Note: This advice is in line with relevant provisions of the ACAS Code of Practice on Disciplinary and Grievance Procedures as revised in September 2000, ref: para 8, para 22.)

There are four stages in the procedures:



Stage 1: Informal

- (a) The informal stage does not form part of the employer's formal disciplinary procedures.
- (b) It is assumed, at this stage, that the problem is one of short-lived under-performance.
- (c) Teachers are encouraged to invite a colleague or a representative from their Professional Association to accompany them to any meetings.
- (d) Informal discussions should be held between the teacher and senior colleagues to discuss identified areas of under-performance. During these informal discussions the teacher should be encouraged to participate fully in identifying the causes of the under-performance and suggesting possible remedies. Advice and guidance should be offered from senior colleagues to support improvement.

- (e) At the conclusion of the first informal discussion a date should be agreed by the teacher and senior colleagues to review performance. Depending on the context of the situation a reasonable length of time should be given for the teacher to reach the required standard.
- (f) At the conclusion of the meeting to review performance, ie whether or not the required standard has been achieved, an oral report should be given to the teacher indicating the outcome. Two outcomes are possible:

Outcome 1:

Where improvements have been made to the required standard, no further action will be taken. The teacher should be informed of this decision in writing.

Outcome 2:

Where improvements have not been achieved to the required standard, the teacher should be informed that the matter will be referred to the headteacher who will consider whether the second stage of the procedures should be implemented. The teacher will be informed of the headteacher's decision and the underpinning reasons in writing.

Stage 2 : Support

- (a) The support stage does not form part of the employer's formal disciplinary procedures.
- (b) It is assumed, at this stage, that the problem is still one of short-lived under-performance.
- (c) Teachers are encouraged to invite a colleague or a representative from their Professional Association to accompany them to any meetings.
- (d) The teacher should be informed by the headteacher of:
 - the specific aspects of the SFR which are to be addressed;
 - the proposed mechanisms which will be put in place to support the teacher;
 - appropriate professional development opportunities which can be accessed.
- (e) Discussions should be held between the teacher and headteacher to agree the way ahead. During these discussions the teacher should be encouraged to address the issues openly in order to:
 - clarify the areas of under-performance;
 - suggest forms of support which he/she would find helpful;
 - agree appropriate professional development opportunities.

Sympathetic consideration should be given to all reasonable requests made by the teacher.

At the conclusion of these discussions the headteacher should give a broad indication of the support mechanisms and professional development opportunities which will be made available. Dates for an Interim Review meeting and a Final Review meeting will be confirmed.

As soon as possible after the discussion the headteacher should confirm in writing:

- the improvements to be made;
- the support mechanisms and professional development package to be provided;
- confirmation of the review dates.

Depending on the context of the situation a reasonable length of time should be given for the teacher to reach the required standard.

- (f) At the conclusion of the Final Review meeting the teacher should be informed of the outcome.

Two outcomes are possible:

Outcome 1:

Where improvements have been achieved to the required standard, no further action will be taken. The proceedings will be deemed to be complete. The teacher should be informed of this discussion in writing.

Outcome 2:

Where improvements have not been achieved to the required standard, the teacher should be informed that formal disciplinary procedures will be implemented. This decision and the underpinning reasons should be communicated to the teacher in writing.

The teacher should be advised of their statutory and contractual rights to be accompanied at stages 3 and 4.

Stage 3 : Disciplinary

- (a) This stage comprises the employer's formal disciplinary procedures.
- (b) The problem is now considered to be one of long-running under-performance.
- (c) The teacher should be advised of their statutory and contractual rights to be accompanied.
- (d) A comprehensive statement should be produced by the headteacher indicating:
- details of the teacher's alleged failure to maintain the standards described in the SFR with clear identification of which aspects are alleged not to be of the required standard;
 - details of the support mechanisms and professional development opportunities offered to the teacher;
 - the duration of stages 1 and 2;
 - the teacher's performance at the start of the support stage;
 - the teacher's performance at the end of the support stage.
- (e) The above information will be considered:
- at subsequent stages in the employer's formal disciplinary proceedings;
 - if the case is referred to GTC Scotland.

Stage 4 : Referral to the General Teaching Council for Scotland

- (a) A case is referred to the Council under the terms of Section 9B of the Teaching Council (Scotland) Act 1965 as amended, ie where a case culminates in:
 - the dismissal of the teacher;
 - the resignation of the teacher in the context of a possible dismissal.
- (b) Relevant information from the Disciplinary stage will be sent to the Council.
- (c) Information relating to the Council's procedures for dealing with such cases can be found in the Council's Code of Practice on the Exercise of its Disciplinary Functions and in the Conduct, Competence and Disciplinary Rules.

The General Teaching Council for Scotland ("the Council") was set up under the Teaching Council (Scotland) Act 1965. It was the first such body for teachers in the United Kingdom and, indeed, one of the first teaching councils in the world. One of the fundamental principles underlying the work of the Council is that of professional self-government.

The public interest is represented on the Council. Its membership of 50 consists of 26 elected registered teacher members; 18 appointed members representing local authorities, directors of education, directors of social work, further and higher education institutions, the churches and the Scottish Council of Independent Schools; and 6 members nominated by Scottish Ministers.

The Council is an advisory non-departmental public body (NDPB), but differs from other NDPBs in that it is funded from the annual registration fees paid by registered teachers and not from the public purse. With regard to the public interest, policy statements and general advice issued by the Council are made available to the public and Minutes of meetings of the Council are made available to the press and on the Internet, subject to confidentiality in the Council's case work.

The Standards in Scotland's Schools etc Act 2000 made a number of important changes to the functions of the Council. In the light of these changes this Code of Practice on Teacher Competence is intended to illustrate how the Council defines teacher competence and the proposed procedures for dealing with cases of under-performance.

The principal aims of the General Teaching Council for Scotland are:

- ❖ To contribute to improving the quality of teaching and learning;
- ❖ To maintain and to enhance professional standards in schools and colleges in collaboration with partners including teachers, employing authorities, teacher education institutions, parents and the Scottish Executive Education Department;
- ❖ To be recognised as a voice and advocate for the teaching profession;
- ❖ To contribute to the development of a world-class educational system in Scotland.

The Council's key functions are:

- ❖ To maintain and enhance the quality of teaching in Scotland;
- ❖ To maintain standards of professional conduct and competence in teaching;
- ❖ To provide advice on the entry requirements for initial teacher education and the supply of teachers;
- ❖ To enhance the status and standing of teaching and the teaching profession;
- ❖ To develop the strengths of Council staff;
- ❖ To run an effective and cost-efficient organisation.

Appendix C

Pilot questionnaire

✓
Thank you for agreeing to pilot this questionnaire. Please indicate whether you are male or female and also the length of your teaching experience.

Male

Female

Length of teaching experience

16

Here is a list of characteristics which teachers may have. Please read every characteristic and tick the appropriate box, indicating how important you think that characteristic is when managing behaviour.

There are some blank rows at the end. Please feel free to add any characteristics you feel have been missed and indicate their importance in a similar manner.

Finally, any comments about understanding, ease of use, time taken to complete questionnaire, etc. or any other comments would be most helpful.

Ann

	Very important	Somewhat important	Somewhat unimportant	Very unimportant
Is approachable to pupils outside the classroom		✓		
Has pedagogical knowledge and understanding				
Good at reading people's moods and understanding non verbal cues	✓			
Sense of humour		✓		
Deals calmly with stress	✓			
Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats			✓	
Sets rules in class and follows them at all times	✓			
Stays calm and composed in trying situations	✓			
Acts as role model who can help students understand the values and expectations of the school		✓		
Is well prepared				
Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not only understandable but memorable		✓		
Clear about lesson structure		✓		
Establishes good relationships with pupils		✓		
Enthusiastic		✓		
Has integrity	✓			
Is creative			✓	

	very important	somewhat important	somewhat unimportant	very unimportant
Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate, differentiated programmes of work, IEPs		✓		
Demonstrates a commitment to equality	✓			
Demonstrates a commitment to social justice	✓			
Demonstrates a commitment to inclusion			✓	
Has a critical understanding of current policy debates				✓
Makes a positive response to pupil differences		✓		
Makes a positive response to barriers to learning		✓		
Is caring and approachable		✓		
Is enthusiastic and can motivate pupils	✓			
Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all	✓			
Practice is informed by reading and research				✓
Plans, organises, and prepares materials for classroom presentation	✓			
Engages students actively in the learning process	✓			
Stimulate student interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically		✓		
Help students learn independently			✓	
Relate course content to students' experiences		335		✓
Personalises the learning process				



	Very important	Somewhat important	Somewhat unimportant	Very unimportant
Is innovative			✓	
Is patient		✓		
Good subject knowledge			✓	
Holds informal conversations with pupils		✓		
Knows pupils well	✓			
Draws on personal experiences	✓			
Draws on pupils' strengths		✓		
Maintains good discipline	✓			
Takes time to listen to pupils	✓			
Shows great commitment to work	✓			
Is concerned about the quality of his/her teaching			✓	
High performance expectations	✓			
Uses praise appropriately	✓			
Exhibits positive regard, concern, and respect for students	✓			

Appendix D

Letter of instruction on how to complete survey,
sent to head teachers in second round of data gathering.

16th September 2003

Dear Colleague,

Behaviour management — effective teachers

The University of Strathclyde is currently researching the inclusion of pupils with difficult behaviour in mainstream classrooms. The Authority has given me permission to investigate aspects of this research in North Ayrshire. I am seeking to identify the characteristics of teachers who are effective in managing children with issues of behaviour. North Ayrshire Council has kindly allowed me to canvass the views of all head teachers in North Ayrshire primary schools about this, together with other teachers whom they regard as effective in responding to those children.

I would like you to complete the attached survey form, which should take no longer than 5 or 6 minutes. Then I would like you to pass the other forms to two members of staff, whom you would rate as effective in managing children whose behaviour can be difficult. All respondents will remain anonymous and will not be identified.

The purpose of the survey is to discover the characteristics that successful teachers consider to be key attributes of their profession. The results will help to provide information which may be used to rethink the way we educate both preservice and inservice teachers.

I would be grateful if you and up to two members of staff would complete the survey(s) and return them to me as soon as possible. Because all correspondence from you will be anonymous, I shall be contacting all head teachers in the survey, in two or three weeks, to ensure that my letter and the forms did reach you. This is to help ensure the maximum return possible. Please feel free to contact me at the number below if there are any matters concerning the research you would like to discuss.

Yours Sincerely,

Ann M. Grieve, BEd, DipSFL
Lecturer in Behaviour Support
☎ 00 44 (0)141 950 3334
✉ ann.grieve@strath.ac.uk
<http://www.strath.ac.uk/edsupport/staff/grieve.html>

Appendix E

Survey comprising the 44 characteristics

University of Strathclyde
Faculty of Education

All the characteristics on the next page are considered important, by writers and researchers, for teachers to work successfully with children whose behaviour is difficult. I would like to discover **your** priorities among them. I am trying to discover what experienced teachers with good “craft knowledge” consider the most important characteristics, rather than just being seen to be agreeing with what they think they may be expected to say. Respondents will remain anonymous and will not be identified.

Please give each characteristic a mark out of 5. I am keen to have a full range of scores between 1 and 5 across the items.

Giving an item a mark of 1 does not mean it is unimportant. It may be — but you think that the items you score 2, 3, 4 or 5 are more important.

Thank you for agreeing to complete this questionnaire. Please indicate whether you are male or female and also the length of your teaching experience.

Male

Female

Length of teaching experience

30 yrs

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<http://www.strath.ac.uk/edsupport/staff/grieve.html>

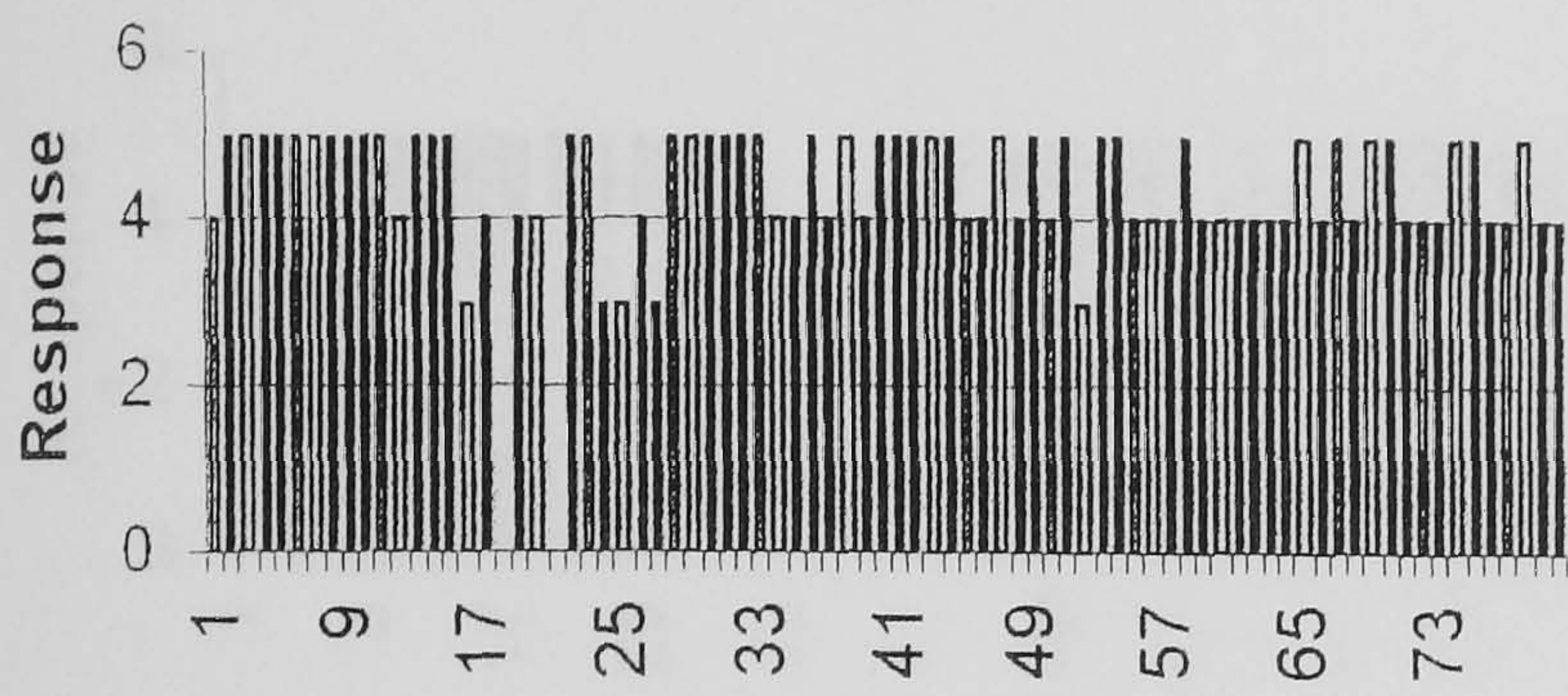
8th January 2004
AG/PHE

Stays calm and composed in trying situations	5
Stimulates student interest in learning by teaching enthusiastically	4
Takes time to listen to pupils	4
Uses praise appropriately	4
Uses variety in modes of explanation to make material not only understandable but memorable	4
Values Parents' Perspectives	4
Demonstrates a commitment to social justice	5
Draws on pupils' strengths	5
Enables pupils to achieve in National Tests	1
Establishes good relationships with pupils	5
Exhibits positive regard, concern, and respect for students	5
Expectations of high performance	1
Good at reading people's moods and understanding non-verbal cues	5
Good knowledge of subjects taught	3
Has a critical understanding of current policy debates	3
Has integrity	4
Has knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning	4
Helps students learn independently	4
Holds informal conversations with pupils	3
Actively engages students	4
Acts as a role model who can help students understand the values and expectation of the school	5
Clear about lesson structure	3
Creates and sustains a positive climate for learning for all	5
Deals calmly with stress	4
Demonstrates a commitment to equality	4
Relates course content to student's experiences	4
Responds positively to pupil differences	4
Sees new initiatives as opportunities rather than threats	3
Sense of humour	4
Sets rules in class and follows them at all times	4
Shows great commitment to work	4
Supportive, caring and approachable	5
Very concerned about the quality of his/her teaching	4
Very enthusiastic and can motivate pupils	4
Very innovative	4
Very well prepared	4
Knows pupils well	5
Maintains good discipline	4
Makes a positive response to barriers to learning	4
Personalises the learning process	4
Plans, organises, and prepares materials for classroom presentation	4
Practice is informed by reading and research	3
Promotes learning for all pupils, through appropriate differentiated programmes of work, IEPs etc	5
Works well with others	4

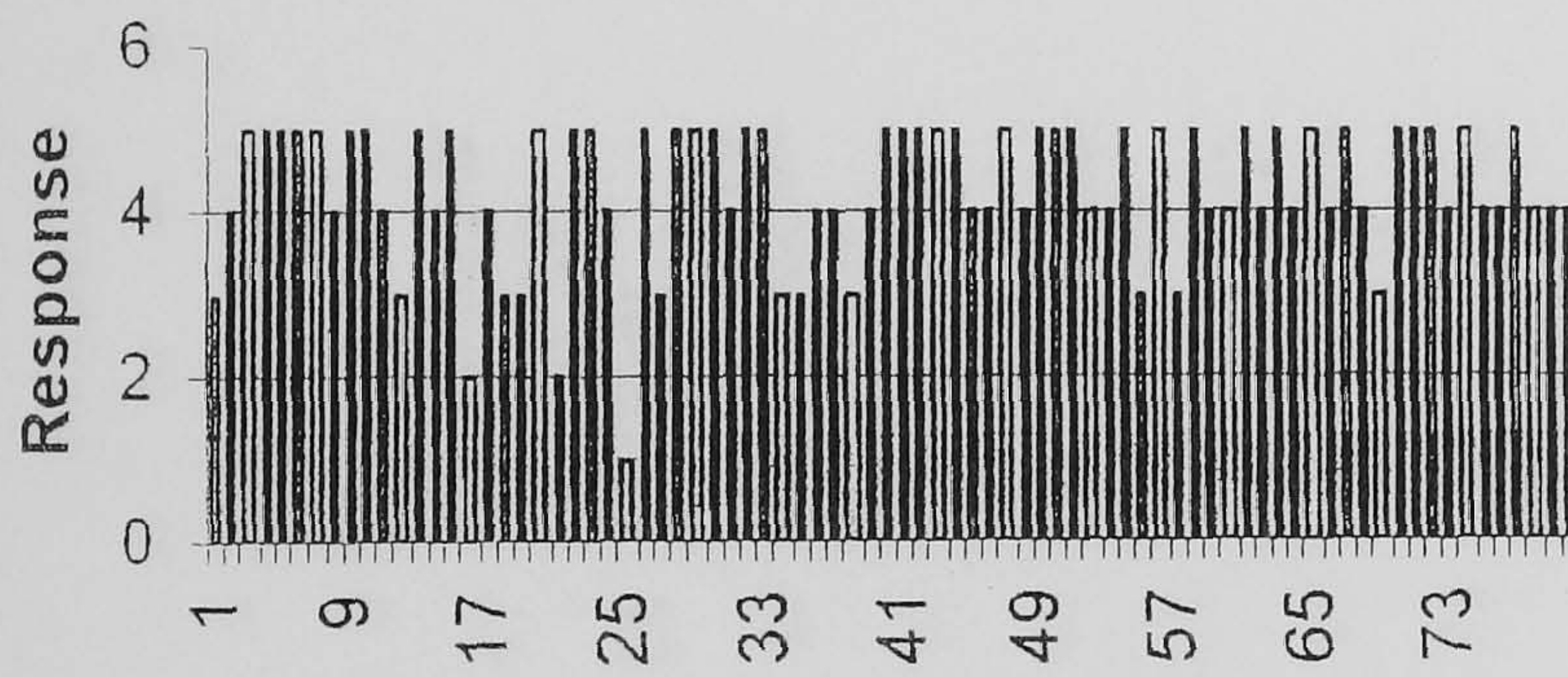
Appendix F

Distribution of scores for each question in survey

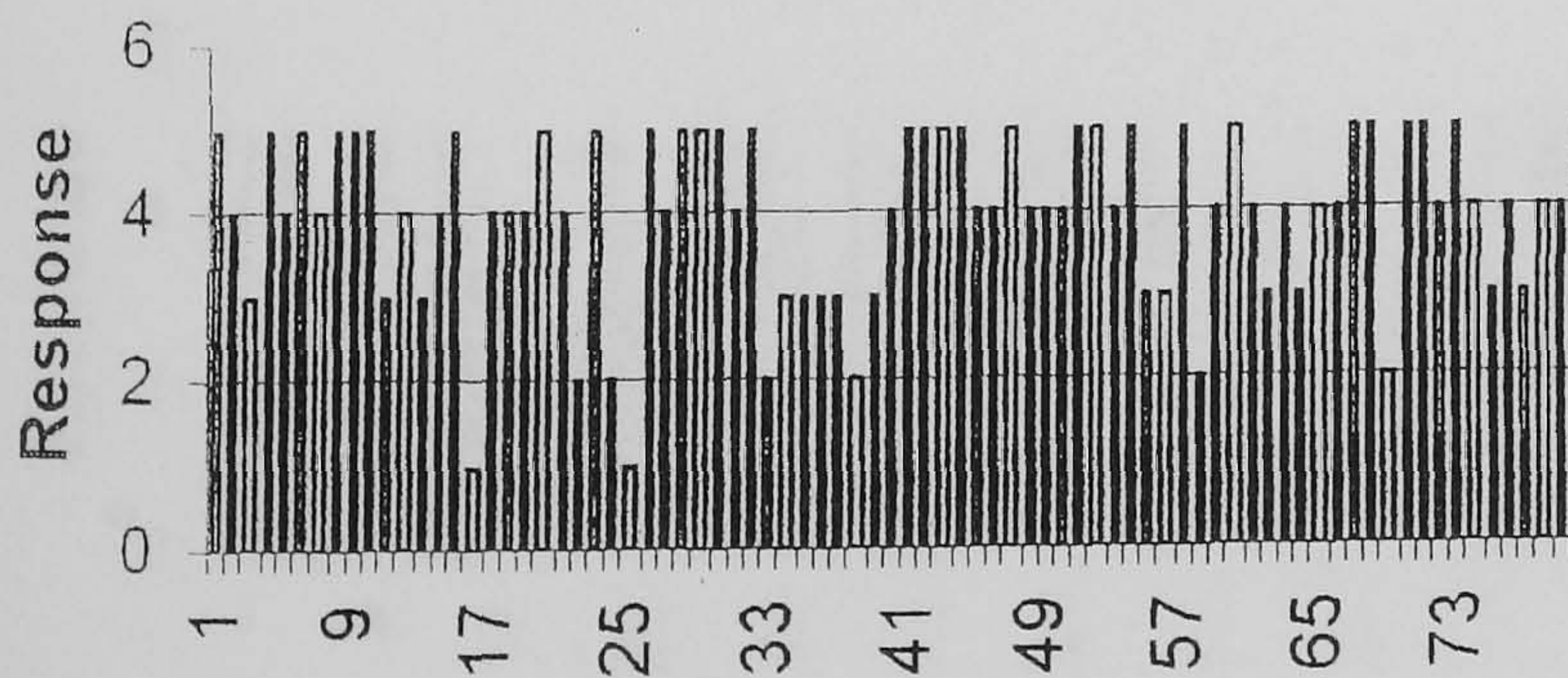
Q1 Responses



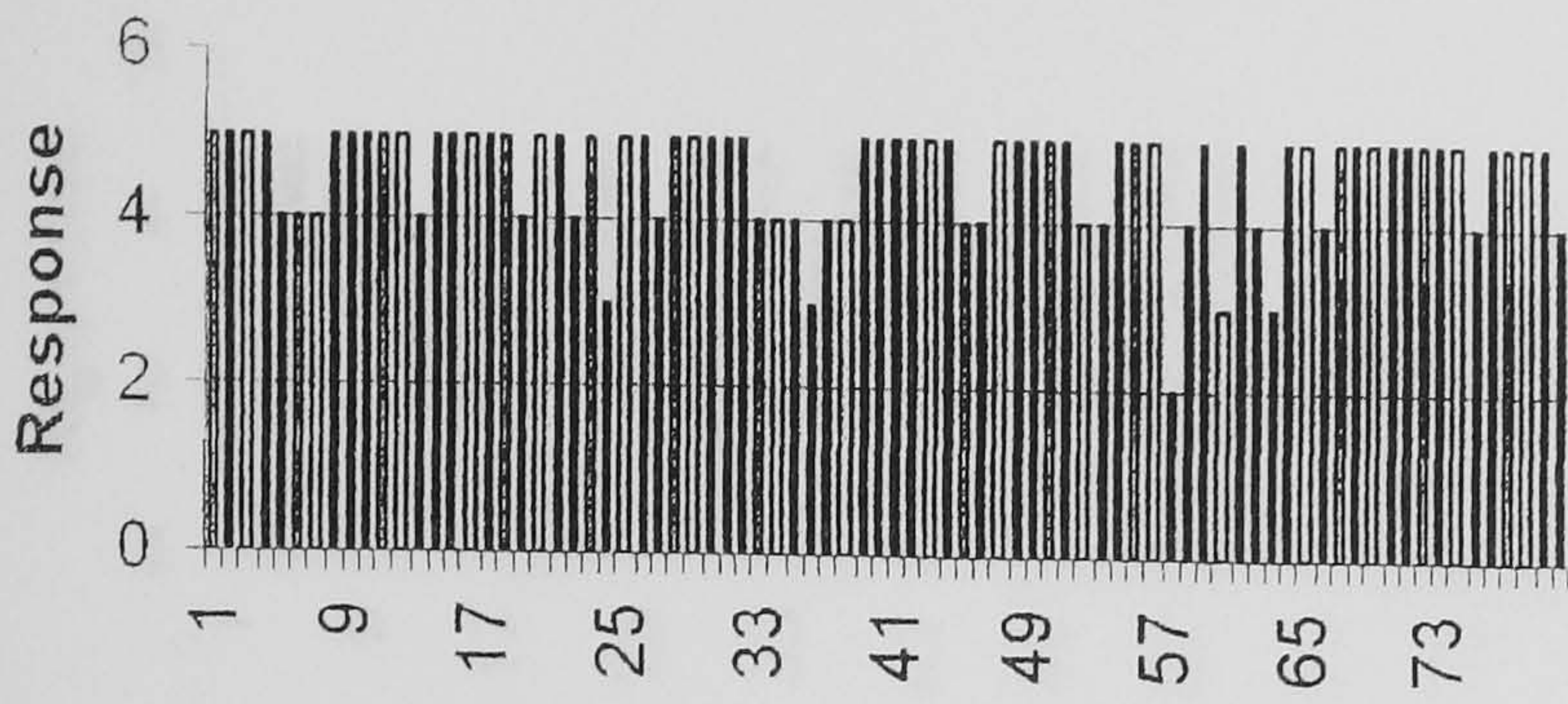
Q2 Responses



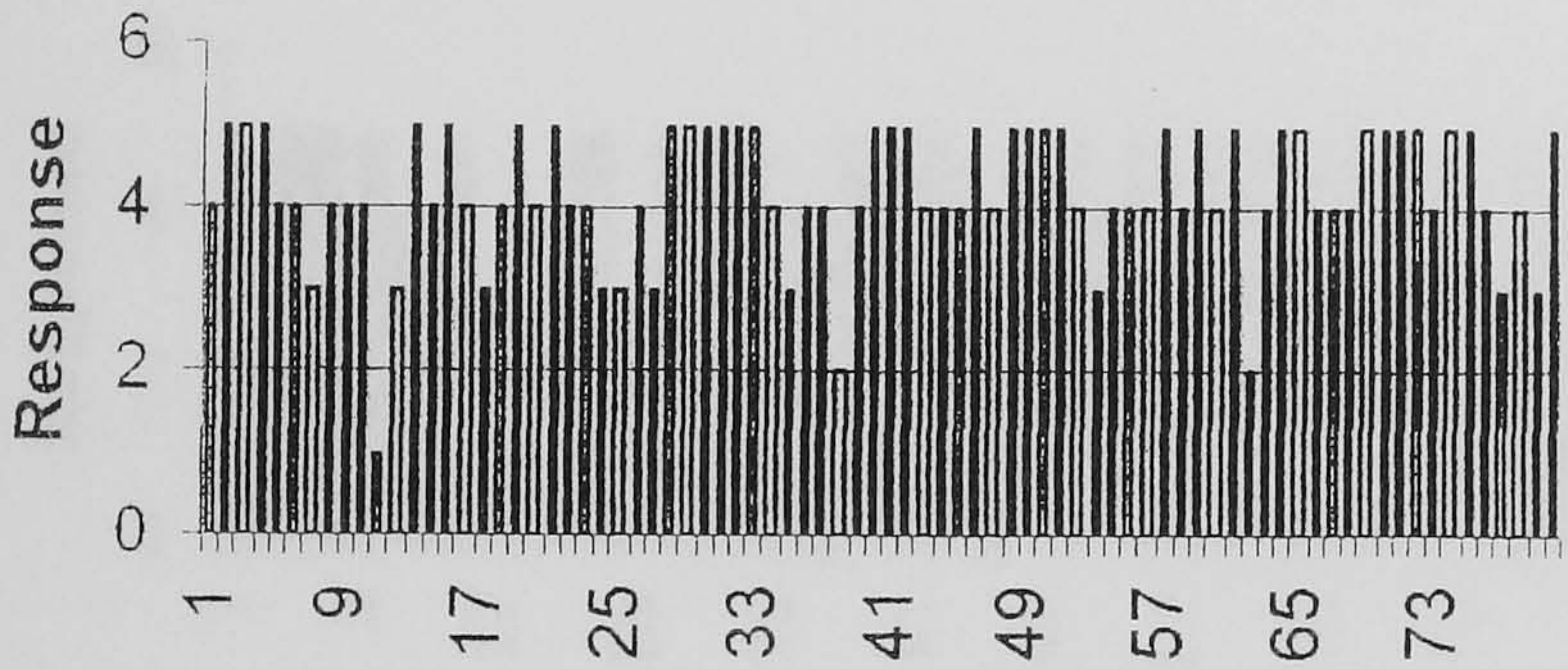
Q3 Responses



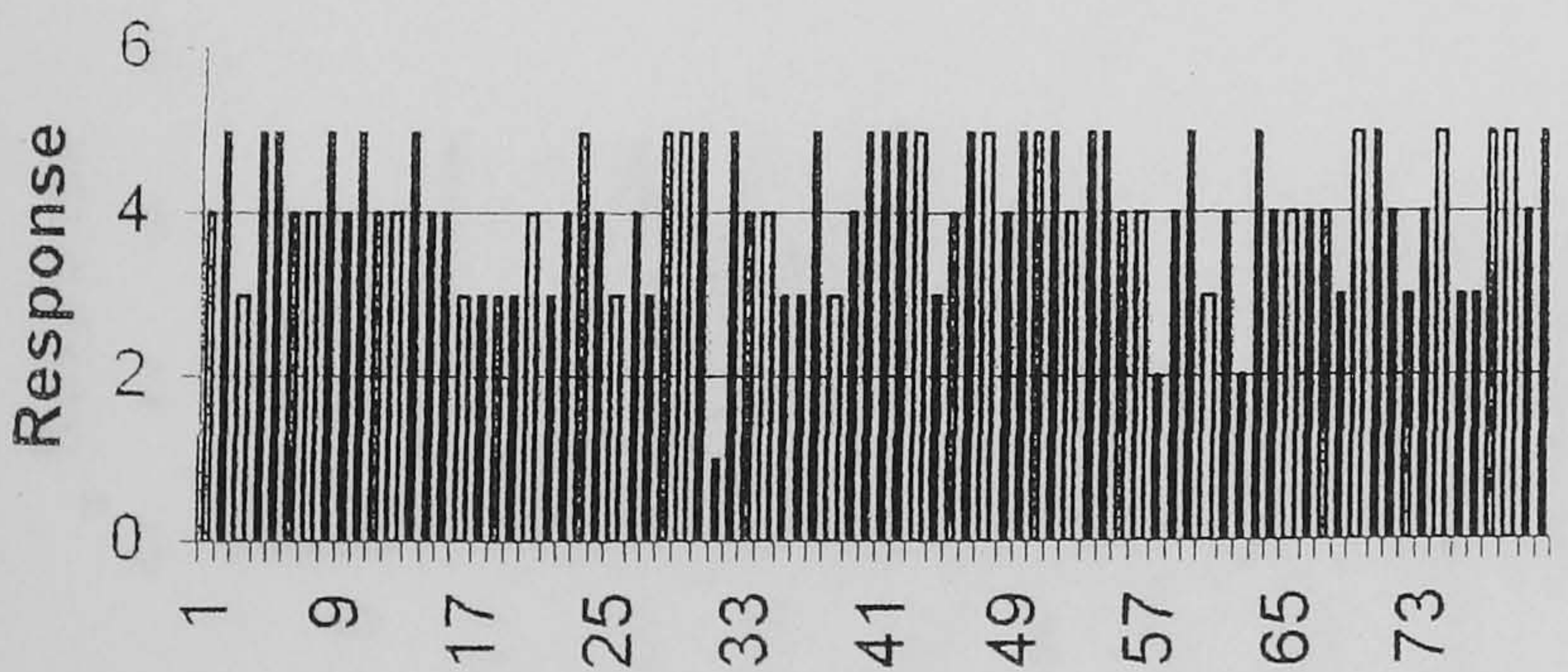
Q4 Responses



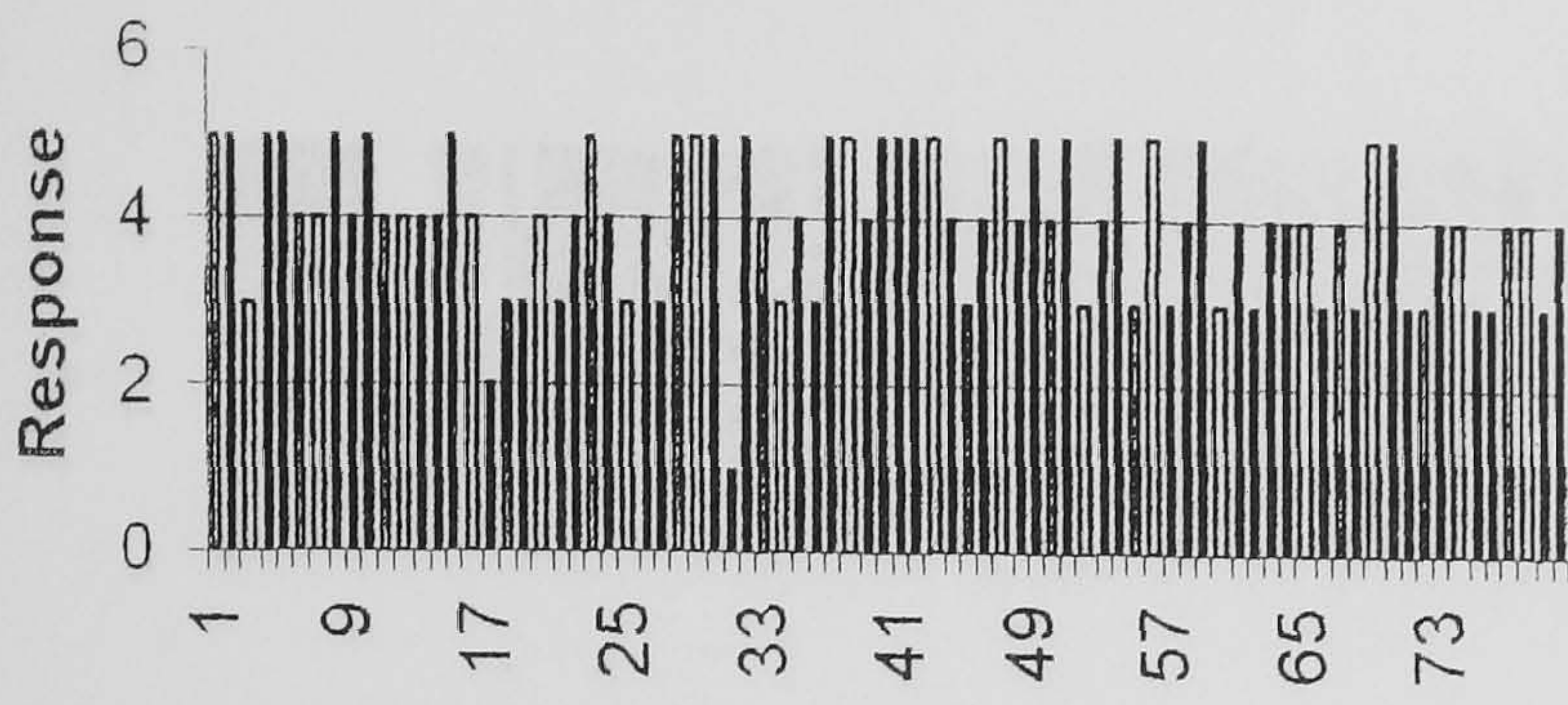
Q5 Responses



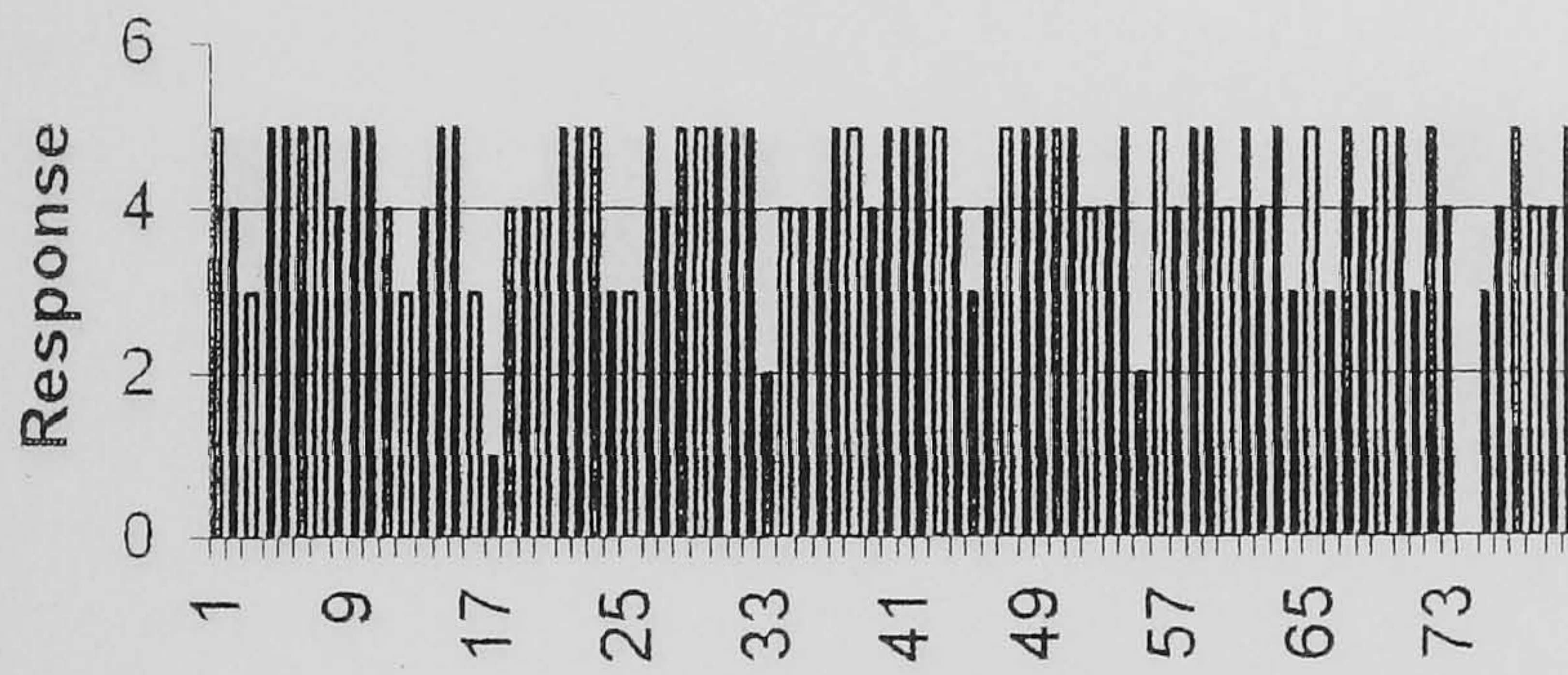
Q6 Responses



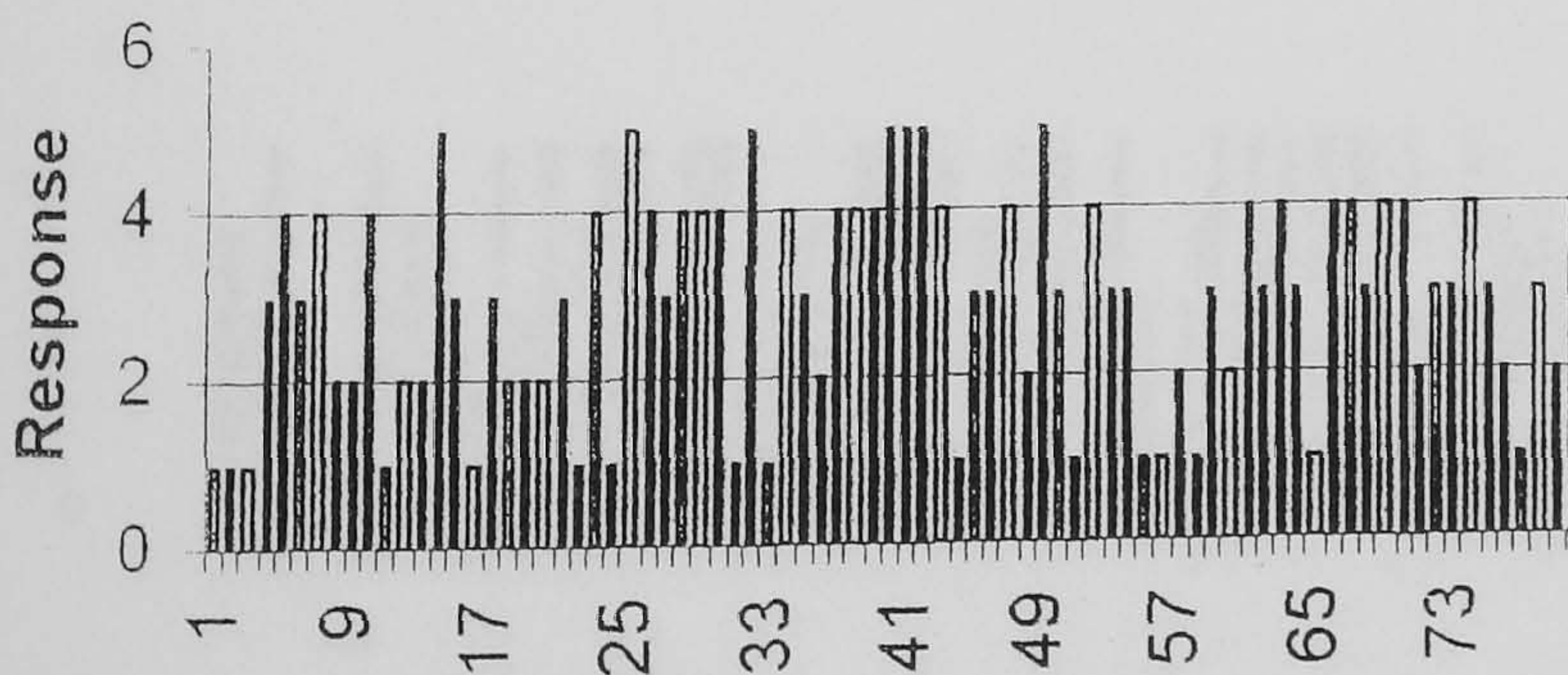
Q7 Responses



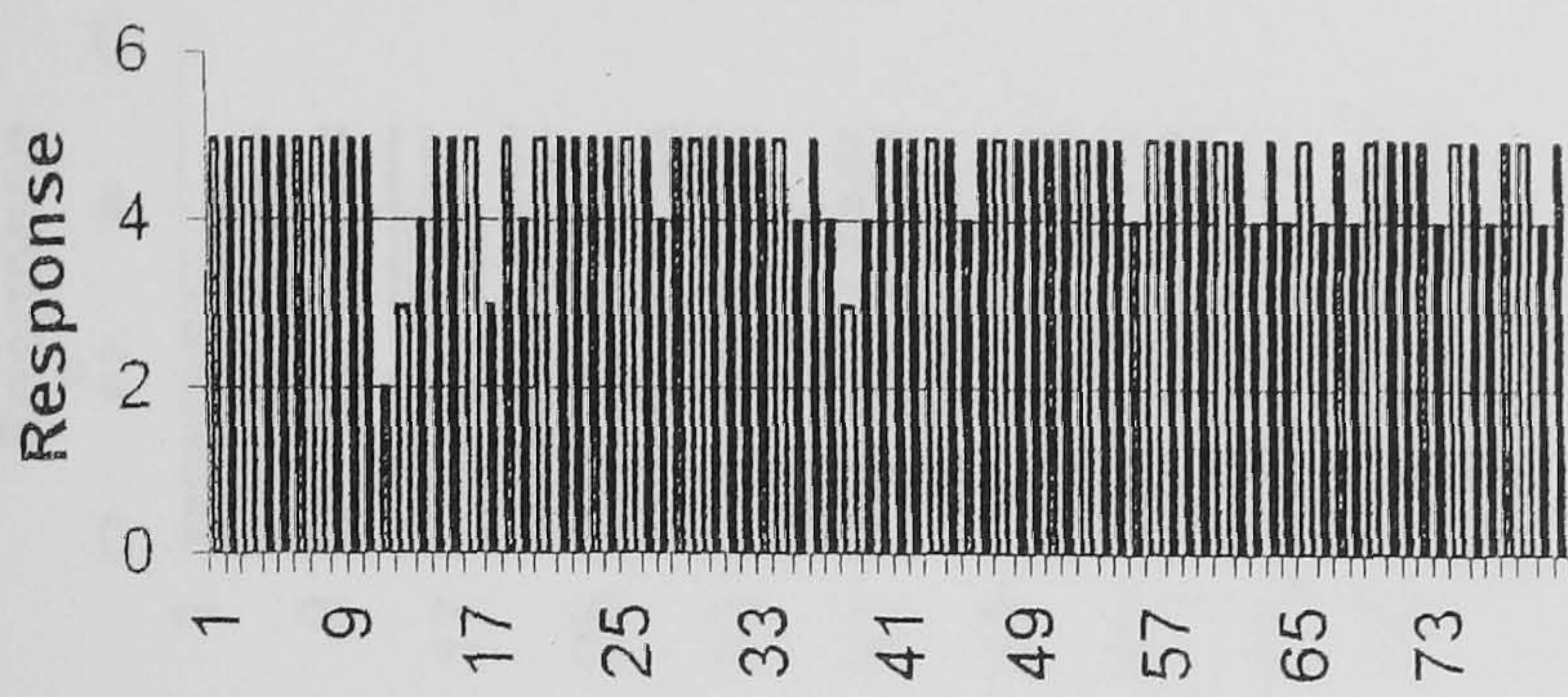
Q8 Responses



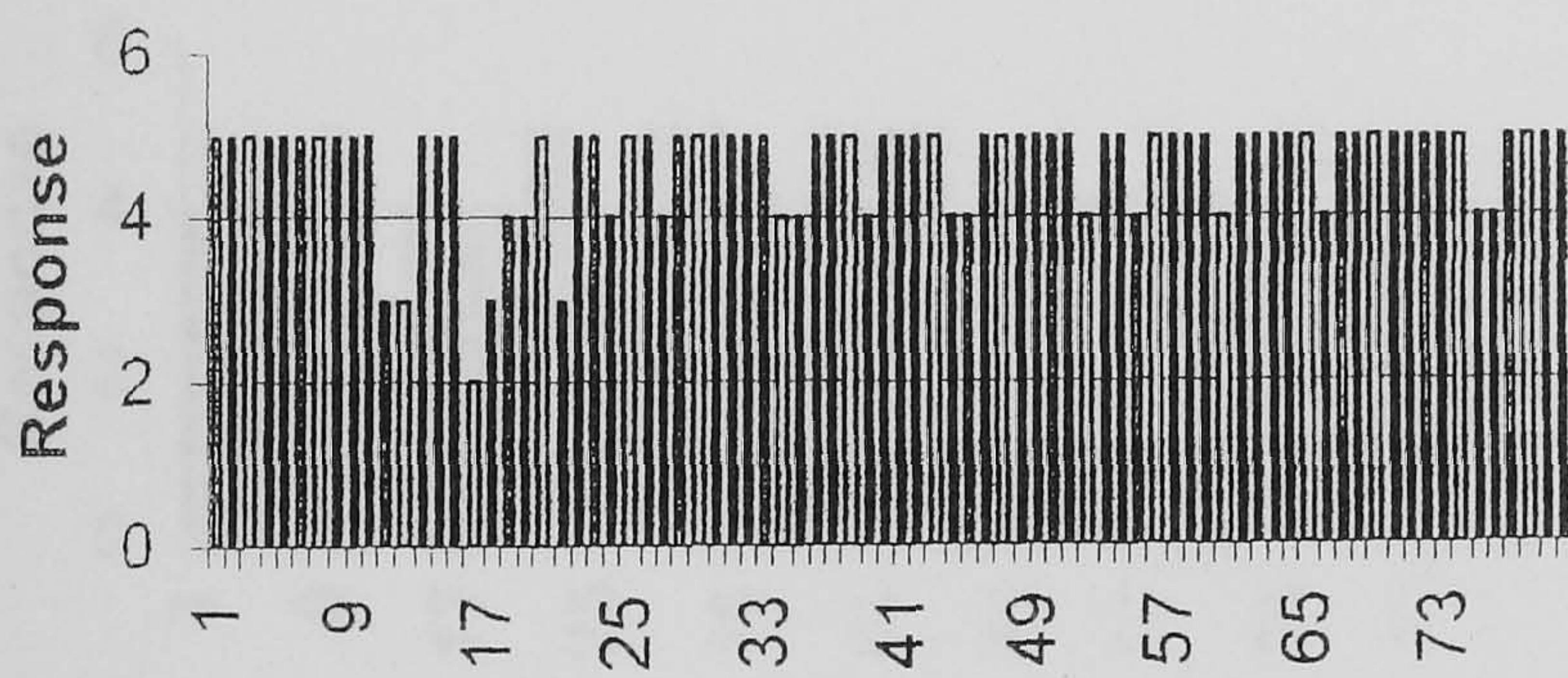
Q9 Responses



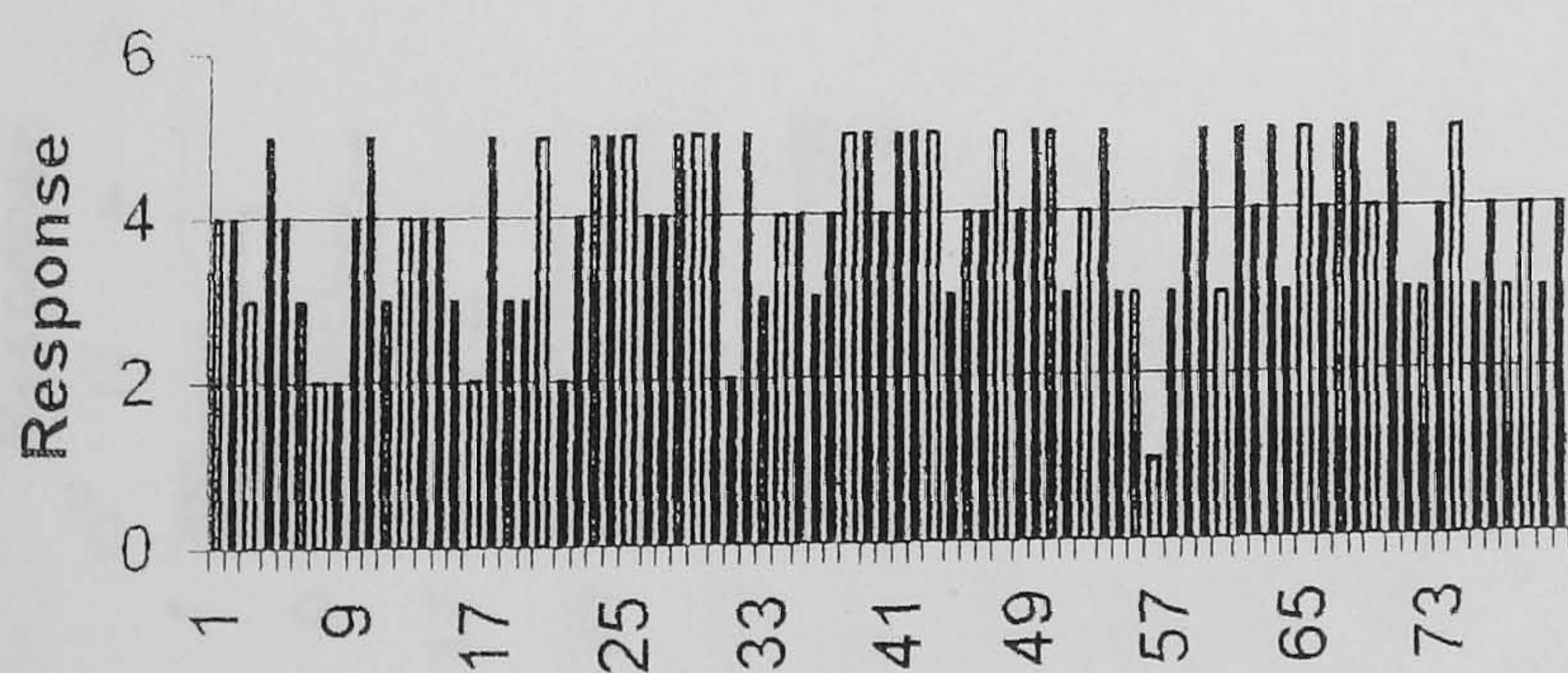
Q10 Responses



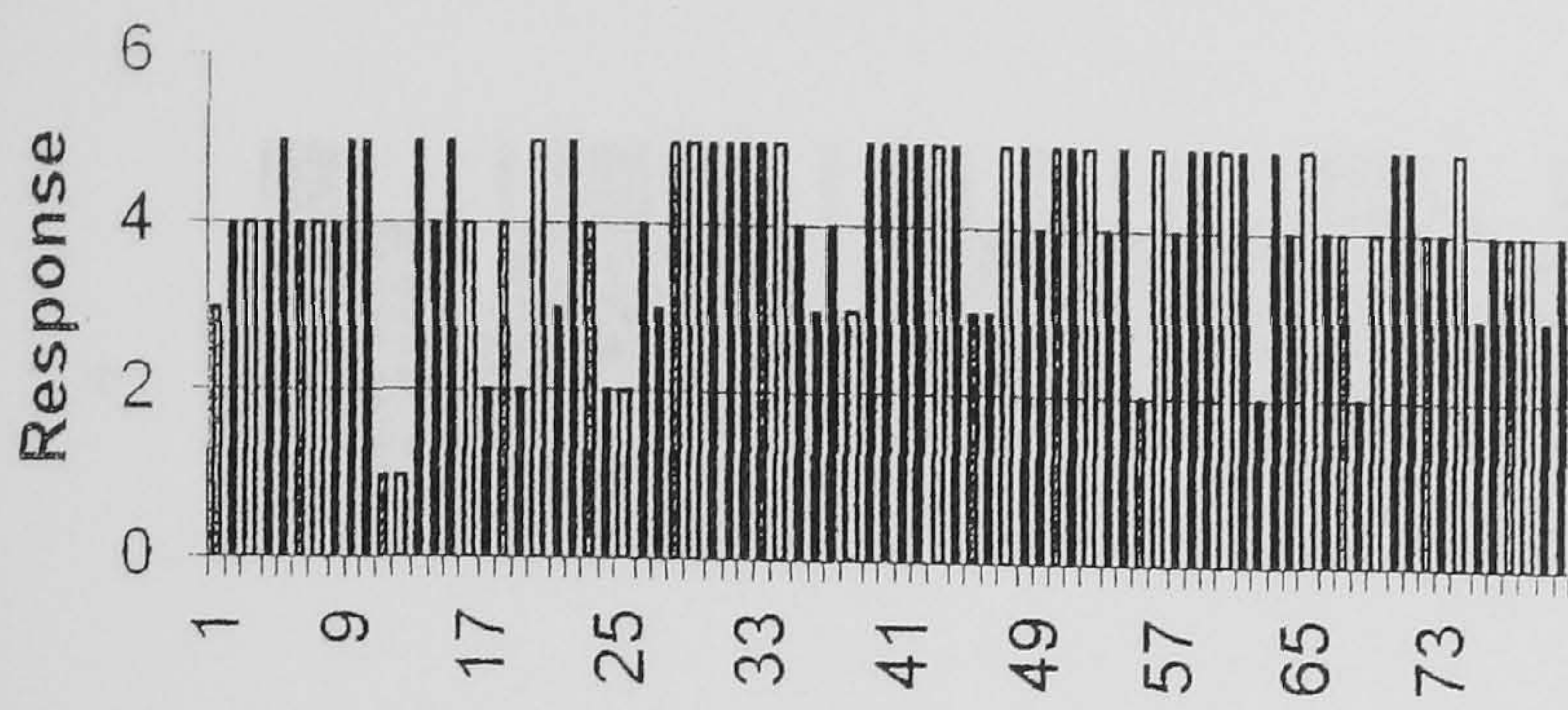
Q11 Responses



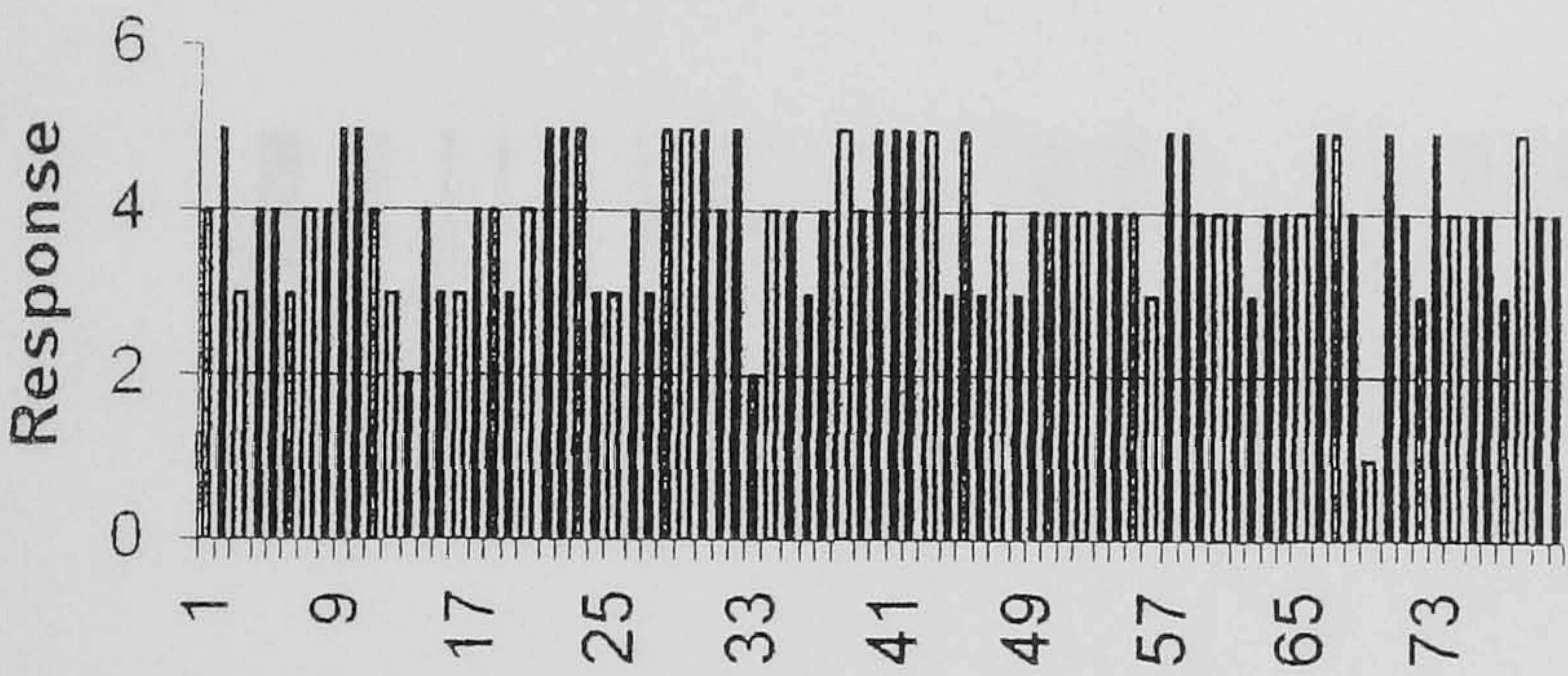
Q12 Responses



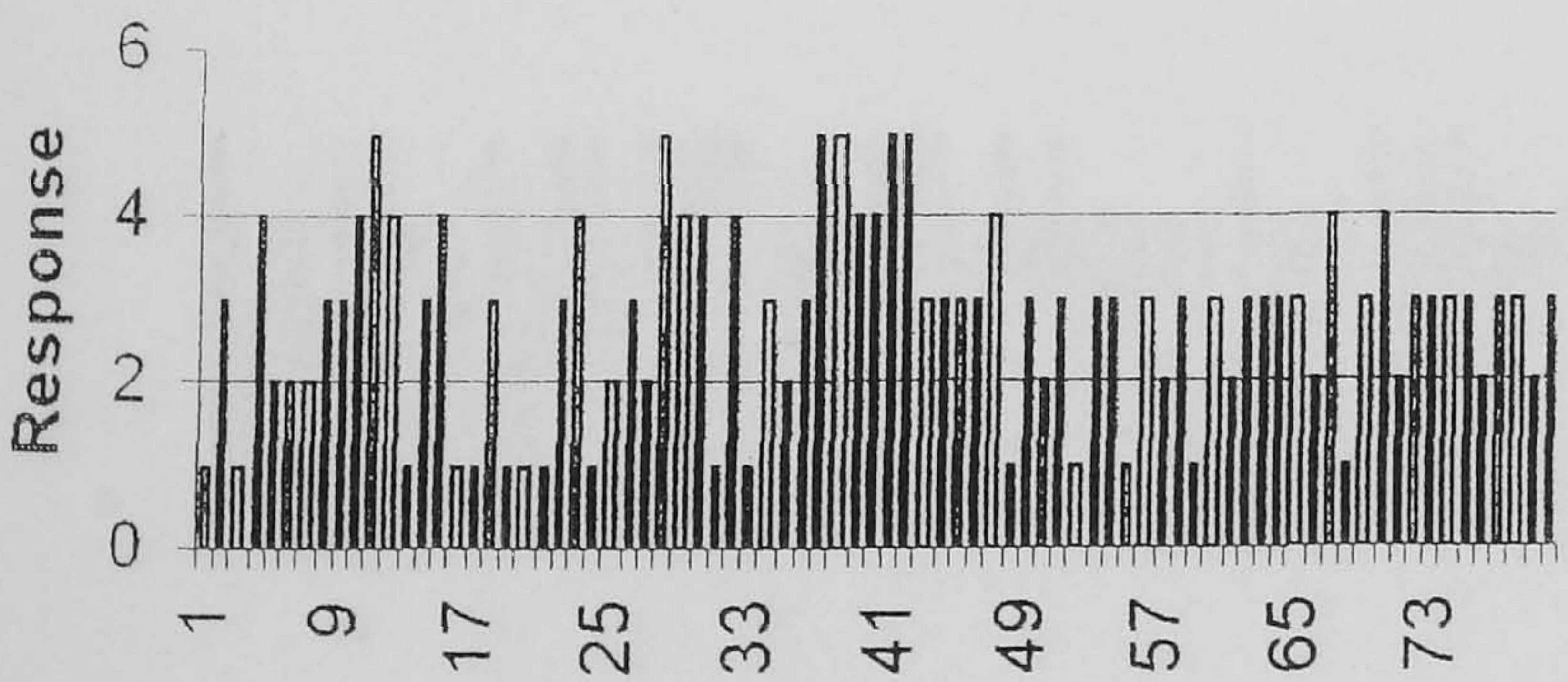
Q13 Responses



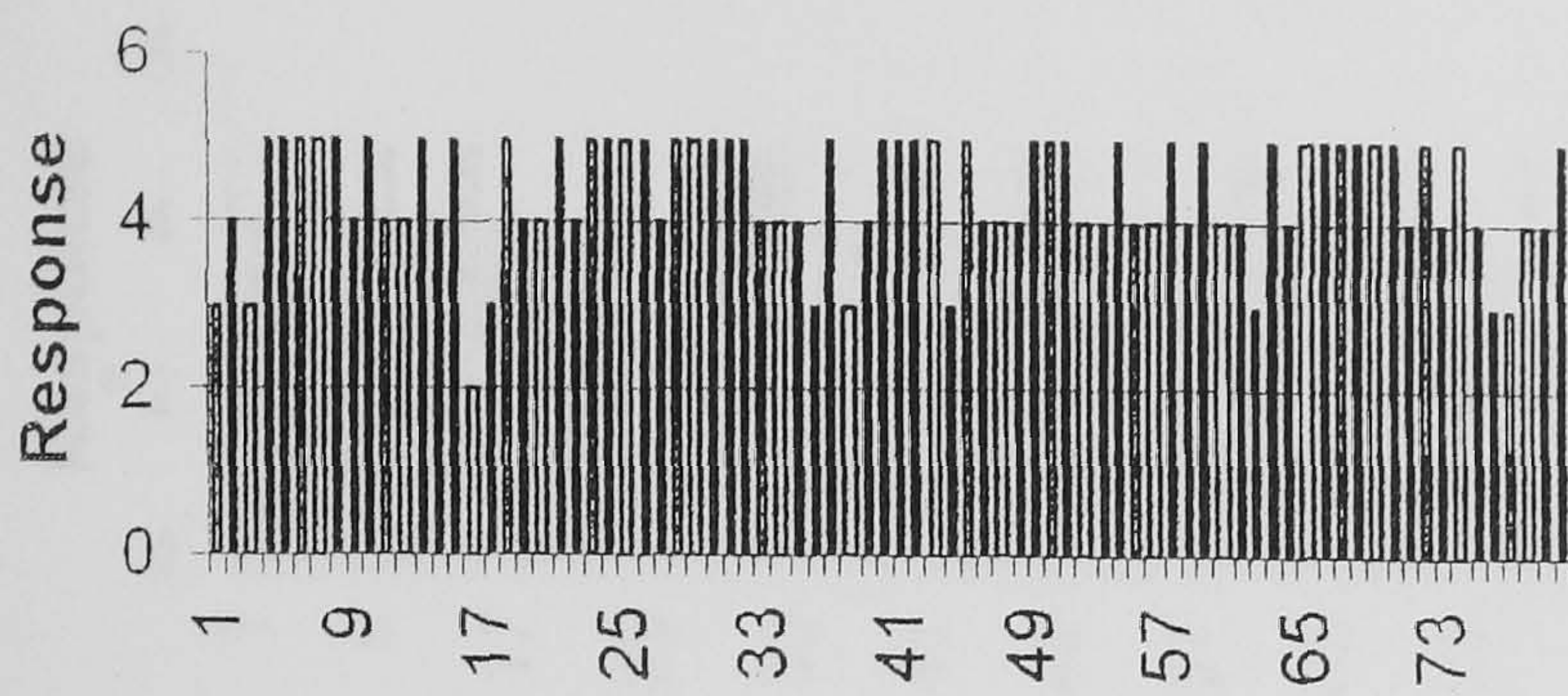
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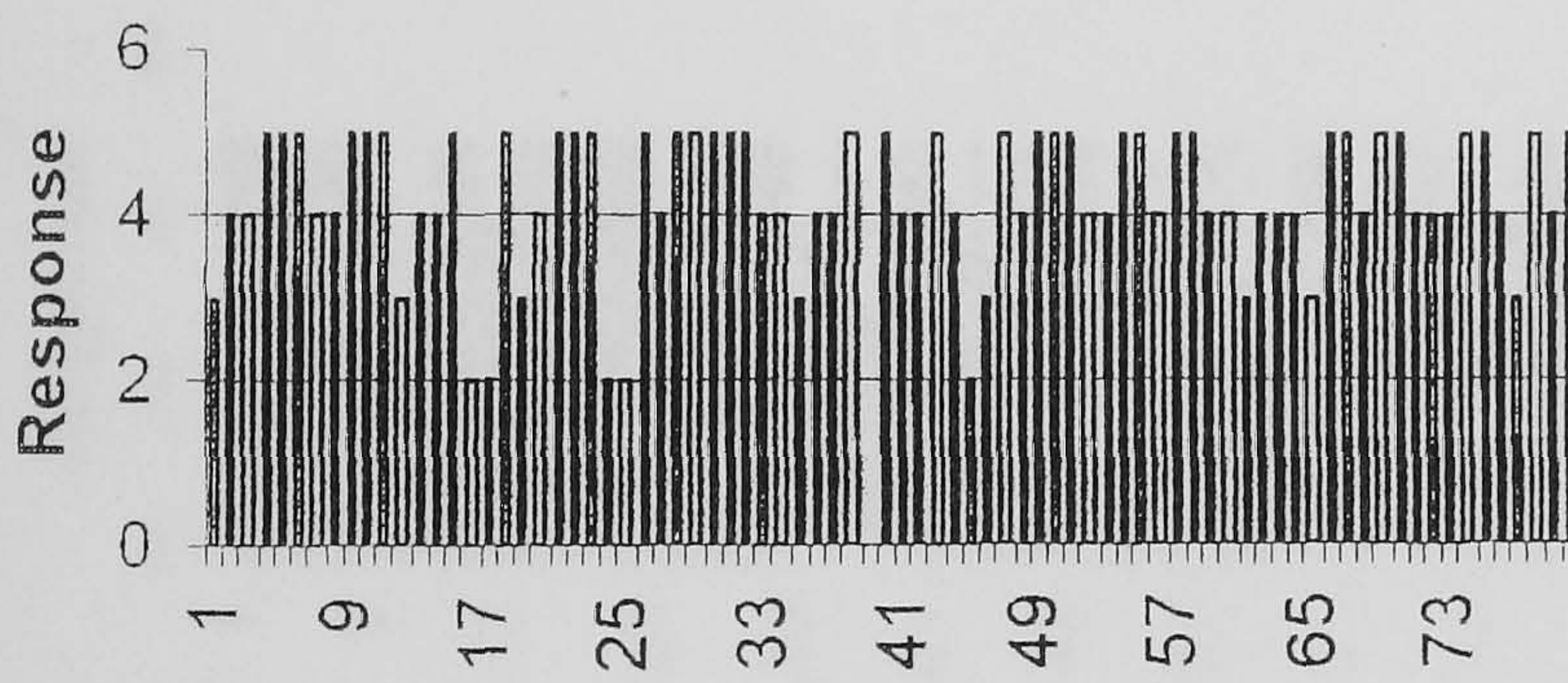
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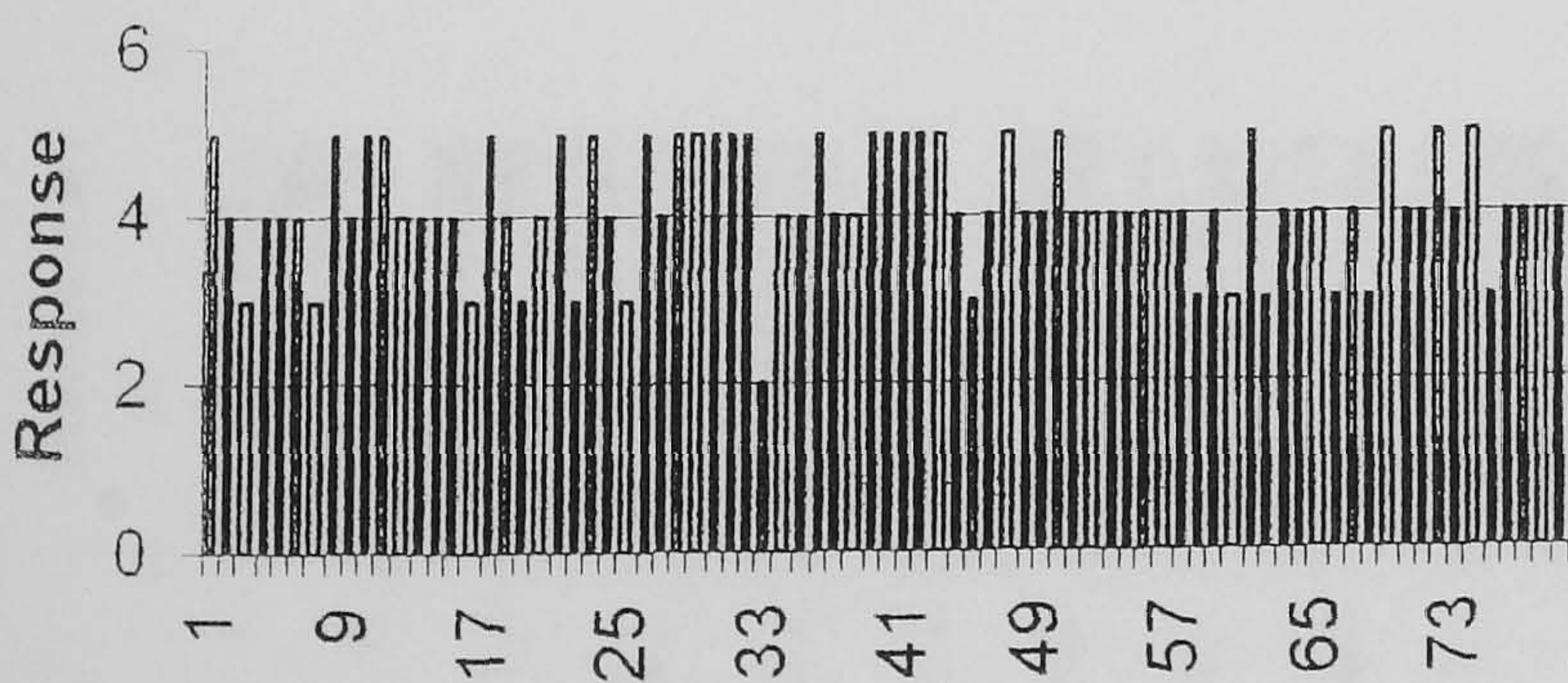
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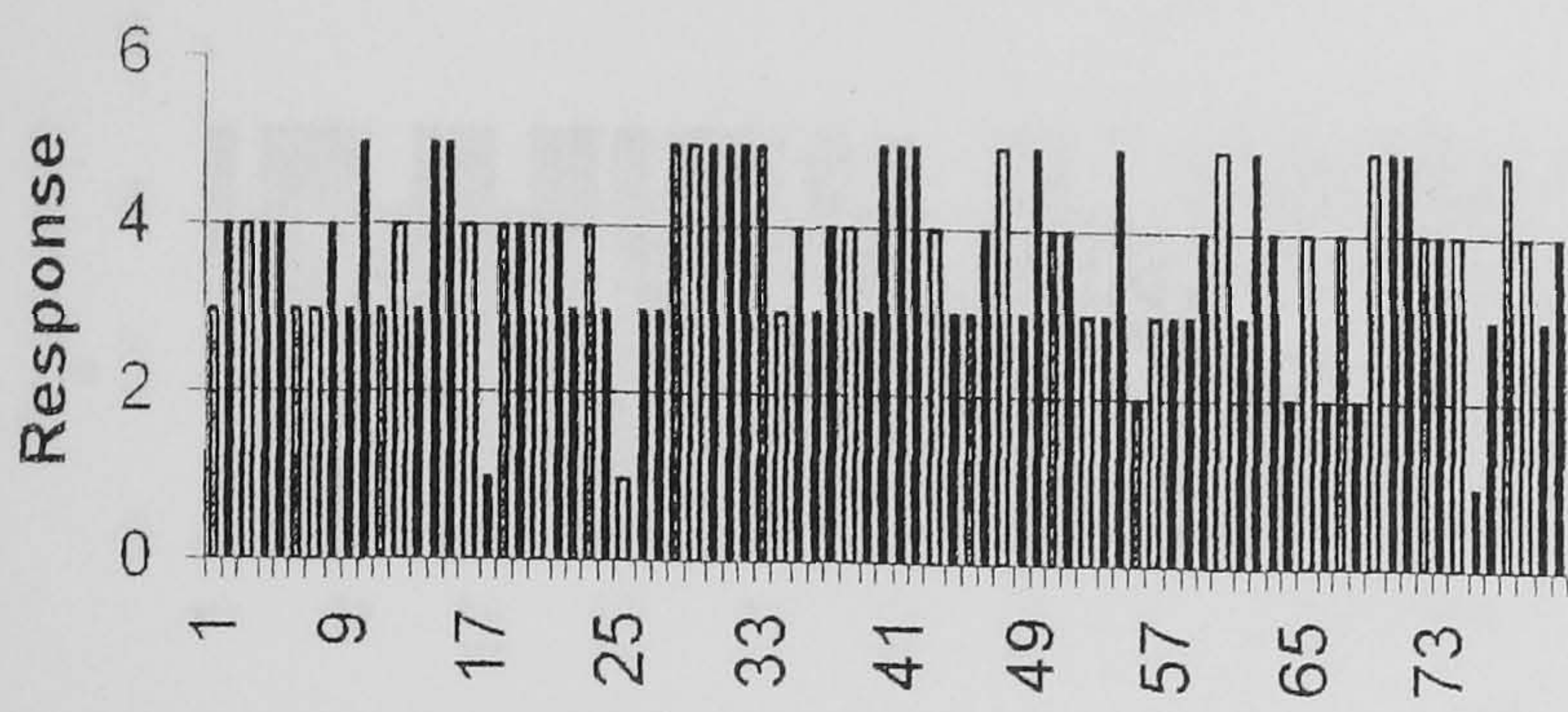
Q17 Responses



Q18 Responses



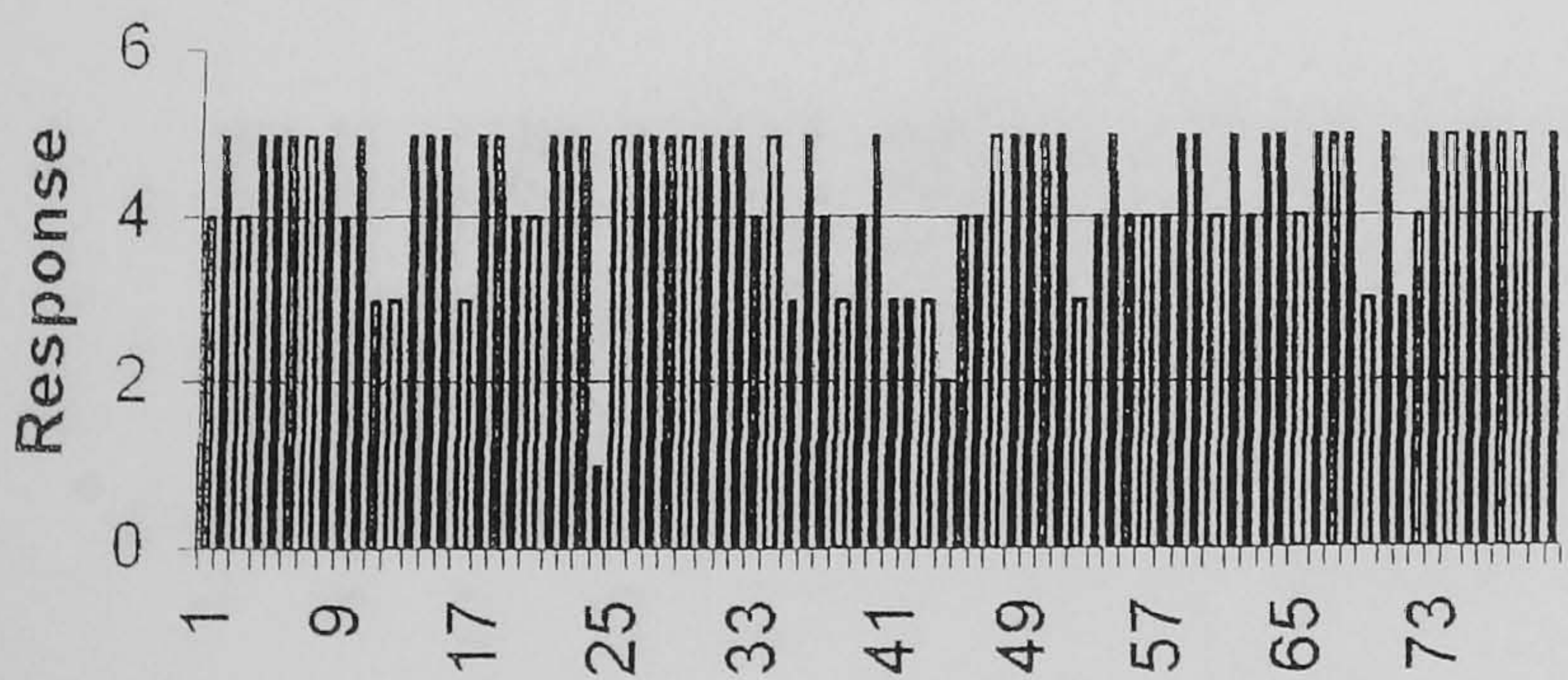
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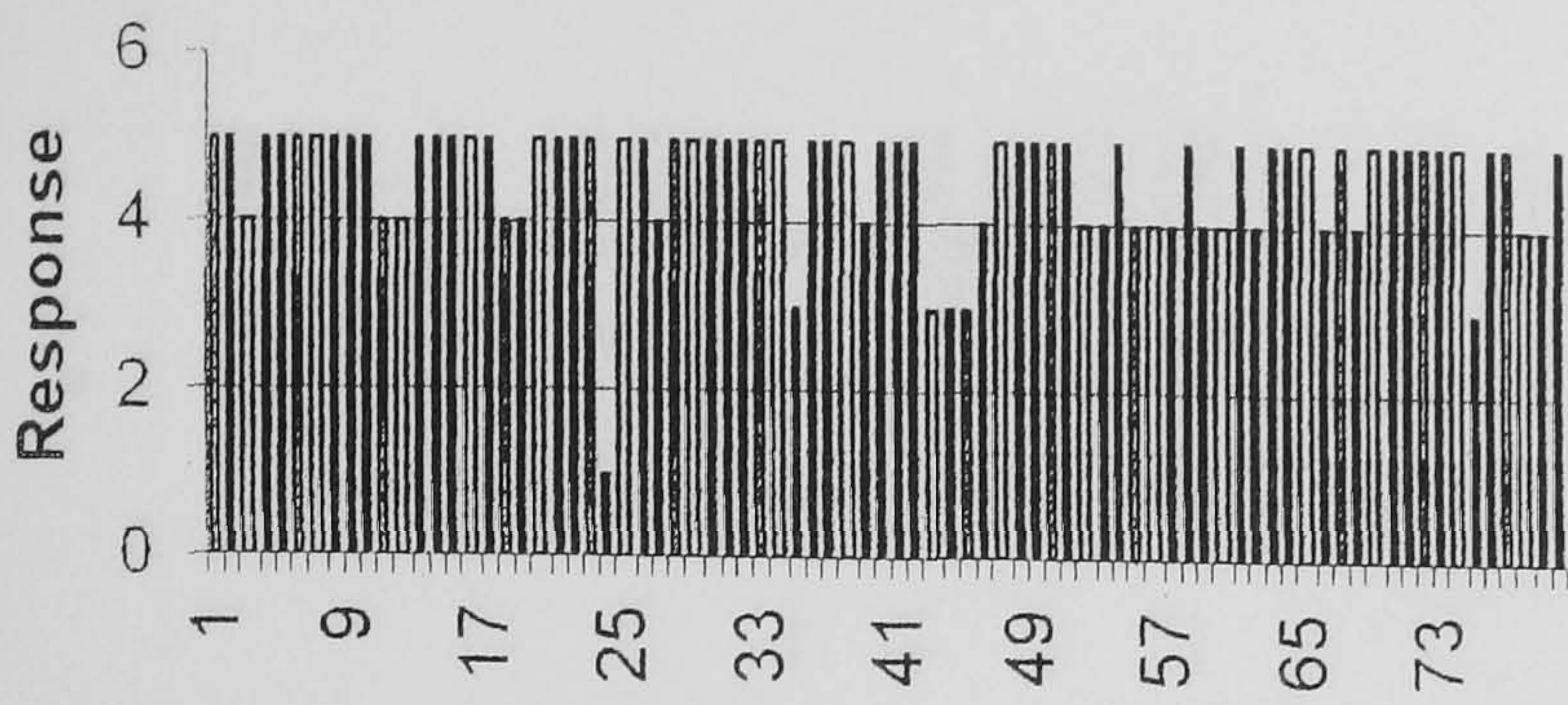
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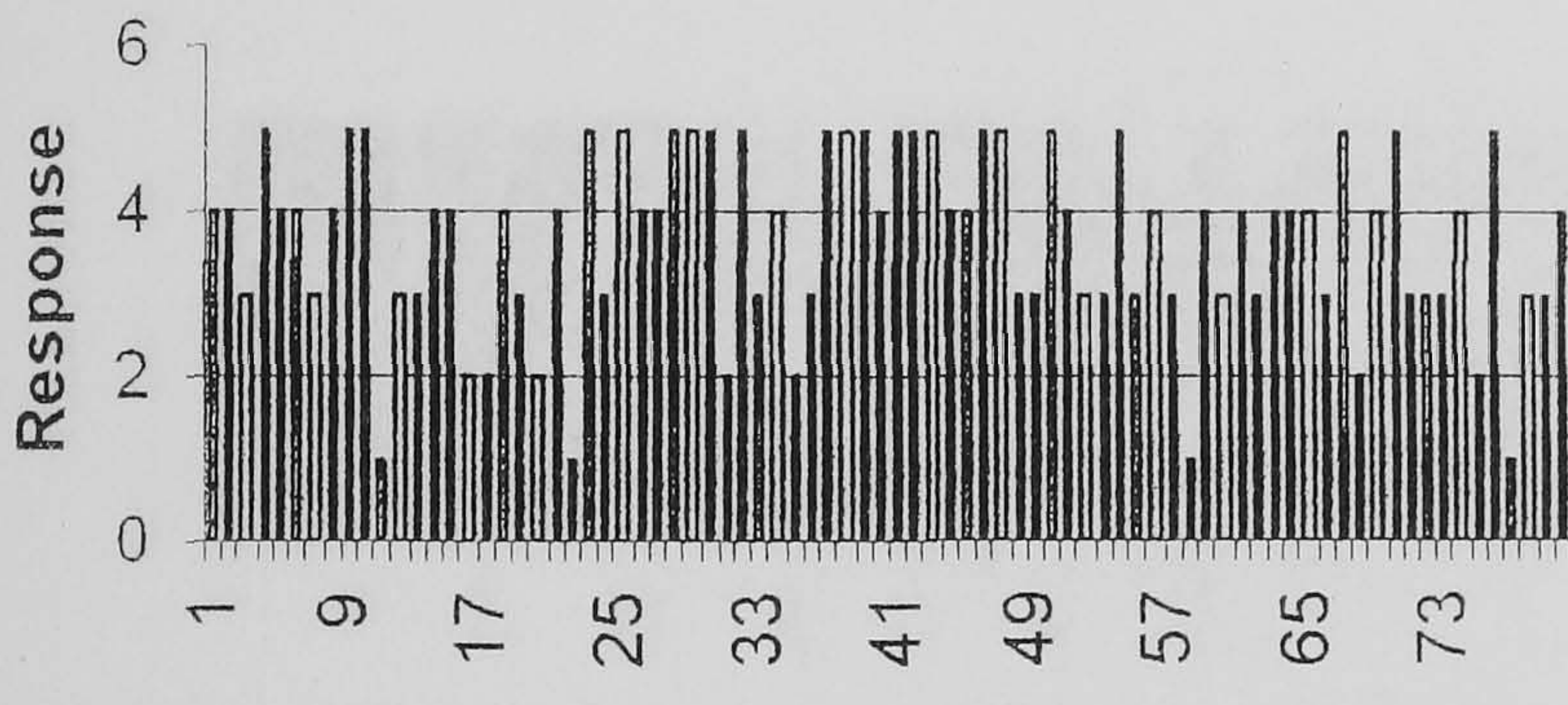
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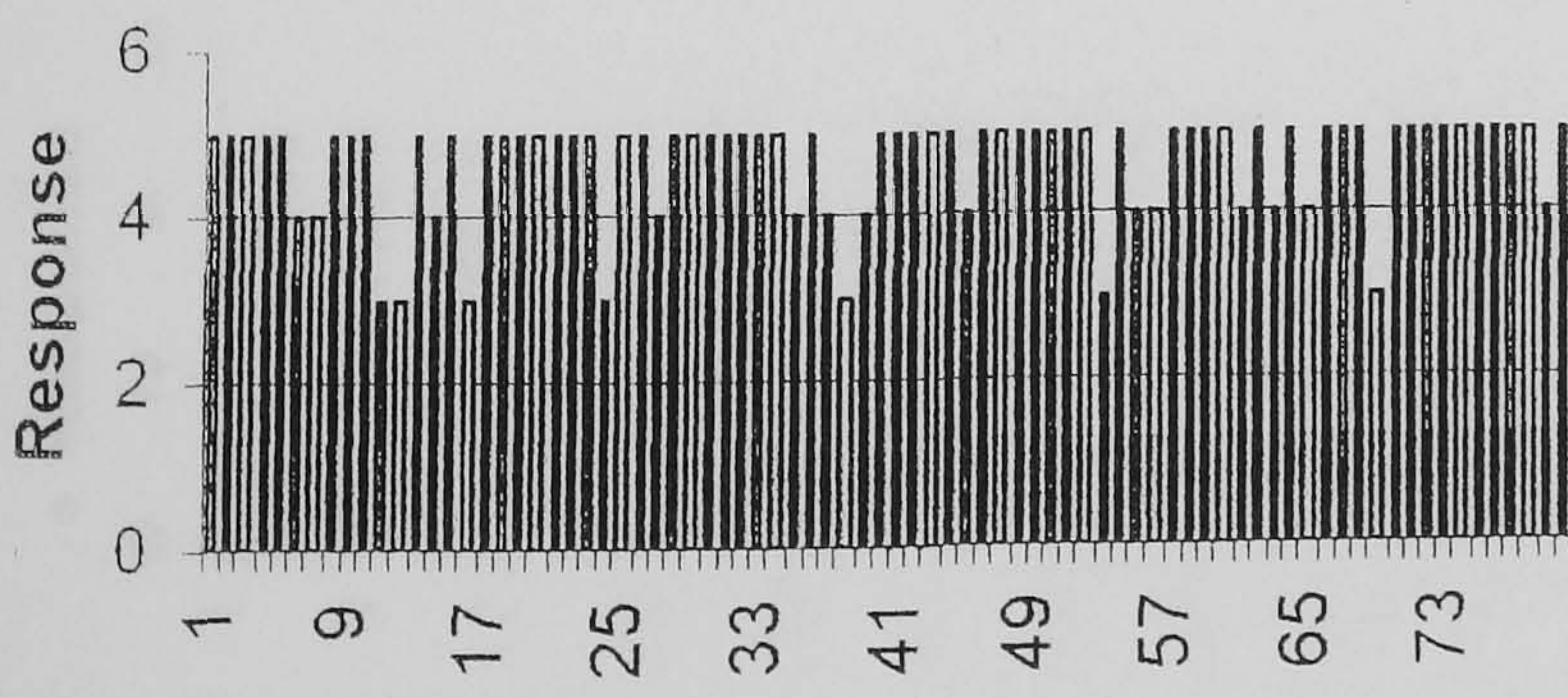
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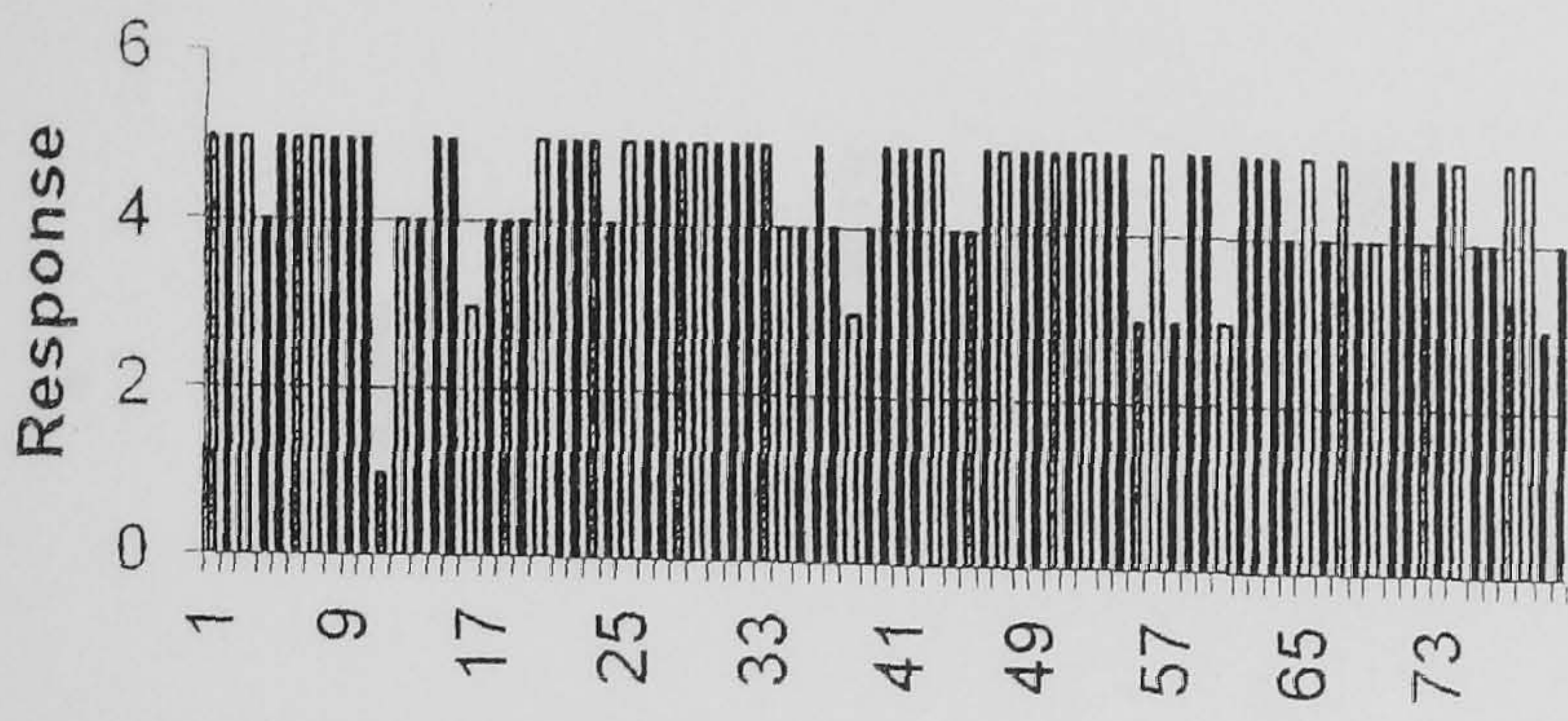
Q23 Responses



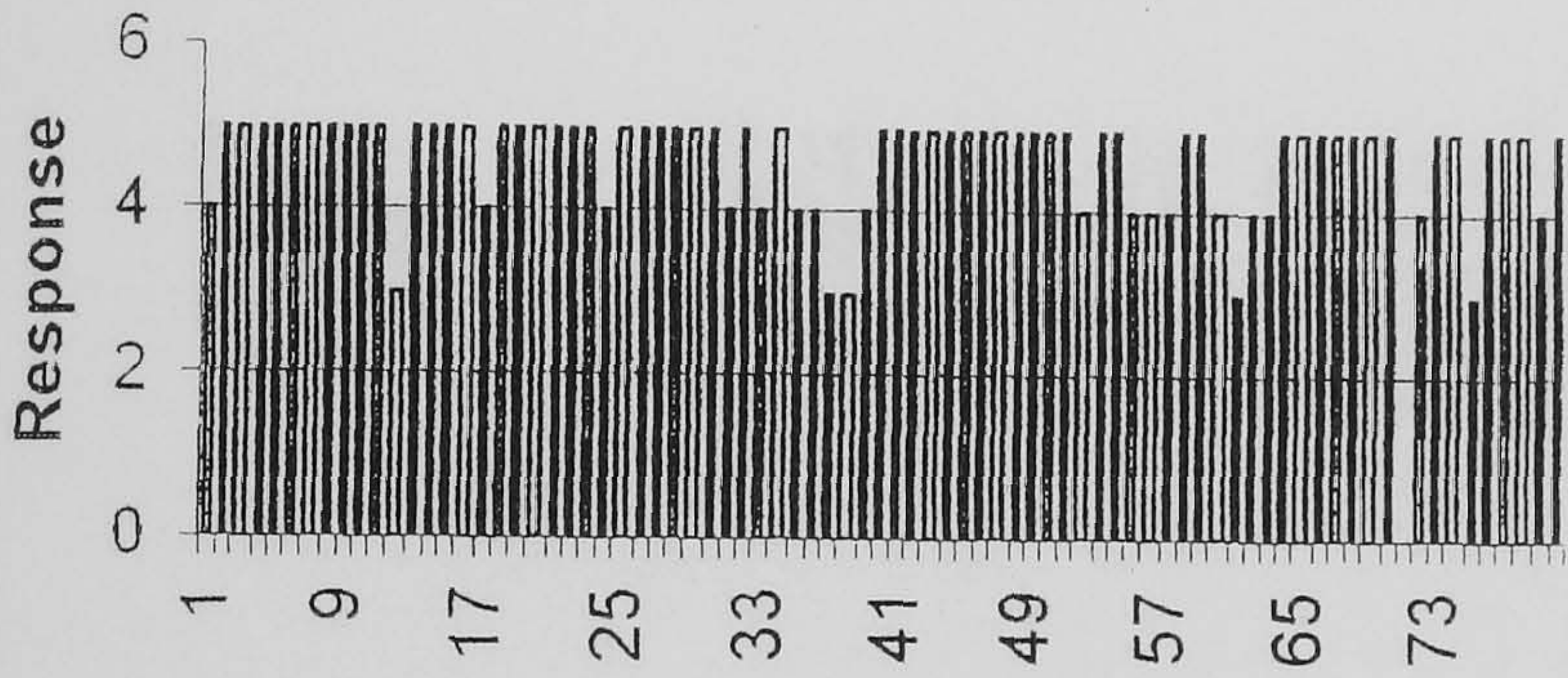
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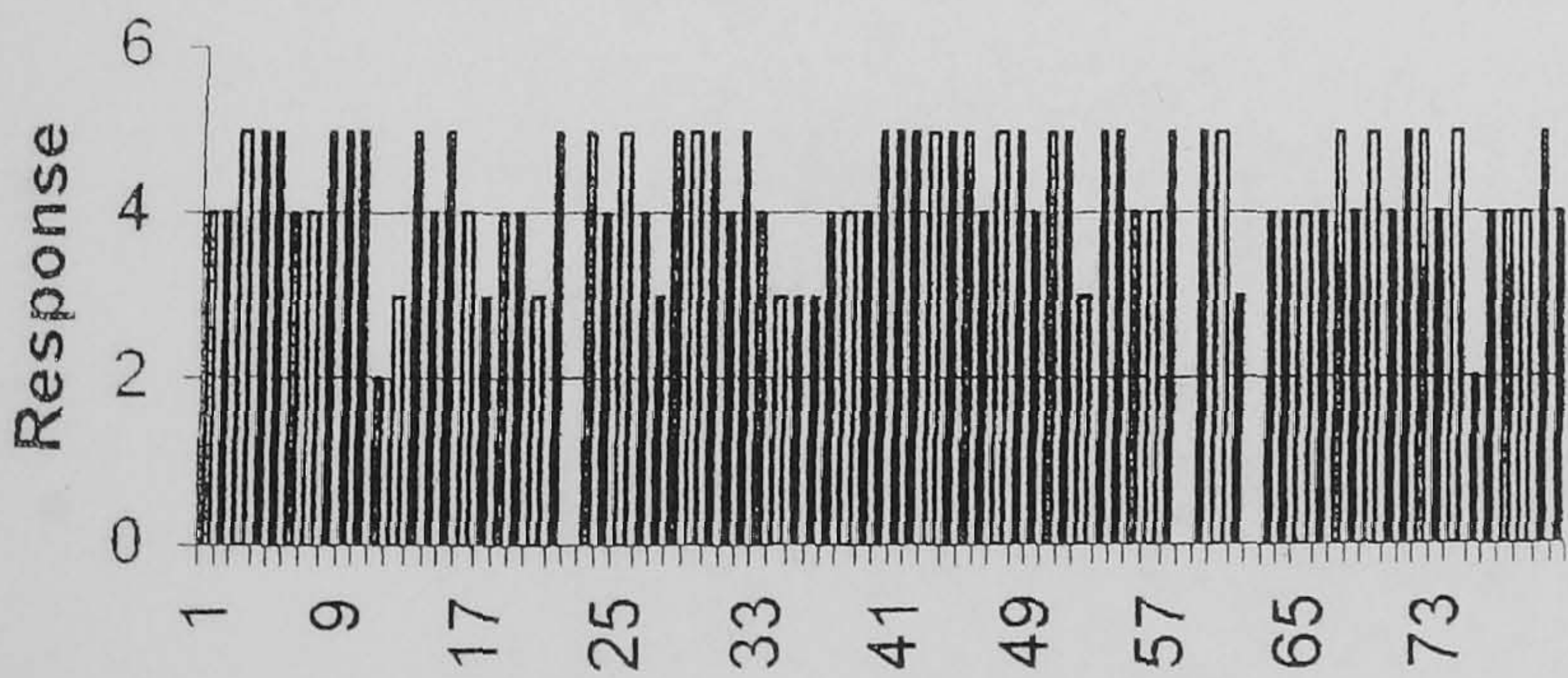
Q25 Responses



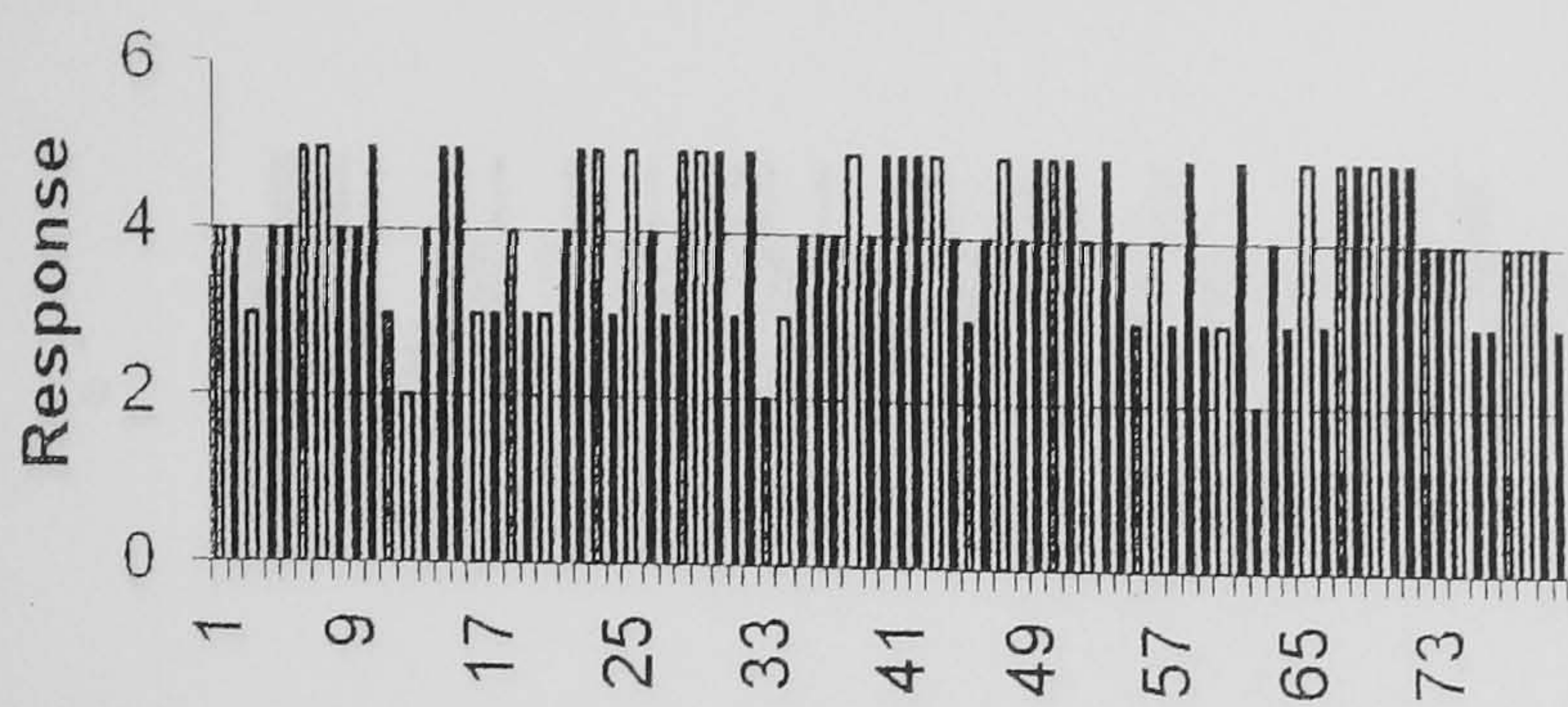
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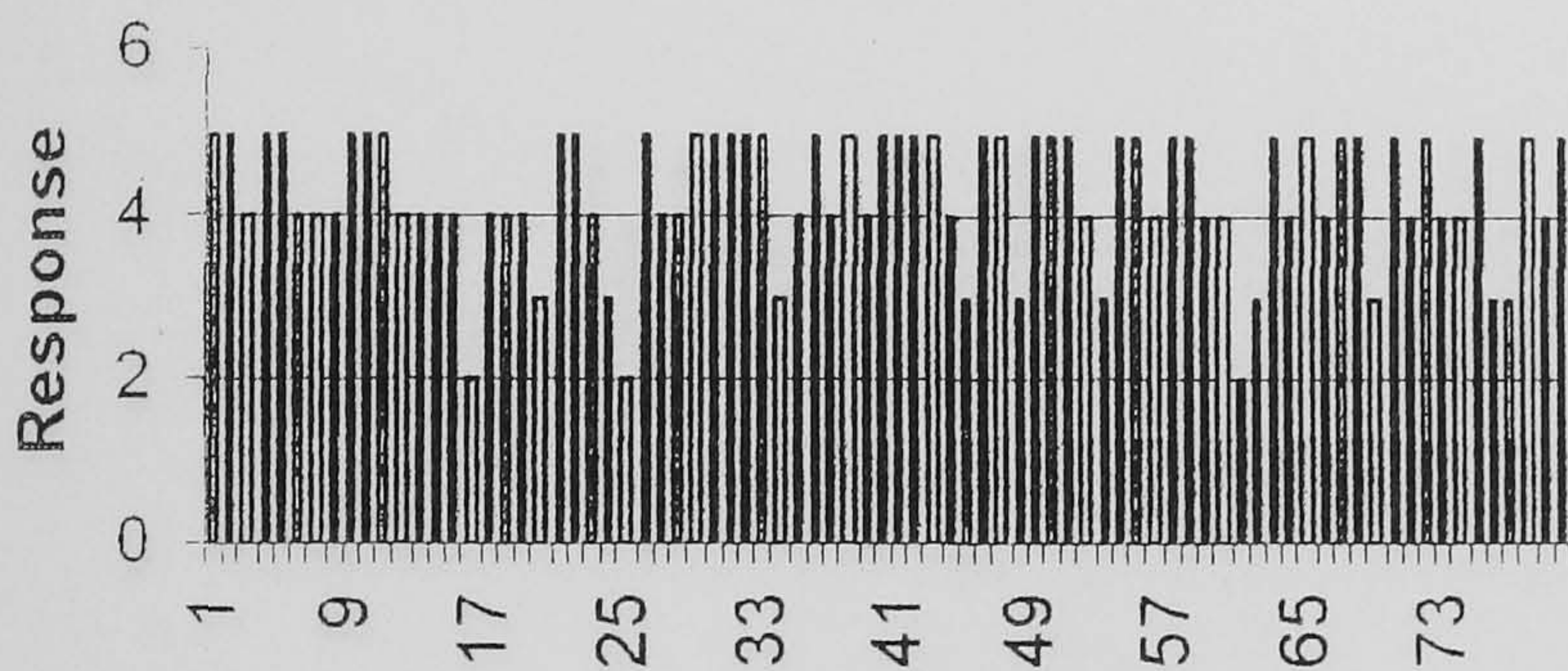
Q27 Responses



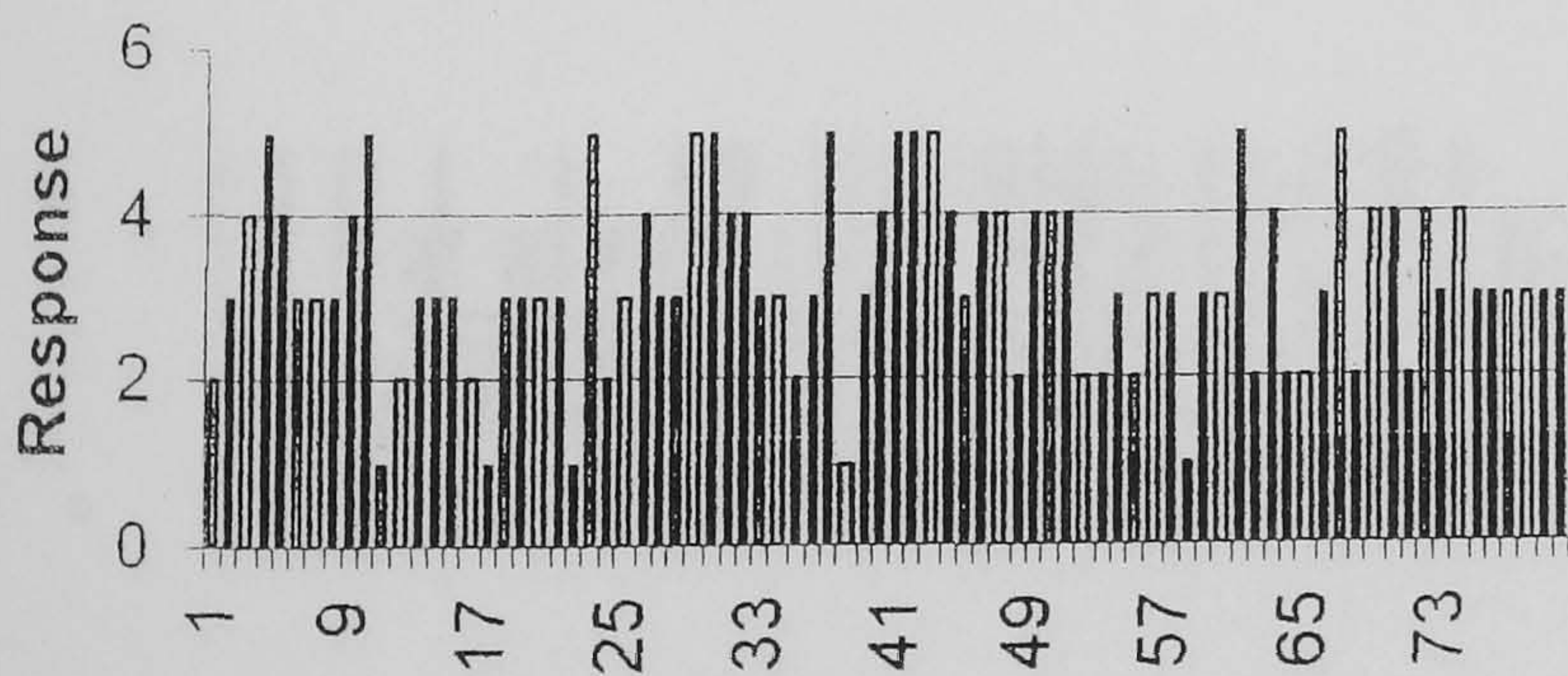
Q28 Responses



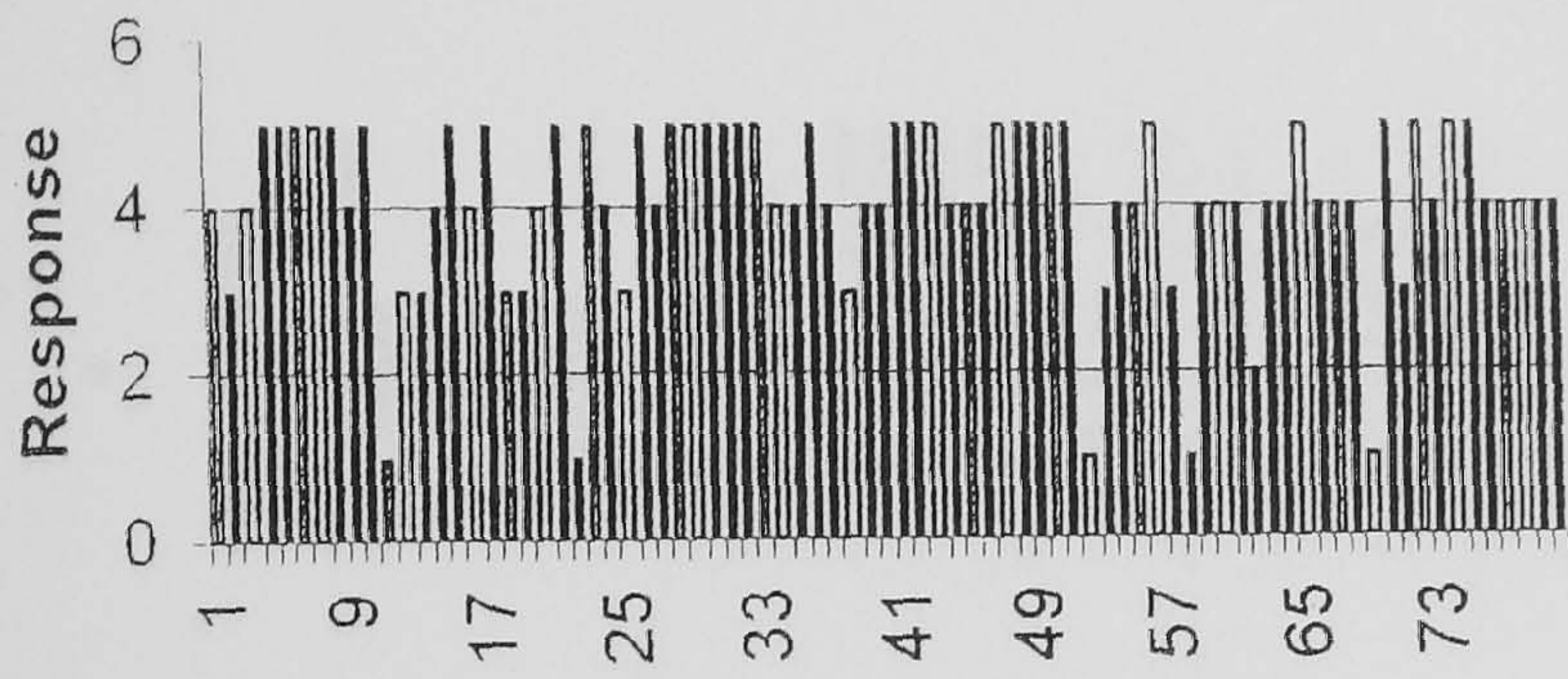
Q29 Responses



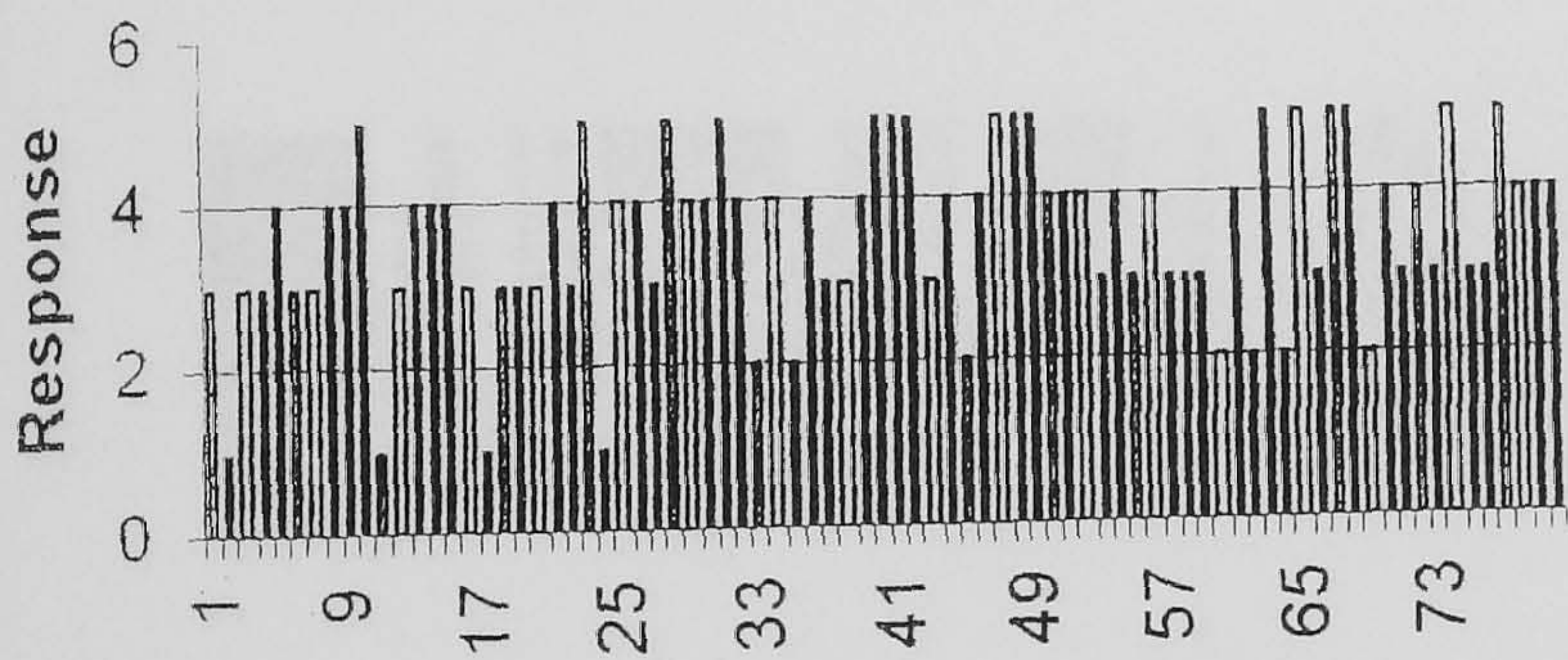
Q30 Responses



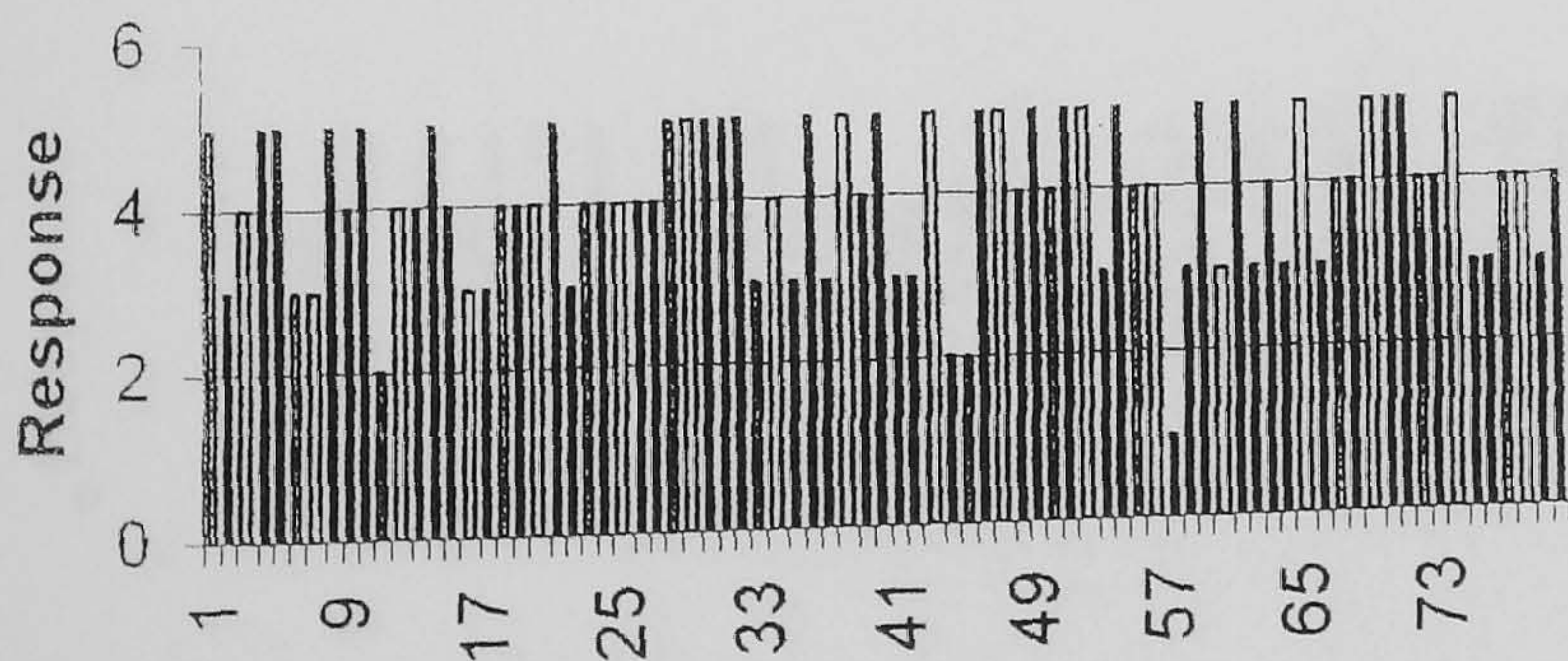
Q31 Responses



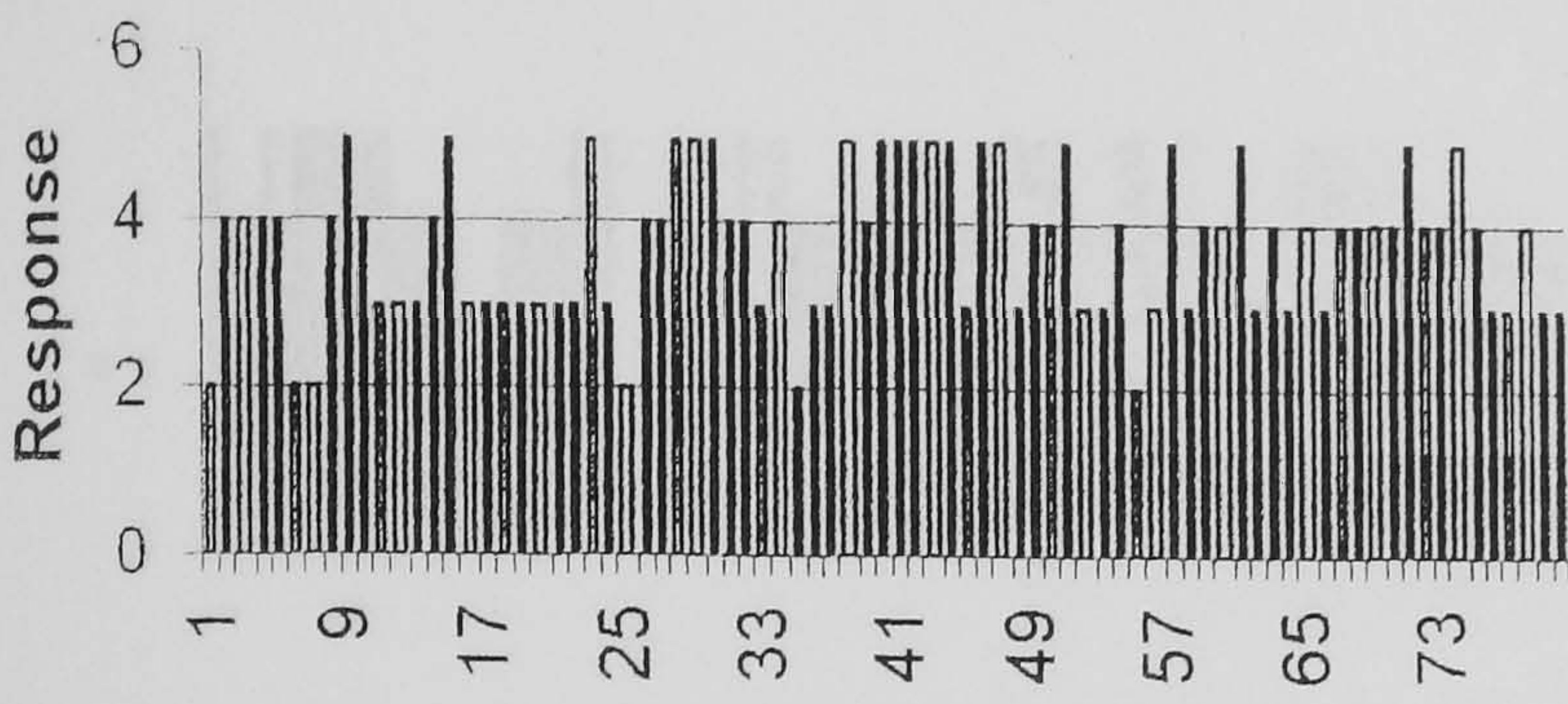
Q32 Responses



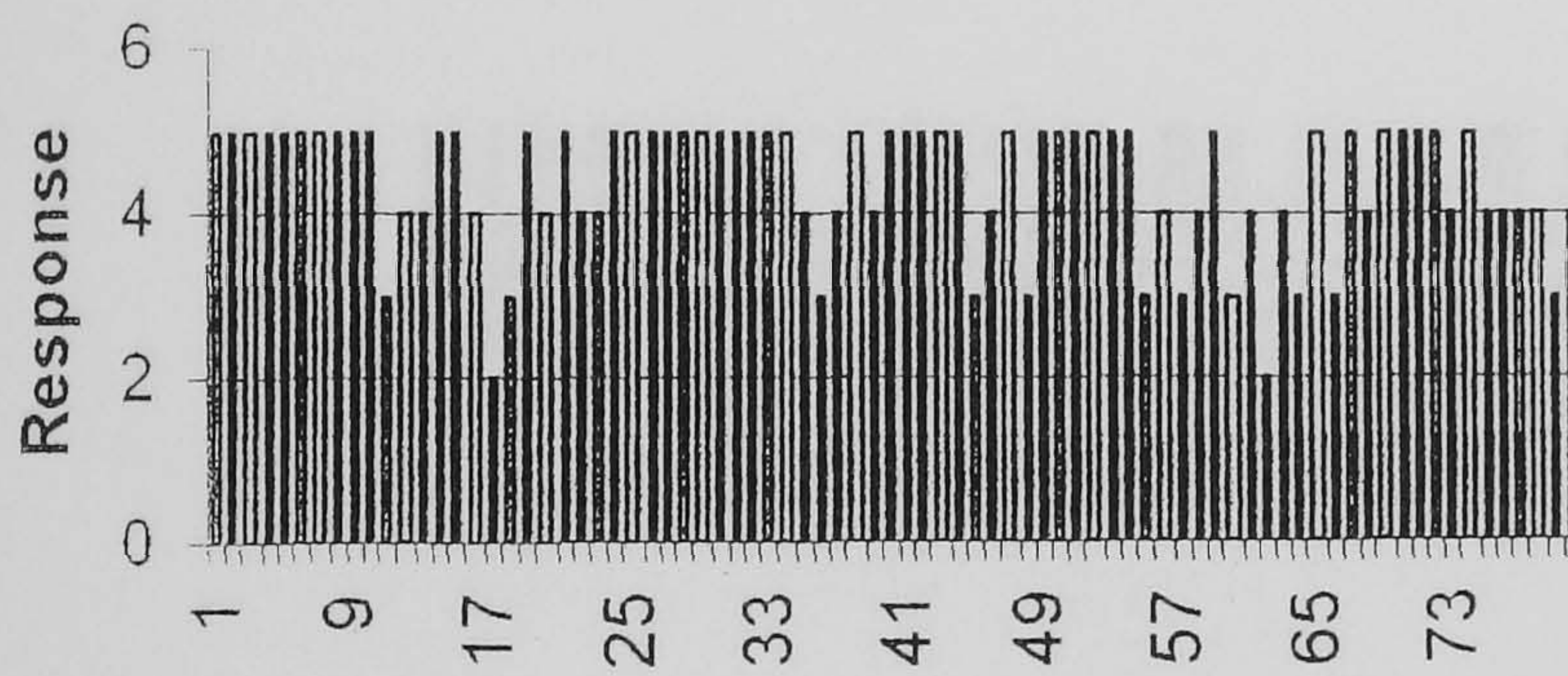
Q33 Responses



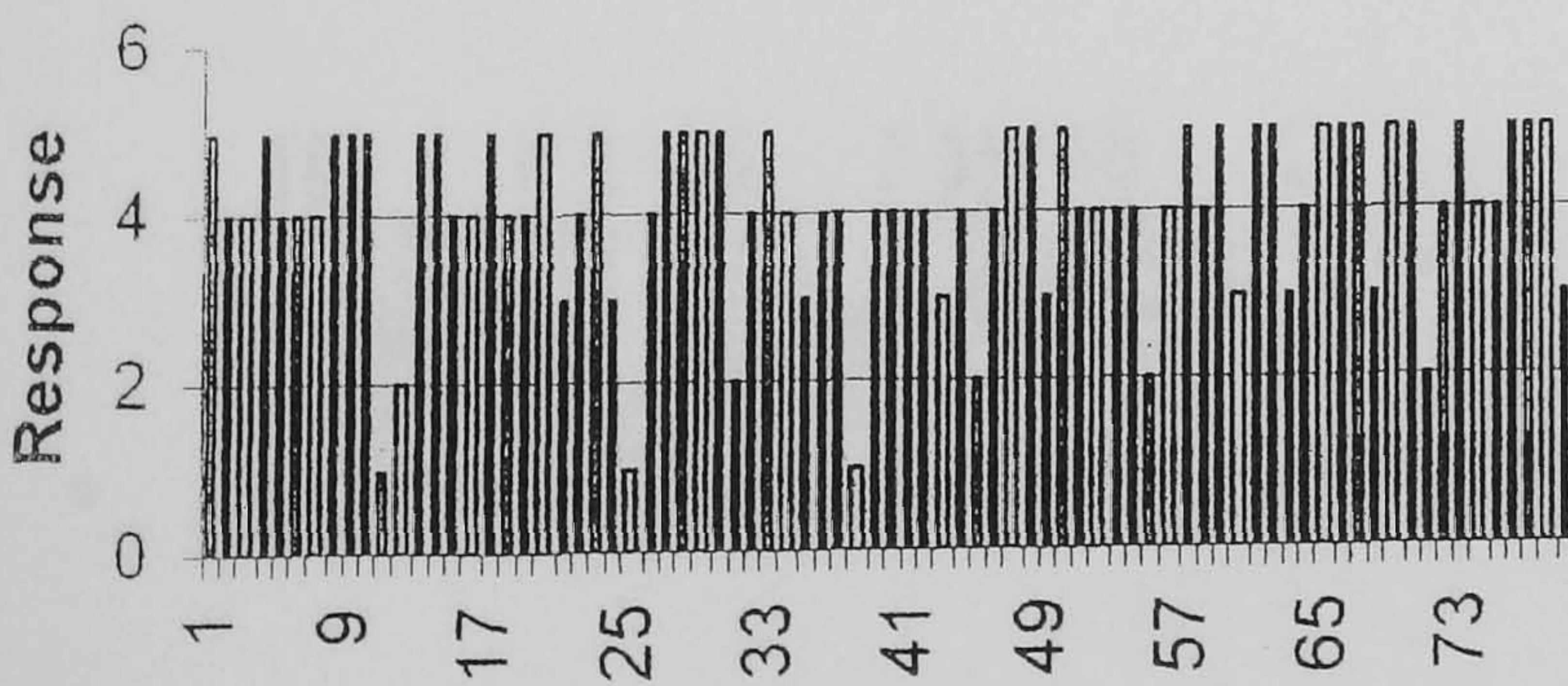
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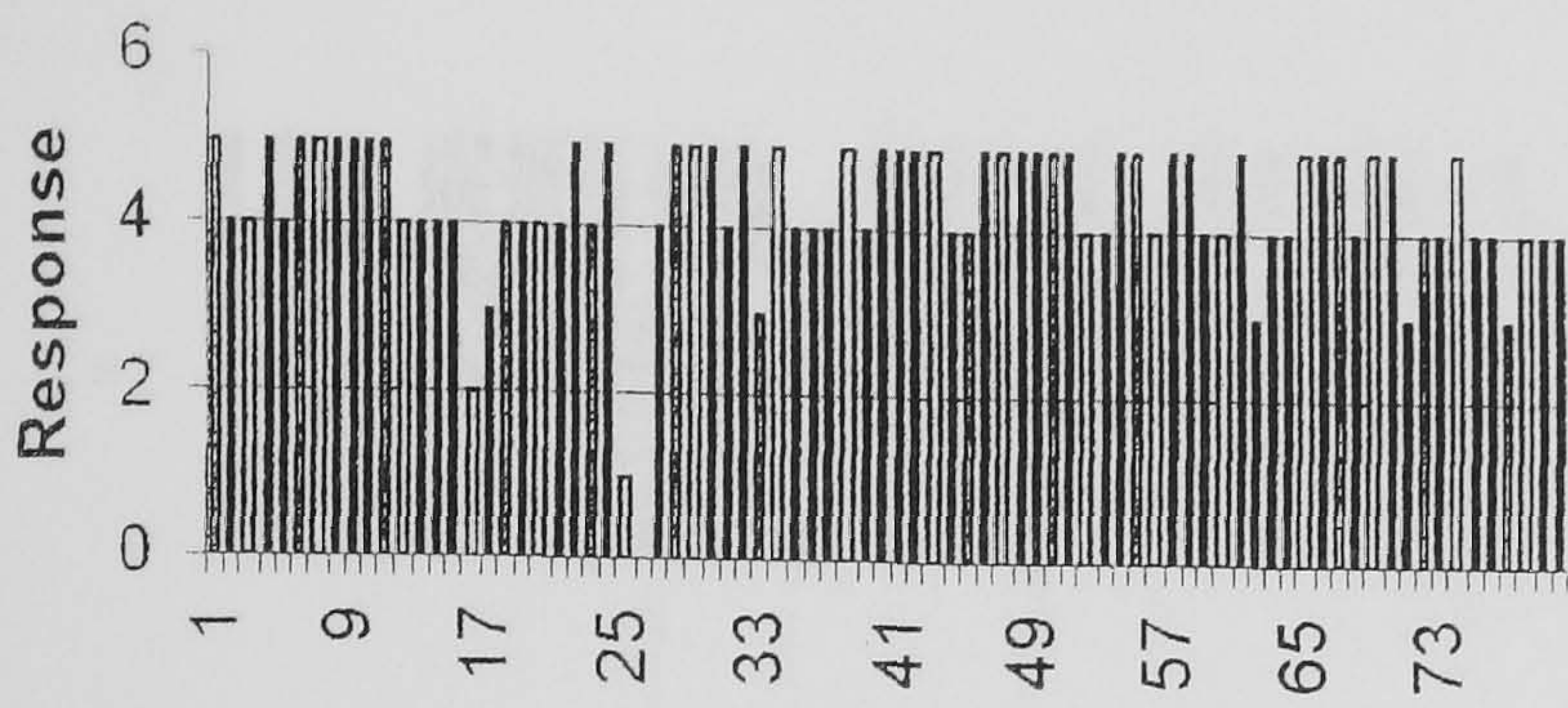
Q35 Responses



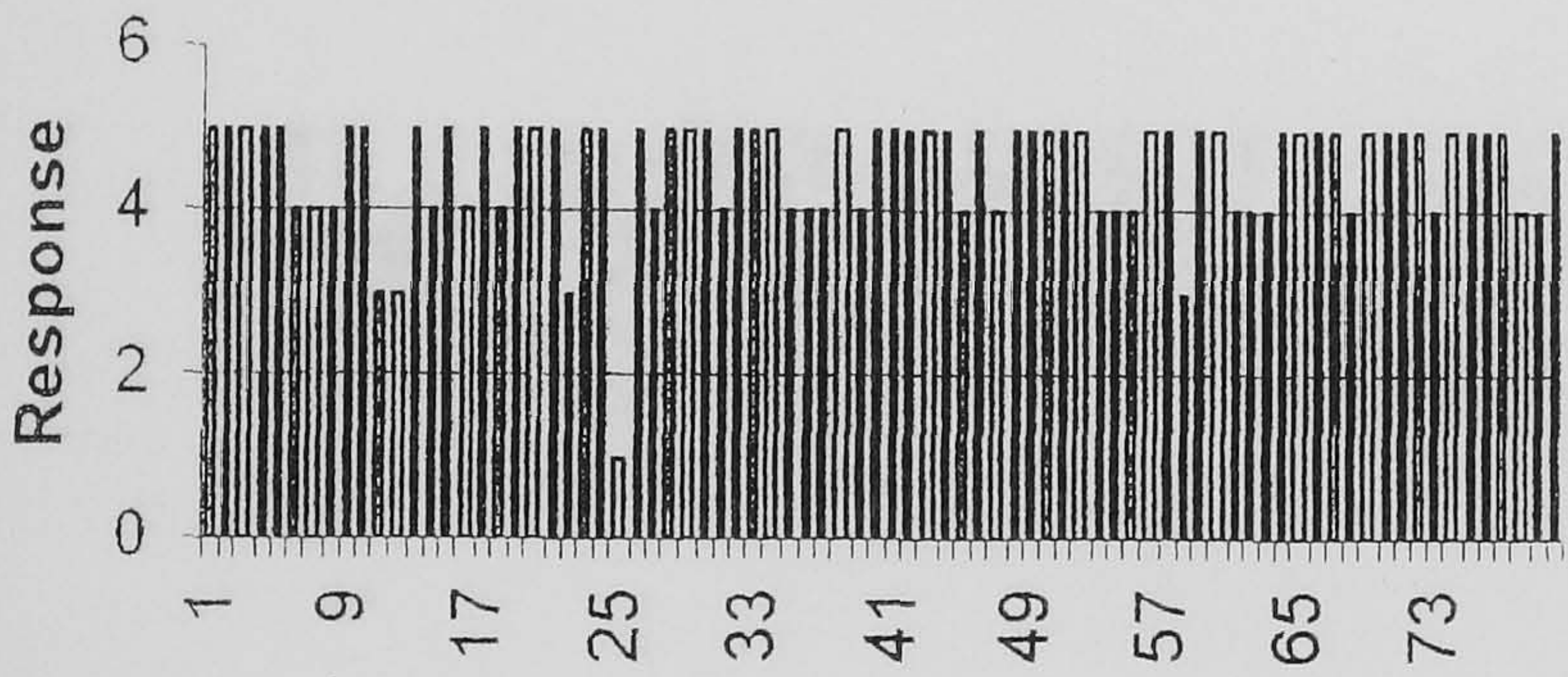
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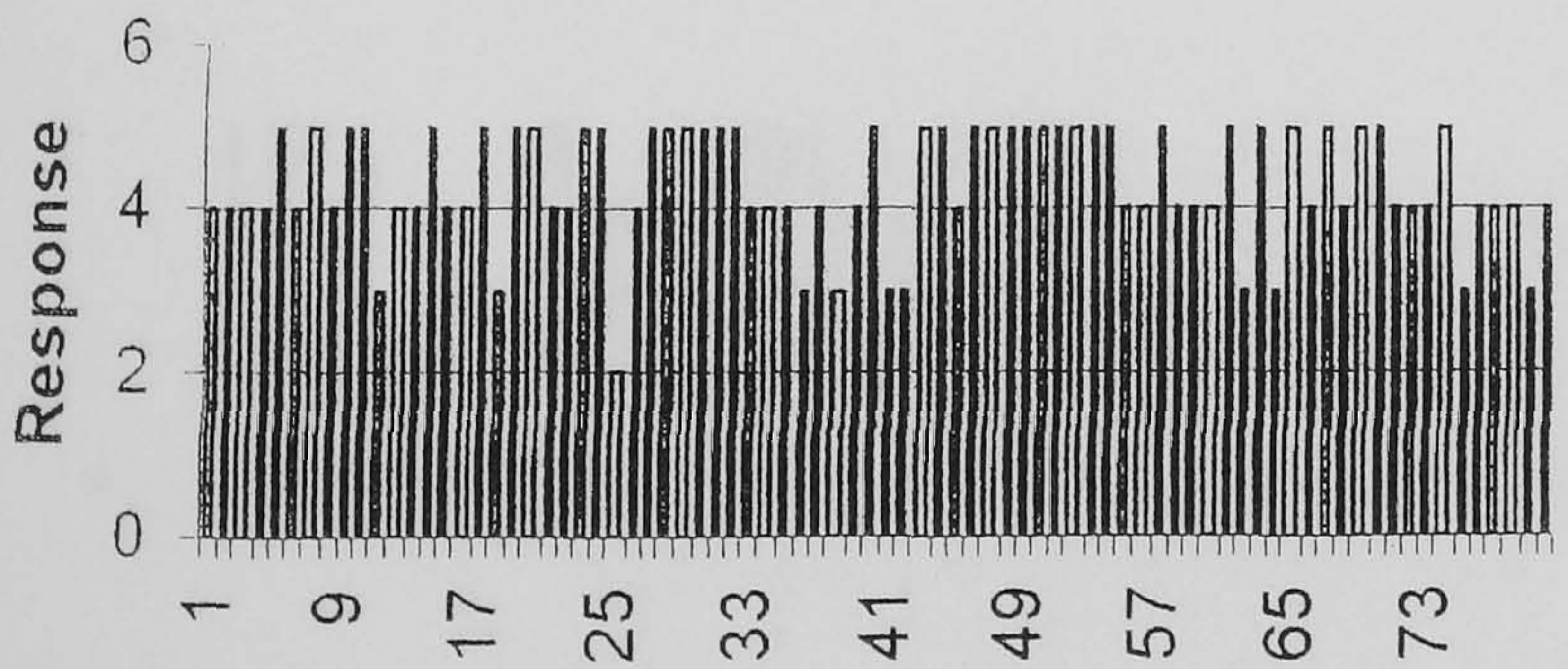
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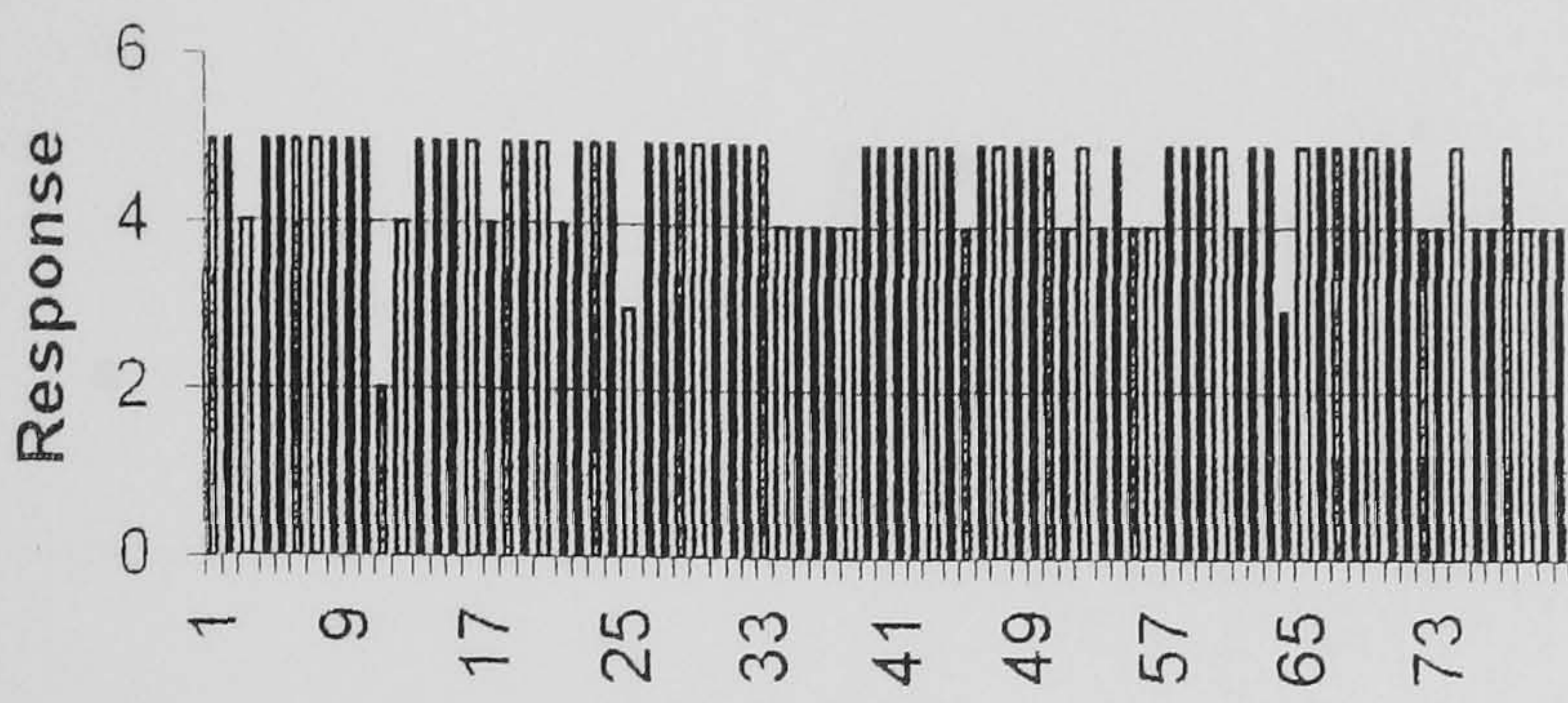
Q38 Responses



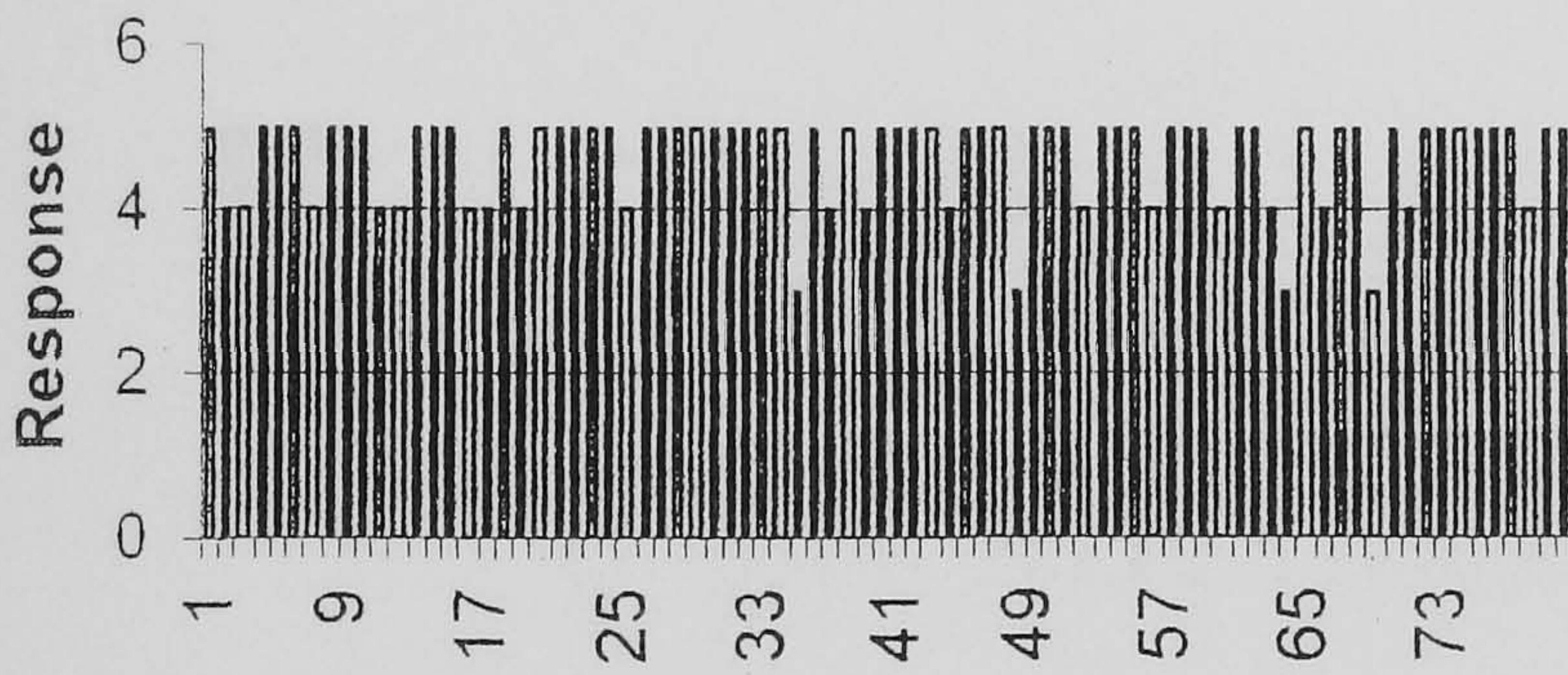
Q39 Responses



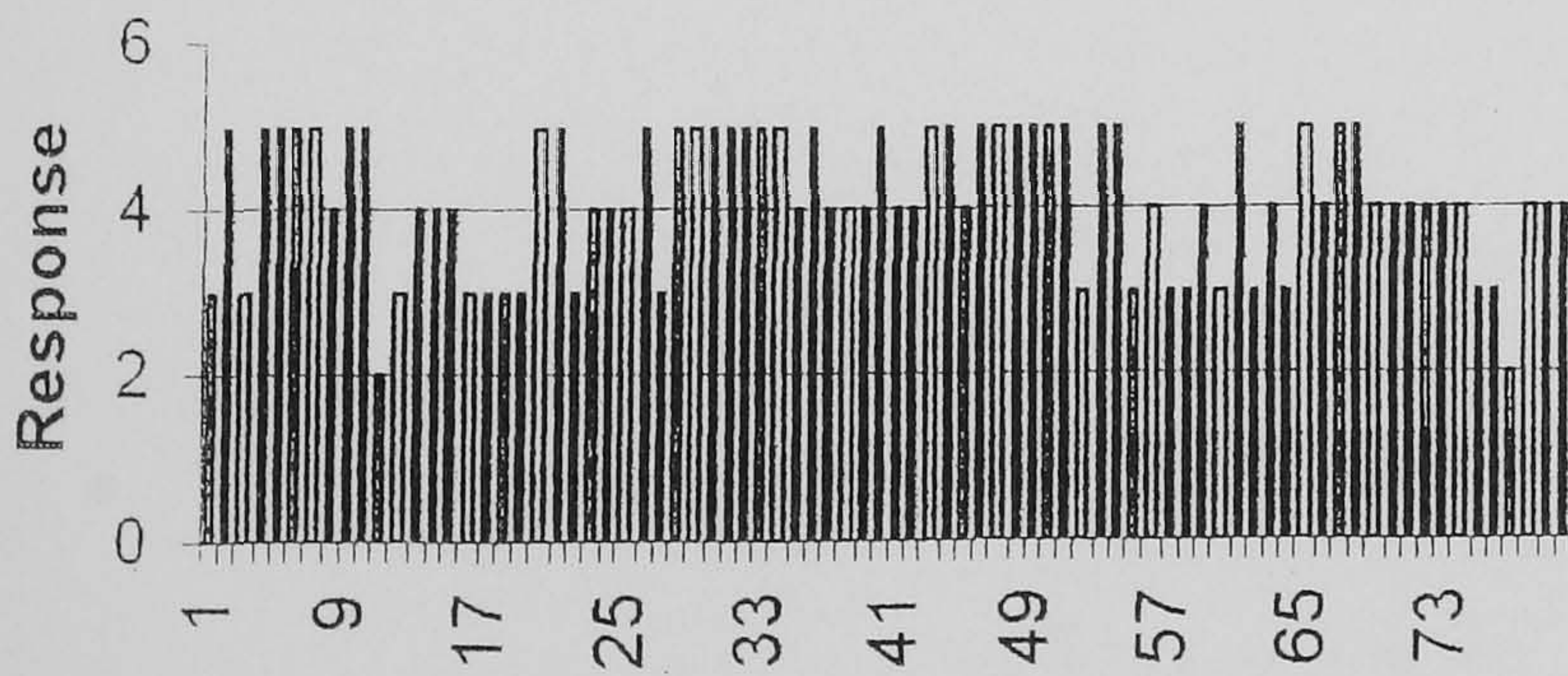
Q40 Responses



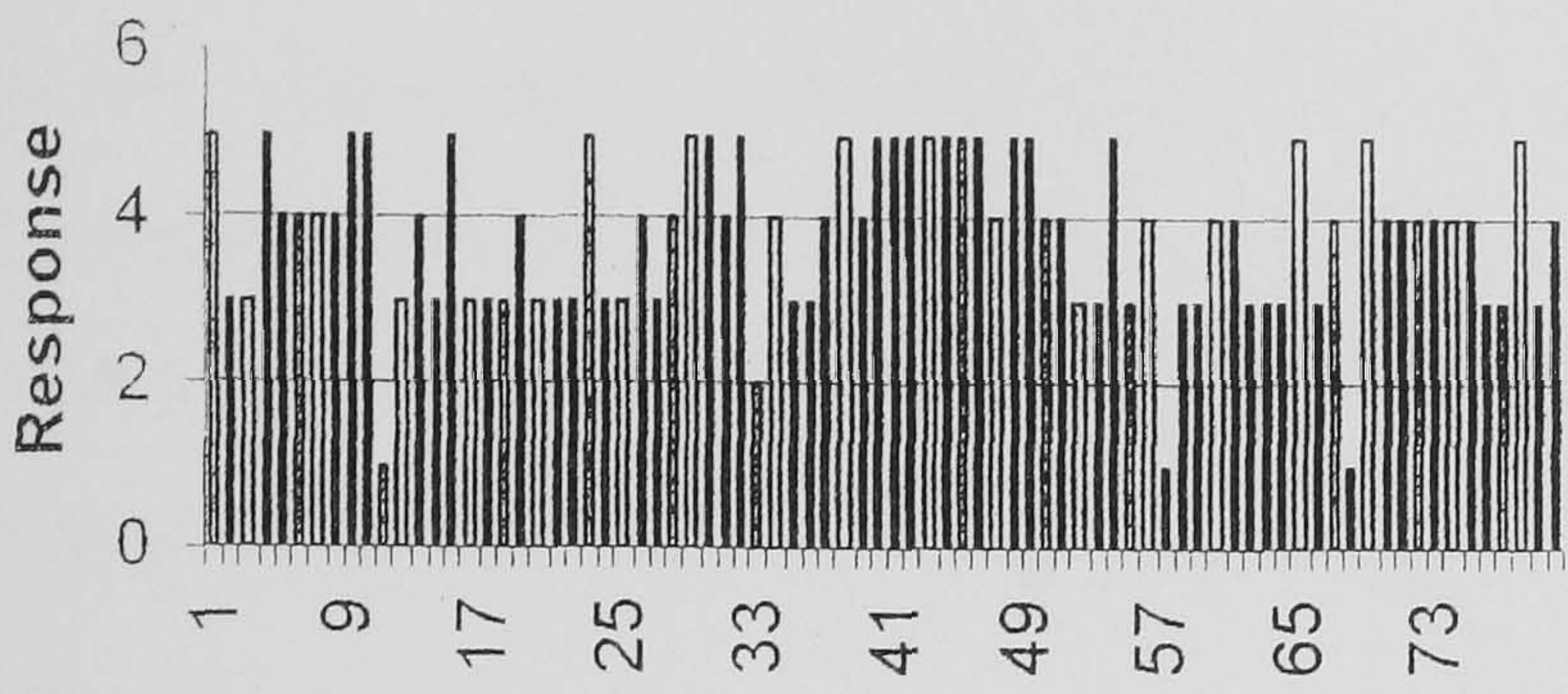
Q41 Responses



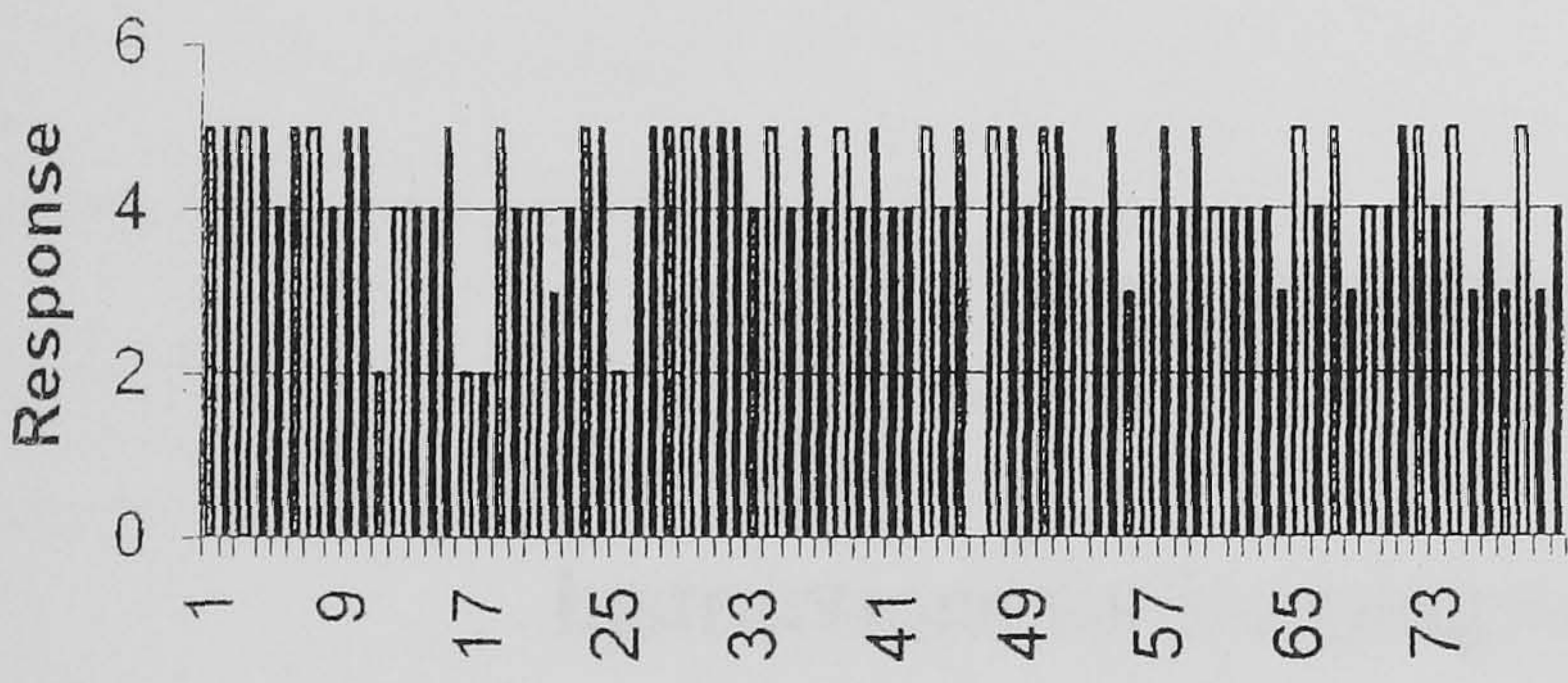
Q42 Responses



Q43 Responses



Q44 Responses



Appendix G

Instructions for keeping reflective diaries

INSTRUCTIONS FOR KEEPING REFLECTIVE DIARIES

Reflective diaries are one way in which you can develop professionally. In terms of challenging behaviour, the responses to the incidents that occur in the classroom involve your emotions and attitudes, and a reflective diary is a way of examining and perhaps seeing ways for modifying your response.

The purpose of this reflective diary is to record critical incidents that occur in the classroom, and how you manage them. A useful framework to follow when recording the incidents might be as follows:

- Context Give a brief description of classroom activity, curricular area
- Episode Give a brief description of the actual event or incident. Who was involved?
- Response What did you do?
- Strategies Describe the strategies you used. Did they work?
- Support What aspects of the schools support system did you access, if any. How useful was it? How could it have been improved?

Reactions/ feelings

How did you feel? Did this affect your reaction? What was your reaction? Reflect on how this might affect your response next time a similar incident occurs.

Try to keep a diary for the next six weeks. I shall be available for support if you need me. Diaries can be totally anonymous; there is no need to reveal your identity.

After six weeks I shall phone the schools and ask if there are any diaries for collection and I shall personally uplift them.

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