School Discipline in the United Kingdom: Promoting Classroom Behaviour Which Encourages Effective Teaching and Learning.

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SCHOOL DISCIPLINE IN THE UNITED KINGDOM: PROMOTING CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR WHICH ENCOURAGES EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Good behaviour and discipline are key foundations of good education. Without an orderly atmosphere, effective teaching and learning cannot take place.

Department for Education (1994a)

Abstract: The problem of disruptive behaviour in schools may have been around for some time, but it has recently resurfaced as a major social and political issue. As public concern has risen, so have expectations that this problem area should be managed more effectively by school staff. In this paper, a number of important dimensions of problem behaviour in schools are examined and an attempt is made to place the magnitude of this problem in perspective. A number of government initiatives are summarized and a promising model for helping school staff work at a variety of levels to manage unwanted activities and promote positive pupil behaviour is described. Finally, some key areas for future development are discussed. These are: developing a curriculum for individual pupils; teaching self-regulatory techniques; using mentoring and peer support; and enhancing intrinsic motivation.

Introductory Remarks

Problem behaviour in the classroom affects a wide variety of people. It threatens the security and attainments of other pupils and is a source of stress for staff, sometimes lending to a confidence crisis or even depression (cf. Dunham, 1984). For the disruptive pupil too, there can be negative consequences, including delinquency (West, 1982) and severe academic underachievement (Hinshaw, 1992). Improving the management of this problem is also likely to have widespread benefits not only for mini-systems like schools, but also for society at large.

The general term, conduct disorder, spans a wide range of behaviours, all of which can be considered to be antisocial to some degree (Gardner, 1992). The definition of disruptive behaviour includes any behaviour which appears problematic, inappropriate or disturbing to teachers (Galloway and Rogers, 1994). Since descriptions like these are likely to be too broad to act as a baseline for systematic observation, a more detailed breakdown of the types of unwanted behaviour observed in classrooms may be useful.

Disruptive behaviour can be viewed pragmatically using the following five categories:

(i) aggressive behaviour (e.g. hitting, pulling hair, kicking, pushing, using abusive language);

(ii) physically disruptive behaviour (e.g. smashing or damaging or defacing objects, throwing objects, physically annoying other pupils);

(iii) socially disruptive behaviour (e.g. screaming, running away, exhibiting temper tantrums);

(iv) authority-challenging behaviour (e.g. refusing to carry out requests, exhibiting defiant verbal and non-verbal behaviour, using pejorative language);

(v) self-disruptive behaviour (e.g. daydreaming, reading comics under the desk, completing "Fantasy Football" forms). It may be noted that although it may not disrupt the teacher or other pupils, such behaviour is likely to interfere considerably with the pupil's academic attainments.

While any one of these types of behaviour is likely to be disruptive for teachers and other pupils, frequency, magnitude and multi-category characteristics are often key factors for school staff when requesting the advice of visiting support professionals (or excluding the pupil from school).

Current Perspectives of Disruptive Behaviour

Although it has been smouldering in the background for many years, disruptive behaviour in school has recently become a red-hot issue in the United Kingdom. There are many reasons for the rediscovery of this long-standing problem in education including media focus on individual pupils who exhibit dramatic and disturbing features of conduct disorder and on schools who are perceived as having unusually high numbers of pupils deemed unteachable. Additionally, British schools in the 1990s have become highly sensitive about their perceived image, parents' expectations have continued to increase and government legislation has demanded higher levels of discipline from school staff.

The above factors have combined to produce a shift in public opinion from a grudging acceptance that misbehaviour in and out of school has always been the norm, to a less tolerant stance that something needs to be done about it. Seriously disruptive behaviour is now viewed by the media and the public as a phenomenon which is increasing in frequency and severity, and occurring at a much earlier age in children. What is the evidence for such public disquiet? What do we know about the nature of this problem? How can we begin to understand disruptive behaviour in our schools? Even more important, what is the best way to manage such behaviour?

A survey of the now-copious literature relating to disruptive behaviour in school indicates the following features:

a) The Gender Dimension. Boys outnumber girls in this problem area. A survey by the UK Secondary School Headteachers Association (1992) showed that boys were four times more likely to be excluded from school than girls, and a report for the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted, 1993a) noted that the boy-girl ratio in co-ed special schools for children with emotional and behavioural difficulties varied from 4-1 to as much as 40-1. Campbell (1996) provides an insightful psychological explanation of the gender dimension, in terms of differences in the competitive interpersonal orientation of boys as compared with the more co-operative orientation of girls.

(b) The Ethnic Dimension. Some reports (e.g., Ofsted, 1993a; Bourne, Bridge and Searle, 1994; Ofsted, 1997) have highlighted the long-documented problem of pupils with African or Afro-Caribbean origins who are over-represented in the UK exclusion figures. Some of the likely underlying cognitive processes suggested in the research literature include misperceptions and misunderstandings of the behaviour of ethnic groups (Gilb

orn, 1993), especially white teachers' misinterpretations of young black male behaviours, dress and language (Runnymede Trust, 1996).

(c) The Parental Dimension. In her survey of factors most likely to cause behaviour problems in children, Douglas (1989) concluded that the manner in which parents managed their children's behaviour was probably one of the most important factors in the development of behavioural difficulties. A number of additional family-based factors have also been shown to be associated with behaviour problems including parental neglect, poor maternal and domestic care under the age of five, family conflict, divorce and the absence of good relationships with either parent (Audit Commission, 1996; Offord, 1987). Some possible causal mechanisms linking family dynamics and beliefs with problem behaviour in children are discussed in Gardner (op. cit.).

(d) The School Dimension. After nearly 30 years of research into the effectiveness of schools, Reynolds (1995) summarized the consensus which now exists in educational circles as the destruction of the belief that schools can do nothing to change the society around them and the laying to rest of the myth that the influence of family background is so strong on children's development that they are unable to be affected by school.

However, Reynolds also warned of the dangers of the popular view that schools do not just make a difference, they make the difference. This point of view was developed by Galloway and Rogers (op. tit.) who have argued that it is important to consider a link between quality of school and classroom climate on the one hand, and the attitudinal and motivational factors which influence the behaviour of pupils on the other.

These four dimensions are a reminder of just some of the complex factors which underlie the problem of disruptive behaviour in schools and a challenge to any expectations that simple or narrowly-focused interventions will produce instant solutions.

Behaviour in Perspective

Given current public views about the size and severity of behaviour problems in UK schools, it is difficult for people working in education (educational psychologists included) to maintain a balanced perspective. While not wishing to diminish what is clearly a problem in today's schools, it is also important to begin what is a nationwide task of managing disruptive behaviour from a real rather than a perceived baseline.

Although it was noted that problem schools existed and that the behaviour of a small number of pupils in them was described as unacceptable, the overall findings of the Annual Report of HM Chief Inspector (Ofsted, 1993b) was that most schools were successful in promoting good behaviour and discipline, were "orderly" and had an overall standard of pupil behaviour which was "satisfactory or better".

Similarly, a large scale observational study of primary schools, sponsored by the Leverhume Trust (Wragg, 1993) confirmed this general picture of orderliness. The three main categories of misbehaviour noted were noisy chatter, movement without permission and the illicit use of materials. The teacher's management had led to a cessation or marked reduction in misbehaviour on 96 per cent of occasions.

Most of the teachers observed in the Leverhume Trust survey had "secured good relationships with the children and a high work rate" in their classroom. Teacher effectiveness lay partly in raising children's self image (by alerting the whole group to positive ac

hievement) and partly in clear classroom rules, fairly and consistently enforced, all deftly laced with well-received humour.

While recognizing that the behaviour of a minority of pupils was "problematic," Galloway (1987) concluded that there was no evidence to suggest a dramatic increase in the prevalence or magnitude of such behaviour. However, although evidence of what is actually going on in our schools may lighten the gloomy perspective of the general public, the tasks of managing disruptive behaviour and promoting positive behaviour in the classroom are likely to remain areas where the demand for psychological explanations and advice is likely to continue.

Some Suggested Remedies

Inappropriate classroom behaviour is neither a simple nor indeed a single phenomenon (cf. Freude, 1990), yet the political search for simple answers has continued. The Education Act 1996 has concentrated mainly on giving schools powers to detain pupils after school (without parental consent); to exclude pupils for up to 45 days in a year; and to refuse to admit a child unless parents have signed a home-school agreement.

More generally in the field of special needs, the Code of Practice for the Identification and Assessment of Special Needs (DfE, 1994b) emphasized a carefully planned and recorded series of stages which schools should invoke to meet the needs of pupils who have problems. At stage 1, any cause for concern raised by class or subject teachers is discussed with the Special Educational Needs Co-ordinator (SENCo) and an informal plan for meeting the pupil's special needs devised.

At stage 2, overseen by the SENCo, more detailed education plans are drawn up and reviewed. If this process has had little or no success, schools can request the advice of external specialists, e.g., educational psychologists, literacy support staff or educational welfare officers (stage 3). For a small number of pupils (estimated at two per cent or less) whose needs are deemed as not being adequately met, a multidisciplinary statutory assessment is carried out and the provision of a legally binding "Statement of Special Needs" is considered (stage 4). At stage 5, when the Statement is issued, the provision and monitoring of additional resources required to meet the needs of the pupil are specified.

(For a user-friendly account of the role of the SENCo, the provision of individual behaviour plans at stages 2 and 3 of the Code of Practice, and details of stages 4 and 5 with special reference to behaviour difficulties, the series of supplements produced by the journal Special Children are recommended: see Moss, 1996.)

A short but useful historical perspective of special school approaches to the management of disruptive behaviour has been provided by Topping (1990). His conclusion was that within-school measures may offer more promise than more traditional, segregated special schools or units. Certainly, inspections of pupil referral units (off-site provisions for children excluded from school which were set up as a result of the Education Act 1993) indicated variable standards of behaviour and generally a low level of pupil attainment (HM Inspectorate, 1995).

In the case of mainstream education, the efforts of the Department for Education and Employment seem to have concentrated on problem highlighting: suggested remedies

have been conspicuously absent. The 1997 Ofsted survey found that the rise in the number of permanent exclusions and the difficulty in finding alternative placements were swamping some local authorities. Socio-economic factors, the quality of teaching and pupil self-esteem were all seen as being linked with exclusion and it was also noted that "referrals to specialist services were often too late or ineffective", because these services often lacked the resources to cope. The report ended with the traditional observation that more proactive management activities could be initiated by schools themselves.

Some more pragmatic suggestions, which could be introduced at a classroom level, had appeared in an earlier government circular on Pupil Behaviour and Discipline (DfE, 1994a). Strategies recommended for teachers included the use of "fair and consistent" rewards and punishments; the latter might include isolation of the pupil, making pupils complete work, reducing breaks or lunchtimes, after-school detention, withholding privileges such as sports events and school trips, or carrying out tasks in the school.

A Management Model

With regard to classroom and individual pupil management, the Behavioural model has demonstrated that it is possible both to understand and change inappropriate and disruptive behaviour. The traditional framework has been to focus on the antecedents of the behaviour, the behaviour itself, and the consequences which follow the behaviour. This ABC model (see Figure 1) has been described and reviewed by Wheldall and Carter (1996).

Despite its popularity among psychologists (and its reported effectiveness) the traditional ABC model has often been viewed with some suspicion by teachers and educationalists in the mainstream as an approach which overemphasized control, regarded behaviour as fragmented, under-emphasized curriculum management and, worst of all, dismissed contextual factors which are so important in a school or classroom environment.

An overkill of "behaviour modification" in the '70s often led to psychologists offering crude, unrealistic and omni-purpose management strategies (e.g. the introduction of token economies in secondary schools) to deal with what teachers correctly perceived as the complex emotional and behavioural difficulties of their pupils. It was a situation which made many psychologists feel professionally uncomfortable and which led Berger (1979), in an article about behavioural approaches in education, to warn about the dangers of a "mindless technology" Although some attitude shifts may have occurred in the interim period, the current perceived image of Behavioural Psychology still has some way to go before attaining universal acceptance in the world of education.

It is frustrating, and of course of some real concern to contemporary behavioural practitioners, to be dismissed as unreconstructed Watsonian behaviourists or even Skinnerian dinosaurs. (Wheldall, 1992, p. 2)

Although it may be important to build on the strength of earlier models, a contemporary behavioural approach would have to allow both psychologists and teachers to move beyond previously restrictive features such as over concern with adult-direction of pupil behaviour, an overly narrow focus on control, an inappropriate tendency to over g

eneralize management strategies and an annoying propensity to ignore teacher knowledge and expertise. The main focus of such a perspective would be to emphasise that effective learning takes place in natural contexts. It is embedded in the interactions between teachers and students (Wheldall and Carter, op. cit.) and depends on positive working relationships (McPhillimy, 1996). In other words, an improved behavioural model should encourage a more sensitive match between strategies for changing problem behaviour and the needs of pupils and teachers.

One such approach which has enabled teachers to consider systematically the variety of possible environmental aspects associated with problem behaviour, discuss strategies which are likely to reduce disruption and promote positive behaviour, was suggested by Westmacott and Cameron (1981). The "Antecedents-Background-Consequences" model of behaviour (see Figure 2) enables a systematic examination of the most important dimensions of behaviour.

(a) Antecedents--the events which precede problem behaviour. Data collected here can lead to proactive, preventative management of potentially disruptive behaviour.

(b) Background--the setting or context. Information resulting from an examination of this dimension can encourage the creation of a learning environment which minimizes disruption and encourages positive and adaptive behaviour.

(c) Consequences--those proximal and distant events which follow problem behaviour. A consideration of consequences can generate more effective approaches to the management of problem behaviour, after it has occurred.

The "Antecedents-Background-Consequences" model therefore encourages a functional analysis of the complex relationship between behaviours (both positive and problematic) and their controlling conditions. Such an approach, which has been successfully used to manage the problems of individual pupils (Westmacott & Cameron, op. cit.) and to enhance classroom management (Cameron, 1990), could also be extended to include a whole-school approach to behaviour management. These possibilities will now be considered.

Whole-School Approaches

More than two decades of study have indicated that schools vary considerably in their effectiveness, particularly when it comes to the academic attainment and behaviour of their pupils. (For a summary of some of the factors which appear to be linked with effective schools, see Galloway & Rogers, op.cit.). The Elton Report (DES, 1989) also highlighted the impact which schools could have on the behaviour of pupils (and teachers). While some schools seem preoccupied with bad behaviour, others have concerted policies for raising expectations and improving standards. [Such schools had successfully] marginalized bad behaviour by promoting good behaviour. (para 2.29)

There has been no shortage of suggestions on how schools should promote good behaviour and discipline. These include using soft systems methodology (Frederickson, 1990) drawing up a behaviour policy (DfE, 1994c), using systematic problem-solving (Stratford, 1987; Galvin & Costa, 1994), developing a staff sharing scheme (Gill & Monsen, 1996) integrating school, home and community issues (Williams, 1996) or changing teacher culture (Miller, 1996).

Table 1 summarizes some of the most promising whole-school strategies which have resulted from using the ABC Model during teacher inservice training days. It is interesting to note that the possibilities for change identified by staff who have detailed knowledge about their own schools are both subtle and insightful and could form the basis of a high-quality organizational development programme for schools.

Improving Classroom Management

The Elton Report (op.cit.) concluded that the central problem of disruption could be significantly reduced by helping teachers to become more effective classroom managers. Effective teachers (cf. Galloway & Rogers, op.cit.) tend to expect high standards of work and rely on praise rather than criticism to motivate pupils.

Although a few contributors to the field of classroom management have examined cognitive and psychodynamic approaches (e.g., Ayers, Clarke & Murray, 1995), the majority have drawn heavily on behavioural models. The most frequently used in British classrooms has been the "Assertive Discipline" programme (Canter & Canter, 1992, 1993) which is designed to help teachers to increase on-task behaviour and reduce disruptive and uncooperative behaviour. Assertive Discipline focuses teacher attention on the development of clear classroom directions/ rules, positive recognition of good behaviour and disciplinary consequences for disruptive behaviour. In the UK, studies have reported positive changes in pupil behaviour (Fleming, 1994) and in positive teacher behaviour (Wood, Hodges & Aljunied, 1996).

Some of the most frequent classroom management suggestions which the ABC Model has generated are illustrated in Table 2. Such a menu of possibilities could enable teachers to consider key classroom management factors in their classroom and identify both strengths and areas for improvement.

Programmes for Individual Pupils

Although not without criticism, there is a substantial body of research literature which supports the use of behavioural approaches in the management of disruptive behaviour (e.g., Garfield & Bergin, 1986; Wheldall, 1992; Wheldall & Carter, 1996). Three types of sanctions can be effective in managing some behavioural problems encountered in the classroom: private reprimands (Houghton et al., 1990); response cost (withdrawing a reinforcing activity after unacceptable behaviour) (Docking, 1990); and the use of time out/time away procedures (Harris, 1985).

The other frequently effective component of a behaviour management programme is the use of incentives to encourage and maintain desirable behaviour. However, Caffyn (1987) showed that pupil perceptions were crucial in the selection of classroom rewards and punishments. In particular, "rewards" which were regularly used by teachers (e.g. a general and public praise statement) were not perceived to be as "effective" by pupils as a private and specific positive comment from the teacher.

A narrow focus on consequences not only tends to encourage a search for effective sanctions, but also ignores the possibilities of changing antecedent factors (e.g. providing an early prompt or using distraction techniques) or modifying background aspects (e.g. changing peer group seating arrangements).

Frequently, the key factors in the outcome of any behaviour management programme

turn out to be the class or subject teacher's hypotheses concerning the nature and causes of disruptive behaviour and his/her beliefs about the possibilities for change. Challenging what may be long-standing, self-defeating personal and professional perspectives which some teachers may hold is difficult. However, some of the techniques from Solution-Focused Therapy (Selekman, 1993) may aid such a cognitive shift. In particular, Rhodes (1993) has singled out three dimensions which offer promising possibilities: the exploration of "exceptions", i.e. those occasions when the problem occurs less or not at all; an emphasis on helping the teacher to visualize and articulate what a "solution" would look like; and consideration and elaboration of the teacher's constructs.

Focusing on the promotion of positive behaviour is equally important. The behaviour recording form (Table 3) enables teachers to consider wider aspects of behaviour, concentrate on those factors which seem to be the most relevant to an individual and at the same time consider possibilities for encouraging the pupil to acquire adaptive skills. Whether it is used at a school, classroom or individual pupil level, experience of the ABC Model has shown that it confers some advantages: the approach can be easily taught to school staff; it concentrates on those aspects of a problem situation which can be changed; it does not violate the principle of minimal intervention; and it recognizes that the people who raise the problem in the first place are the most likely to be able to solve or alleviate it. Most of all, it enables school staff to gain a deeper understanding of the problem situation and to consider strategies for change which could be used in their school or classroom. In other words, although the approach offers a general framework, its application generates data and management strategies which are specific to individual pupils, staff and schools.

Some Future Development Areas Developing a Curriculum for Pupils with Problem Behaviour

Although a wide variety of personal, social and school-specific skills are required to succeed in a school environment, a number of key survival skills have been identified and successfully taught to pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties (Burland, 1987; Warden, Christie, Kerr & Low, 1996).

In England and Wales, the Chief Inspector of Schools advocated the teaching of the basic skills needed to survive in the modern world as the most effective method of managing disruption. His contention (Woodhead, 1997) is that many teenagers deprived of these skills try to mask their sense of inadequacy by resorting to deviant or violently criminal behaviour.

Such skills not only increase the likelihood of successful encounters with peers and teachers, but also make pupils aware of their own power to manage their environment rather than reacting to situations which they see as uncontrollable, except through aggressive or violent behaviour.

Using Self-Regulated Approaches

Savage (1991) stressed that self control is not merely the submissive acceptance of authority and standards imposed by others, rather, it is behaving in ways which are consistent with self-chosen beliefs and goals.

Self-regulated learning as a key construct in effective learning has become much better

understood (see Winne, 1995). Similarly, recent work on the self-monitoring of behaviour, which requires pupils to observe and record their behaviour, has shown that positive improvements in behaviour can result (Shapiro & Cole, 1994). For some pupils, the home-school contract described by Gupta, Stringer and Meakin (1990) could encourage the shift from teacher-directed to more self-directed behaviour, by making school expectations explicit and building in parent support.

Although there are still many tantalizing aspects of this approach to be developed, the benefits of self-management procedures are self-evident--independent and adaptive behaviour which can generalize across a wide variety of settings.

Mentoring and Peer Relationships

Mentoring can be viewed as a means of enhancing the transition from adolescence to adulthood through the provision of support and challenge. Although the nature of the mentoring process is still to be clarified (see Philip & Hendry, 1996) and the outcomes for pupils who have behaviour difficulties remain to be confirmed, this approach holds much promise, particularly for secondary age pupils with behavioural difficulties.

Similarly, using systems of peer support in school (cf. Sharp & Cowie, 1997) can offer school staff the opportunity to encourage young people to support one another. Recently developed techniques which utilize the potential support available in the peer group are clearly appealing to staff and pupils alike (see Circles of Friends; Newton, 1996). However, the publication of effectiveness data on such approaches is overdue and would offer reassurance to the many educational psychologists and teachers who are currently attracted to such methods.

As well as offering much needed advice and support, the attraction of these two approaches is that they encourage the growth of mutual respect, as opposed to confrontation and power imbalance.

Enhancing Intrinsic Motivation

The question of how to motivate pupils for tasks which are (for them) not intrinsically motivating has been addressed by a number of researchers, especially Deci and Ryan (1992) and Dweck and Legget (1988). These authors offer guidelines which facilitate the internalization of the value of activities and the integration of the processes leading to their successful completion. Strategies include: encouraging significant others (e.g. parents and teachers) to offer choices, providing a meaningful rationale for completing specific activities, minimizing pressures and stress in the learning environment and acknowledging the learner's negative feelings (and reframing these in more positive terms). The Surrey Educational Psychology Service (1995) has produced two particularly useful booklets for teachers on the topics of understanding and enhancing motivation.

Approaches such as these can encourage disaffected learners to believe that their success and failure depends on how much effort they put into changing their motivational source from an imposed to an (agreed/accepted) one. A further discussion of how metacognitive approaches can be used in the classroom can be found in Doran and Cameron (1995).

Beyond Schools

Although space has not permitted, a rich and integrated picture would emerge if a sim

ple approach such as the ABC model was applied to local authority and national government dimensions in promoting classroom behaviour which encourages effective teaching and learning. Attempts to challenge the attributions of teachers concerning the nature of disruptive behaviour (e.g. Surrey Educational Psychology Service, 1997) or the perceived responsibilities of parents for the behaviour of their offspring (one of the measures included in the Crime and Disorder Act, 1997) could be contextual or as proactive or antecedents management. Similarly, making clear what LEA expectations on the nature of within-school support expected for pupils who have emotional and behavioural difficulties (Surrey Education Service, 1995) or government proposals to reduce class sizes nationally (DfE, 1997) relate to contextual or background aspects. Encouraging teachers to develop a positive classroom ethos (Surrey Education Service, 1996) or introducing home-school contracts in secondary schools in England and Wales (DIE, 1997) are examples of more flexible outcome management.

Final Comments

Helping the disaffected and disruptive pupil to acquire self-control and self-discipline is not an easy task. Pupils need to have the relevant information to allow them to explore the behavioural options open to them and to consider the likely consequences of each. School staff need a learning environment which values pupils, offers feedback which is constructive, and provides opportunities to learn from mistakes. However, to tackle the problem of the disruptive pupil, it will also be necessary to invest time in trying to understand the situation from the pupil's point of view (cf. Gersch at al., 1993; Gersch & Nolan, 1994), as well as considering the organizational and management strategies which need to be in place.

It is hoped that the multi-level and pragmatic management model, together with the future development areas outlined in this paper, will enable educational psychology practitioners to develop a richer understanding of problem behaviour in the classroom and to help staff, parents and pupils to adopt a more sophisticated approach to the management of such behaviour. The potential benefits--more effective teachers and pupils--may yet be enough to persuade many that the effort involved could pay rich dividends for all!

Table 1. Some Possibilities for Creating Organizational Change Which Encourages Positive Behaviour in Schools A: ANTECEDENTS Empowering staff by: * fostering powerful beliefs about their roles * contingency planning for worst case scenarios * organizing INSET on classroom management skills B: BACKGROUND Creating a positive learning environment by: * managing a bullying and harassment * encouraging high expectations for all pupils * creating a "friendly school" * using techniques which enhance pupil's intrinsic motivation C: CONSEQUENCES Developing a professional approach to the management of behaviour by: * teaching pupils the language for sharing complex feelings * developing empathy * actively valuing pupil's inappropriate personal attribution of success and failure **Table 2. Some Possibilities for Creating Organizational Change Which Encourages Positive Behaviour in Classrooms** A: ANTECEDENTS * practising classroom routines * planning activities for "spare" time * encouraging pupil involvement in class rules * considering timetabling possibilities and difficulties * agreeing man

agement procedures with other staff B: BACKGROUND * organizing classroom resources[a] * designing classroom layout * noting key positions for effective classroom management C: CONSEQUENCES * using classroom incentives and sanctions * developing differential responses to problem behaviour

a For example, items labelled, personal storage space, seating arrangements, responsibility for items, avoiding bottlenecks.

Table 3. A Behaviour Recording Form Which can be Used to Generate a Management Plan for an Individual Pupil[*] Legend for Chart: A - Name:, Date: B - UNWANTED BEHAVIOUR C - BEHAVIOUR YOU WANT A B C A Antecedents What provokes or triggers the (triggers to the behaviour? behaviour) How can you change what happens to forestall the unwanted behaviour, and/or increase the changes of the appropriate behaviour occurring? B Background What is the context--where, when, (the setting for and with whom? the behaviour) How can the context/environment be changed to reduce the occurrence of the unwanted behaviour, B and/or increase the occurrence of the behavior you want? C Consequences What usually happens and what do (the management of you usually do when the unwanted the behaviour) behaviour occurs? What could you do differently to manage the unwanted behaviour and encourage the behaviour you want?

* Designed by Alison Knights, an educational psychologist working in Surrey.

DIAGRAM: Figure 1. The Linear ABC Model of Behaviour (after Wheldall & Carter, 1996).

DIAGRAM: Figure 2. The Interactive Model of Behaviour (Westmacott & Cameron, 1981; Cameron, 1990).

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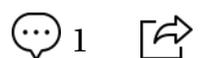Wragg, T. (1993) Primary Teaching Skills. London: Routledge.

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