Classroom Management in Turkish and English Primary Classrooms

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of
the requirements for the degree of Doctor
of Education at the University of
Leicester

by

ABBAS TÜRNÜKLÜ

MAY 1999

UMI Number: U594542

UMI

Dissertation Publishing

ProQuest®

This work is dedicated to all Turkish primary school teachers,

who have to work in economically deprived conditions.

ABSTRACT

Classroom management in Turkish and English primary classrooms

by

ABBAS TÜRNÜKLÜ

The purpose of this thesis is to examine primary school teachers' behaviour management and classroom setting strategies in the Turkish and English contexts. In order to accomplish this purpose, the present research was carried out in the 1997-98 academic year in Turkey and England. Two research methods, structured observation and semi-structured depth interview, were used in order to collect data. Structured classroom observation was used to collect quantitative data related to teachers' and students' managerial interaction. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were used to obtain deep and rich first hand information about teachers' classroom management and setting strategies in the primary classroom context. The sample consisted of 12 Turkish and 8 English primary classroom teachers.

The study showed that the most common misbehaviours in the classrooms of both countries were speaking loudly and excessively, and inappropriate movement. The majority of misbehaviours involved distraction rather than severe disruption. Teachers reported that students' misbehaviour was usually caused by pupils' social and cultural background, particularly the home. However, in particular, the type and frequency of misbehaviour were also changed depending on pupils' gender and age, the time of day, seating arrangement and subject matter.

Teacher strategies were investigated under the heading of preventive and reactive behaviour management. Some differences were found between Turkish and English teachers regarding preventive strategies particularly in their ability to anticipate misbehaviour before it occurred. There were also differences in the use of reactive strategies based on teachers' experience. These mainly concerned the balance between verbal and non-verbal interactions. Furthermore, although punishment was not observed during observation, both Turkish and English teachers reported using punishment on certain occasions.

Although the majority of Turkish classrooms were arranged in rows and aisles, most of the English pupils sat around tables. Turkish teachers reported that where pupils sat (front, wall or near window sides) affected learning and interaction with teacher.

A classroom management model was developed for primary school classrooms. Several recommendations, in particular for Turkish primary classrooms, such as provision for initial and inservice teacher training courses, whole school classroom management policies were put forward based on the model and the results of this research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

1.   CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Classroom management is one of the most important dimensions of teaching and learning processes in the classroom. It is crucial as teaching is a major function of the schools. The competency of classroom management and organisation is, therefore, an important problem especially for the beginner teachers. For example, Fuller (1969) has pointed out that

> "...beginning teachers are concerned about class control, about their own content adequacy, about the situations in which they teach and about evaluations by their supervisors, by their pupils and of their pupils by themselves." (p.210).

Veenman (1984) also studied the problems of newly qualified teachers in the literature of different countries' over a period 1960 to 1984. After examining the international literature associated with problems of beginner teachers, he reported that

> "...classroom discipline was the most seriously perceived problem area of beginning teachers. Of course not all beginning teachers experienced problems with classroom discipline. The percentage of beginning teachers with discipline problems varied greatly." (p.153).

Classroom management is, thus, seen to be an essential problem especially for beginning teachers as they focus to protect themselves. As they gain experience, they also learn to manage the classroom. Veenman (1984) also emphasises the importance of teacher thinking and decision making style. Teachers may have different thinking, decision making patterns when they start the job. Veenman (1984), for example, emphasises that

> "The fact that classroom discipline is a real problem for beginning teachers may be explained in part by different patterns in the thinking or decision processes of beginning and experienced teachers." (p.145).

As it is seen from all three quotations, classroom management is crucial especially in the beginning of a teaching career. Teachers have little time to focus pupils learning since they spent plenty of effort to control and manage pupils' behaviour.

In addition to the problems of beginning teachers, there is also a relationship between teacher turnover and classroom management. Veenman (1984) summarises several researchers' approach and further points out that

> "...research indicated that the more problems beginning teachers encountered, the more likely they were to leave teaching...." (p.153).

> "...beginning teachers with discipline problems had less favourable attitudes toward the school staff than those teachers with no problems." (p.156).

Classroom management is not only a problem for the newly qualified teacher but also it is a concern of the teaching profession as a whole. Jones and Jones (1998) report that teachers' concern associated with behaviour problems in the school has increased. They mention that

> "In 1991, 44 percent of teachers nationwide reported that student misbehaviour interfered substantially with their teaching.... The same study showed that 19 percent of teachers' reported being verbally abused by a student in the previous four weeks and 28 percent of the teachers viewed physical conflicts among student as a serious or moderate problem in their school." (Mansfield, Alexander and Farris, 1991; cited in Jones and Jones, 1998; p.5).

Several researchers also focus on the place of classroom management during instruction. For example, Gump (1967; cited in Jones and Jones, 1998) argue that teachers are not only responsible for instruction but also classroom management in order to achieve maximum learning and keep students busy with learning activities. It has been reported that about 50 % of teachers' actions involve instruction in the classroom, with the remainder related to classroom management. These include

> "...organising and arranging students for instruction (23 percent), dealing with misbehaviour (14 percent) and handling individual problems (12 percent)." (Gump, 1967; cited in Jones and Jones, 1998; p.6).

A national survey, carried out in English primary and secondary schools studied discipline problems nation-wide. It covered the views of 3500 primary and secondary school teachers. In the results of the survey, it was reported that

> "One in three secondary teachers and one in five primary teachers reported that there were particular forms of bad behaviour by pupils which they found difficult to deal with in the classroom." (DES, 1989; p.63).

And, further that

"The vast majority of primary and secondary teachers reported that, at some point, the flow of their lessons had been impeded or disrupted by having to deal with minor discipline problems." (DES, 1989; p.61).

In addition to this, one in 10 teachers in primary education and one in 6 teachers in secondary stated that they have serious discipline problems in their school (DES, 1989).

As the above demonstrates, classroom management is one of the most important dimensions of the teaching and learning process. The aim of this study is to investigate these processes through the study of classroom interaction.

1.1. INSTRUCTION AND CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Much research has recently been done attempting to understand what happens in the classroom. The main purpose of such research is to open the covert parts of the classroom, known only by pupils and teachers, and to make it overt, that is open to everybody. Anderson and Burns (1989) have pointed out that the classroom is a place where

" (1) teachers and groups of students engage in activities with frequent verbal exchanges and academic work, (2) the intended result of these activities, student learning, occurs gradually over time and is largely unobservable and (3) decisions made during instructional planning and teaching are also unobservable. Not only do these phenomena occur frequently and are often unobservable they occur together in a complex chain of interrelated events whose sequence in time is important to their understanding." (p:16).

These authors also claimed that teacher decision-making occurs immediately and spontaneously in the classroom, teacher-student interactions occur every second and minute of classroom time and pupil learning occurs over days, weeks and months. To sum up, there are complex relationships among teachers, pupils, curriculum matters and teaching-learning processes (Anderson and Burns, 1989). Because of this, teaching is a very complex and important issue.

Several researchers have claimed that classroom management can be linked with instruction as a component of effective teaching. For example, Doyle (1986) has discussed teaching using two broad concepts. He points out that

3

"classroom teaching has two major task structures organised around the problems of (a) learning and (b) order. Learning is served by the instructional function, that is, by covering a specified block of the curriculum, promoting mastery of elements of that block, and instilling favourable attitudes toward content so that students will persist in their efforts to learn.... Order is served by the managerial function, that is, by organising classroom groups, establishing rules and procedures, reacting to misbehaviour, monitoring and pacing classroom events...." (p.395).

Doyle (1986) divides the concept of 'teaching' into two separate domains: order and learning. He claims that learning is served by instruction. He defines order as related to classroom organisation and to interventions designed to prevent misbehaviour. This categorisation seems to be questionable. Classroom management is more than organising groups in the classroom and intervening to prevent misbehaviour; it is also part of instruction. It is reasonable to suggest that learning materials, the curriculum, how the curriculum is delivered and the difficulties of certain learning activities may cause problems related to classroom management. Therefore, it is difficult to separate order and learning within distinctive boundaries.

Brophy (1988) has extended Doyle's definition of classroom teaching processes with regard to 'order' and 'learning'. He states that teaching functions consist of four essential domains rather than two: instruction, classroom management, student socialisation and disciplinary intervention.

Although these analytical concepts were used in order to describe classroom management separately from teaching, there are some researchers who do not separate classroom management from instruction. For example, Van Der Sijde and Tomic (1992) suggested "...the notion of the teaching script, in which both instruction and classroom management are incorporated." (p.440). Latz (1992) also pointed out that "...there is a strong link between a teacher's instructional approach and classroom management." (p.3). Brophy (1983) examined the concept of effective classroom management and effective instruction. He suggests that they are "...intimately related in practice, and it is virtually impossible to be effective in one without being effective in the other." (p.33). However, Johnson and Brooks (1979) in analysing teaching skills, criticise this view and argue that

"...the function of classroom management can be distinguished conceptually from the teacher's primary function, instruction, however intimately the two may be related in practice. Some may prefer to view management as an inherent feature of instruction; others see the two as aspects of some larger enterprise in which effective management is a requisite for instruction and good instruction is the key to successful management." (p.1).

Some researchers have tried to explain classroom management using the concept of effective teaching rather than instruction. Classroom management was seen as one of the essential dimensions of effective teaching. For example Emmer and Evertson (1981) point out that

> "classroom management should be viewed as one major dimension of effective teaching, rather than synonymous with it. Teachers also provide instruction, evaluate students, choose curriculum, promote self adjustment, and influence student attitudes. Hence, effective teaching encompasses varying degrees of different tasks." (p.342).

As can be seen from previous quotations, it seems quite difficult to engage in effective teaching unless one is effective in most of the dimensions of it. All dimensions are intimately linked and affect each other. In support of this viewpoint, Wilks (1996) emphasises the role and importance of classroom management in effective teaching. Wilks (1996), summarising several studies, suggests that effective classroom management is crucial for three main reasons:

> "First, good classroom management involves efficient use of student time. It enables more time for learning..., enhances the time pupils spend actively attending to specific learning tasks (called academic engaged time or on-task behaviour...), and increases the time students work with a high rate of success (called academic learning time). Second, classroom management establishes the means by which students have access to learning (participation structures...). Third, classroom management helps students become better able to manage themselves.... In summary, effective classroom management procedures create a climate in which student progress can take place effectively and efficiently...." (p.20).

Again, it is also obvious from Wilks's (1996) summary that classroom management is crucial. Following weight of such arguments, the essential aim of this study is to look at classroom management as part of the whole processes of teaching and learning. In the rest of the chapter the major characteristics of classroom management will be examined.

1.1.1. ESSENTIAL COMPONENTS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Most researchers define classroom management using global terms, regarding it as a one of the dimension of either instruction or effective teaching rather than being solely concerned with student discipline (Latz, 1992; Sanford, Emmer and Climents, 1983). For example Latz (1992) mentions that classroom management

> "includes not only discipline, but also numerous other activities such as planning, monitoring, transitions, and the sequencing of classroom tasks, whereas discipline focuses on specific problems or events that occur during actual instruction." (p.1).

Wilks (1996) also defined classroom management as a series of activities that were more than discipline. He pointed out that classroom management includes such things as

> "the teacher's selection of curriculum content, planning of activities, physical organisation of the classroom, preparation of materials for lessons, use of time, and general organisation of the classroom." (p.20).

Brophy (1988) also view classroom management as a system which

> "as a whole (which includes, but is not limited to, the teacher's disciplinary interventions) is designed to maximise student engagement in those activities, not merely to minimise misconduct." (p.3).

Following Latz (1992), Wilks (1996) and Brophy's (1988) approach, classroom management can not be limited with the discipline problems. It is more than behaviour management and includes classroom routines and procedure, activity planning, time management, instruction management, classroom setting and preparation of lesson materials

Sanford, Emmer and Climents (1983) also defined classroom management in very general terms. They claim

> "it includes all the things teachers must do to foster student involvement and co-operation in classroom activities and to establish a productive working environment." (p.56).

Furthermore, they also describe the characteristics of a well managed classroom. They point out that such classrooms have particular qualities:

6

"There are high levels of student involvement with work, especially with academic, teacher-led instruction. Students know what is expected of them and are generally pretty successful. There is relatively little wasted time, confusion, and disruption. The climate of the room is work- oriented but relaxed and pleasant. In brief, a well-managed classroom is a task-oriented, predictable environment where children know what is expected of them and how to succeed." (p.56).

In addition to these definitions that mostly concern instruction and effective teaching, some researchers try to define classroom management as a multidimensional area. For example, Gilberts and Lingnugaris-kraft, (1997) refer to four basic competencies that

"address (1) arrangement of the classroom environment to facilitate student management, (2) formulating a standard for student behaviour, (3) implementing behaviour management strategies to increase and/or decrease classroom behaviour, and (4) assessing the effectiveness of classroom management interventions." (p.602).

As can be seen there are various definitions and descriptions of classroom management. Different researchers associate the issue of classroom management with different concepts related to classroom learning and teaching processes. Some of them see it as one of the dimensions of teaching effectiveness and instruction. Others claim that it is not possible to separate classroom management from the broad concepts given above. In contrast, these authors have tried to define classroom management and instruction as being intimately related practice. All dimensions, namely curriculum activity, learning, teaching, instruction, and classroom management occur at the same time and in the same place as part of one process. Therefore, there are interconnections between them rather than differences. Because of this, each dimension can be described as based on others in a mutually interactive relationship.

However, some of the researchers have tried to clarify the issues of classroom management within its own dimension. For example, Sanford and Emmer (1988) described classroom management under four interrelated aspects:

1. Managing instructional activities,

2. Classroom procedures and routines.

3. Classroom setting,

4. Managing student behaviour,

Managing instructional activities is the organisation and conduct of instructional activities in the classroom. It consists of presentation of activities, planning lessons, the allocation of the school day or hour for particular topics, organisation of class time, and how pupils are grouped for work (Sanford and Emmer, 1988). In support of this viewpoint Sanford and Emmer (1988) argue that

> "good classroom management requires that routine business, such as checking the roll, passing papers, dealing with tardy students, and beginning and ending class, be handled efficiently.... also requires procedures for instruction that maintain the proper academic focus and make appropriate use of time." (p.29).

Because of this, teachers should develop routines in order to govern pupils' talk, work and activity. The aim of developing routines is to make pupils concentrate on learning activities and decrease the time and effort occupied in noninstructional activities (Sanford and Emmer, 1988).

Sanford and Emmer (1988) have also pointed out that the classrooms'

> "...physical arrangements affect student behaviour and can make managing a class an easier or more difficult task. Understanding these influences, therefore, is an important part of learning how classrooms work." (p.17).

Generally, ordinary classrooms include pupils' and teacher's desks, tables, blackboards, display boards, waste bins, storage areas and other special equipment. The organisation of these materials in order to provide a proper teaching and learning environment is crucial. Sanford and Emmer (1988) indicate that, the arrangement of pupils' seats is one of the most important features of classroom arrangements. Whether or not learning activities are taught by the way of seating arrangement such as row and aisle, sitting around table or horse shoe type organisation are an important feature of classroom setting. Another important aspect of classroom setting, whether or not it provides visibility for pupils, is also crucial. The need for the pupils to be able to follow the teacher and see the chalkboard is a crucial aspect of the classroom setting. Besides, whether or not a teacher can observe all pupils for most of the time in order to

8

anticipate problems before they escalate is also an important issue (Sanford and Emmer, 1988).

Sanford and Emmer (1988) declare that

> "...even a well-designed set of classroom procedures, rules, and routines
> will not be effective for long if a teacher can not maintain students'
> involvement and prevent disruption of instructional activities." (p.39).

They have also pointed out that one of the important dimensions of classroom management is managing pupils behaviour; preventing disruptive behaviour from escalating in the first place through managerial strategies (Sanford and Emmer, 1988).

The first two dimensions of classroom management 'managing instructional activities, and classroom procedures and routines' are to some extent related to instruction. Since 'managing instructional activities' and 'classroom procedures and routines' can be studied with instruction methods and curriculum implementation more closely in order to investigate the implementation of instruction methods and curriculum matter delivery, both dimensions were excluded in this study. Unlike behaviour management, studying managing instructional activities and classroom procedures and routines can not be examined without focusing on instruction methods. Because of this, attention was paid to the other two dimensions: managing student behaviour and classroom setting.

In studying classroom setting, seating arrangement was the predominant aspect considered. There are obvious differences between Turkish and English primary classrooms with regard to classroom construction and structure. The majority of Turkish classrooms are arranged in traditional row and aisle style. In addition to this, most of them contain only a fixed display on the wall and bookshelf. It is not suitable to provide space for extra things. This contrasted with the English setting where pupils sat in groups, some in 'open plan' arrangements. Because of this pupils' seating arrangement was given special attention. Furthermore, classroom organisation can be varied according to subject matter. This issue was, therefore, also considered.

Two dimensions of classroom management issues, 'managing student behaviour' and 'classroom setting' were studied. In the following part of the thesis, therefore, these two dimensions are reviewed.

1.2. BRIEF OUTLINE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of this research is to examine primary teachers' behaviour management and classroom setting strategies in the Turkish and English primary classroom context. In order to accomplish this aim three areas were investigated.

1. Identification of pupils' misbehaviour and determinants of these in the primary classroom.

2. Identification of types of teacher managerial strategies used to deal with pupils' misbehaviour.

3. Identification of types of pupils' classroom setting and its effect on behaviour, focusing on seating arrangement and determinants of these.

In order to investigate these three areas, the researcher carried out classroom observation and in-depth interviews with primary school teachers. Structured classroom observation was used to collect quantitative data related to teachers' and pupils' managerial interaction. Semi-structured in-depth interview was used to collect deep and rich information about teachers' behaviour management and classroom setting practice in the primary classroom context.

The research sample consisted of 12 Turkish and 8 English primary school teachers. Unlike observation, interviews were carried out with all teachers. In contrast to this, only 4 Turkish and 7 English teachers were observed .

The results of the research are discussed and compared with other research results related to behaviour management and classroom setting studies as given in the literature review, Turkish and English data are also compared with each other.

1.3. THE CONTEXT OF TURKISH EDUCATION SYSTEM

TURKEY:

After the six hundred year, the Ottoman Empire became the Republic of Turkey on 29 October, 1923. Turkey is located in two continents: Asia and Europe and has 8 neighbours: two of them are European; Greece and Bulgaria, and 6 of them are Asian; Georgia, Armenia, Nakhitcevan autonomous region, Iran, Iraq and Syria. Turkey is surrounded by three seas; the Black sea in the North, the Aegean sea in the West and the Mediterranean in the South. The land of Turkey has been the birth place of many great civilisations because of its location.

Turkey is divided into seven regions: the Aegean region, the Marmara region, the Black sea region, the East region, the Southeast Anatolia region, the Mediterranean region and central Anatolia. In addition to this, there are also 80 provinces. The capital city is Ankara.

The population of Turkey is 60 million according to 1995 statistics. Major cities are Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Adana. There is only one official language, Turkish. The major religion is Islam 98% and the remainder belong to Orthodox, Gregorian, Jewish, Catholic, Protestant and other Christian sects.

The Turkish government is a parliamentary democracy with a free market economy. Major international organisations in which Turkey is a member are UN, NATO, OECD, WHO, ILO, UNESCO and FAO.

1.3.1. TURKISH PRIMARY EDUCATION

Primary education used to consist of 5 years compulsory education until the 1996-97 school year. Then, primary and middle schools were combined under the name of primary education. This new schedule was implemented in the 1997-98 school year. Before that, most students did not attend middle school. Although there are 40.000 villages in Turkey most of them have no middle or secondary school and some don't even have a primary one. After the 1997-98 school year every student who finish 5 years of primary school has to transfer to middle school without any break. Current primary education consist of children between '4' and '14' age group. The essential

aims of primary education are to provide necessary basic knowledge, the ability and attitude to be a good citizen, and preparation for secondary education. Primary education includes '2' years of nursery '5' years of primary school and '3' years of middle school. Both primary and middle school are compulsory for all Turkish citizens (for all girls and boys) and free of charge in public schools.

TABLE.1.1: 1996-1997 SCHOOL TERMS THE NUMBER OF SCHOOL, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

School Type	School Number	Student Number	Teacher Number
Nursery school	7200	228898	10.059
Primary and middle school	56183	9462787	284577
Primary school	-	6853273	216548
Middle school	-	2609514	68029

(source: Saglam, 1996; p.33).

There were '56183' primary schools in Turkey in '1995-96' school year. Generally each school includes primary and middle levels. Some '6853273' primary school students, and '2609514' middle school students are educated in primary education. In addition to this '216548' primary and '68029' middle school teachers work in Turkish primary education (Milli Egitimle Ilgili Bilgiler, 1996).

1.3.1.1. TURKISH INITIAL PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING SYSTEM

In Turkey, 'Schools of Education' concerned with primary teacher training have been under the control of the Supreme Council of Higher Education (YOK) since 1982. 'YOK' has been responsible for designing the general principles and aspects of all higher education programmes in order to offer equal and similar standard education in all Turkish universities (Senemoglu, 1991).

Since the 1989-90 academic year, the initial primary teacher training program has been a four years course. For those four years, the general title of the course, the allocated time, the credits and content are defined by 'YOK'. On the other hand, each School of Education and department has its own control over the curriculum development in terms of defining objectives, preparing resources and designing activities (Senemoglu, 1991).

In the 1997-98 academic year, the school of education's structure, curriculum, the title of course, allocated time, credits and contents were re-examined and renewed. Then, primary post graduate certificate courses ceased to operate. The number of students on four year courses in the primary education departments were increased. Now, post graduate certificate courses only exist for secondary education.

All universities have to follow at least 70% of the criteria arranged by 'YOK'. In contrast, they can rearrange the rest of the 30% of their own departmental course. Table 1.2 and Table 1.3 gives details of the course related to pedagogy in primary initial teacher training before '1998 Education Act' and later.

TABLE 1.2. FOUR-YEAR TURKISH INITIAL CLASSROOM TEACHER TRAINING COURSE PROGRAMME AND MODULES RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL STUDIES AND THEIR TIME ALLOCATION:

Type of modules	Allocation time (Hours)
Introduction to education	42
Introduction to psychology	28
Introduction to sociology	28
Introduction to philosophy	28
Educational sociology	28
Education philosophy	28
Psychology of development	42
Psychology of learning	42
Statistics	28
Research methods	28
General teaching methods	42
Hygiene and first aid	28
Measurement and evaluation	42
Turkish education system	28
Adult education	28
Educational technology	28
Guidance and psychological health	42
Primary curriculum and development	42
School administration and supervision	42
Introduction to special education	28
Seminar about teaching practice	42

(Source: Senemoglu, N., 1991; pp.86-87).

As can be seen in table 1.2 there is no course related to classroom management. In contrast to this, there is a specific set course related to classroom management in the new programme as shown in Table 1.3.

TABLE 1.3. TURKISH INITIAL PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING COURSE PROGRAM AFTER 1998 ACADEMIC YEAR.

The title of the courses	H-P
1. Introduction to teaching job,	3-0
2. School practice-1,	1-4
3. Learning and development,	3-0
4. Planning and evaluation in teaching,	3-2
5. The development of teaching technology and material,	2-2
6. Classroom management,	2-2
7. School practice-2,	1-4
8. Guidance,	3-0
9. Teaching practice.	2-6

(source: T.C. Yüksek Ögretim Kurulu Baskanligi, 1998; p.27-28). H: the hour of lesson in each week; P: the hour of practice in each week

Although classroom management is accepted as one of the most important dimensions of the learning and teaching process, there were no official courses in the Turkish initial primary school teacher training programme until 1998 education improvement act. After the act, the Supreme Council of Higher education (YOK) set one compulsory course in the initial teacher training programme.

The content of courses were also standardised for all initial teacher training. For example the content of classroom management courses consists of the following subheadings:

1. Social and psychological factors that affect pupils' behaviour,

2. Whole class and group interaction,

3. The development of rules related to classroom management and discipline and their implementation,

4. Time management in the classroom,

5. Classroom organisation,

6. Motivation,

7. Classroom interaction,

8. The beginning of new term,

9. Classroom problems and proactive behaviours in order to anticipate them (Yuksek Ögretim Kurulu Baskanligi, 1998).

As the issue of 'classroom management' is currently involved in Turkish teacher training, it can be assumed that it is a problematic area for the Turkish education authorities.

On the other hand, there is no nation-wide fixed arrangements for teaching classroom management in initial teacher training, and Post Graduate Certificate Education (PGCE) courses in England. However, nation-wide advice is given by the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). The importance of classroom management has been emphasised in circular number of 14/93, 10/97 and 4/98 report.

The circular (14/93) concerning primary initial teacher training emphasised classroom management under the heading of Teaching Strategies and Techniques. It is stated that beginner teacher should be able to:

> "establish clear expectations of pupil behaviour in the classroom and secure appropriate standards of discipline; (2) create and maintain a purposeful, orderly and supportive environment for their pupils' learning; (3) maintain pupils' interest and motivation; (4) present learning tasks and curriculum content in a clear and stimulating manner; (5) teach whole classes, groups and individuals, and determine the most appropriate learning goals and classroom contexts for using these and other teaching strategies; (6) manage effectively and economically their own and their pupils' time." (DfEE, 1993; p.16-17).

There have also been two further reports in which classroom management issues were taken up: 'The initial training of primary school teachers: New criteria for courses: Circular Number 10/97', and 'Teaching: High status, High standards: requirements for courses of initial teacher training: Circular Number 4/98.

In parallel to Circular Number 14/93, teaching and class management was also again emphasised under the heading of 'requirements for courses of initial teacher training (DfEE, 1997 and 1998). In both reports it was claimed that

"For all courses, those to be awarded Qualified Teacher Status must, when assessed, demonstrate that they: (1) ensure effective teaching of whole classes, and of groups and individuals within the whole class setting, so that teaching objectives are met, and best use is made of available teaching time; (2) monitor and intervene when teaching to ensure sound learning and discipline; (3) establish and maintain a purposeful working atmosphere; (4) set high expectations for pupils' behaviour, establishing and maintaining a good standard of discipline through well focused teaching and through positive and productive relationships; (5) establish a safe environment which supports learning and in which pupils feel secure and confident." (DfEE, 1997; p.10; DfEE, 1998; p.13;).

The above quotations show that the classroom management issue is an important aspect of teaching and learning processes in primary education initial teacher training courses in the England. Although it is not prescribed nation-wide, all initial teacher training courses have included some courses related to classroom management for a number of years. In parallel to this, classroom management problems have been one of the dominant research areas since 1970 in England.

Comparing the Turkish and English situations, there are obvious differences between English and Turkish initial teacher training programs with regard to the classroom management problem. Because of this, one of the main purposes of this research is to compare the teaching practice of both countries with regard to classroom management. To accomplish this aim, research was carried out in both countries by observing primary school teachers' classrooms, and then interviewing these teachers in order to describe their views relating to their classroom practice with regard to classroom management.

2. CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF MANAGING PUPILS' BEHAVIOUR and CLASSROOM SETTING

2.1. MANAGING PUPILS' BEHAVIOUR

Many researchers have defined classroom behaviour management in similar ways. Most of them emphasise how to deal with pupil's misbehaviour. For example:

> "...the concept managing student behaviour is handling problem situations, such as dealing with a disruptive student or stopping widespread misbehaviour." (Sanford and Emmer, 1988; p.39).

> "...classroom management pertains to the ways in which teachers promote positive, prosocial student behaviour and deal with misbehaviour and disruptive behaviour." (Anderson; 1991; p.45).

> "teacher managerial behaviours organise the setting, establishing appropriate behaviour, prevent problems, and deal with disruptions." (Emmer; 1994; p.6026).

> "the notion of 'managing pupil behaviour' concentrates the mind more on the contextual conditions associated with problem behaviour in school, and which are within the power of teachers to change, rather than on constitutional and temperamental factors which lie beyond teachers' control." (Docking, 1993; p.167).

As can be seen from the above quotations, there are two main inter-parallel dimensions in the process of 'managing student behaviour': firstly, pupils' problem behaviour, which can also be called pupils' misbehaviour, and disruptive behaviour; secondly, teachers' managerial behaviour, which emphasises dealing with pupils' problem behaviour.

Both dimensions, pupils' problem behaviour, and teachers' managerial behaviour will be examined in the subsequent parts of this chapter.

2.2. THE NATURE OF PUPILS' PROBLEM BEHAVIOUR

There are two main concepts related to undesirable behaviour in the literature examined: misbehaviour and disruptive behaviour. Both are used by different researchers with either the same or different meanings. If we look in the dictionary, the terms misbehaviour and disruptive behaviour are described in a similar way. In the Collins Cobuild English dictionary (Sinclair et al. 1987), for example:

"Misbehaviour is behaviour that is not acceptable to other people."
(p.1059).

"If someone or something is disruptive, they prevent something from continuing or operating in a normal way." (p.478).

As can be seen from the quotations disruptive behaviour is an act. It is used to define an ongoing action that is inappropriate to the classroom circumstances. However misbehaviour is a judgement about disruption. Therefore, it is a result. Both concepts have been used by different researchers synonymously in order to match particular behaviours that were unacceptable for classroom process.

Kyriacou (1986) pointed out that misbehaviour "refers to any behaviour by a pupil that undermines the teacher's ability to establish and maintain effective learning experience in the classroom." (p.154). The meaning and content of misbehaviour also changes depending on the teacher's perception and interpretation. However, any behaviour that threatens the fluency of the academic actions in a particular context can be seen as misbehaviour. As a result, in order to accept any behaviour as a misbehaviour, it must be looked at in the context in which it occurs, and who it is interpreted by (Burden, 1995). Any behaviour may be assumed as misbehaviour at a certain time and place. For example, it is not acceptable to wander around in an English lesson, but similar behaviour in the art classroom would be acceptable. Therefore, it can be suggested that misbehaviour is a response to a situation (Cohen and Cohen, 1987). To regard any behaviour as misbehaviour and make decisions about it, one must be familiar with its nature in context, its causes, the types and the degrees of its severity (Burden, 1995).

In British literature, some researchers use disruptive behaviour in order to define behavioural problems rather than misbehaviour. For example Lawrence and Steed (1984) describe disruptive behaviour in the classroom as a

> "behaviour which seriously interferes with the teaching process and/or seriously upsets the normal running of the school. It is more than ordinary misbehaviour in the classroom, playground, corridors, etc. It includes physical attacks and malicious destruction of poverty." (p.5).

Pary-Jones and Gay (1980) extend these categories and include the concept of classroom behaviours. They refer to disruptive incidents rather than disruptive behaviour. They point out that,

"disruptive incident starts when a pupil fails to comply with a teacher's request or instructions, or interrupts by moving around the room at an inappropriate time, interfering with a fellow pupil's work, or by calling out." (p.215).

Evertson (1989) claims that student misbehaviour can be divided into two broad areas in terms of disruptive and inappropriate behaviour. Disruptive behaviours are defined as student behaviour that is distracting to others and which interferes with normal learning activities. Inappropriate behaviours are defined as student behaviour that is not disturbing to others, but that is not engaged in any assigned task. Sanford and Emmer (1988) give examples of both definitions: inappropriate student behaviour is seen as inattention, looking around, daydreaming, brief whispering, uncooperativenes, students wandering around the room and being out of their seat at an inappropriate time. Disruptive behaviour is any behaviour that interferes with the teacher's or other student's work.

Misbehaviour can also occur even when the pupil has not disrupted the efforts of other pupils in the class. Cangelosi (1993) recognises this by distinguishing disruptive off-task behaviour, from non-disruptive off-task behaviour. If a student's misbehaviour does not inhibit the whole class's learning activities; and the student only inhibits his/her own learning, then this is non-disruptive off-task behaviour. On the other hand, if a student inhibits other pupil's learning by displaying any disruption, it is disruptive off-task behaviour. Day dreaming is a common example of non-disruptive off-task behaviour. If a student misses some parts of the lesson and falls behind in the lesson, they will not fully understand lessons that follow. Hence they are not able to follow the learning activity and this in turn can cause students to become bored, frustrated and disruptive.

To understand misbehaviour, we must, therefore, look at what determines pupil's misbehaviour. Broadly speaking, misbehaviour is caused neither internally nor externally. The interaction between an individual and the environment leads to misbehaviour (Doyle, 1986). Doyle (1986) also points out that there are several factors that determine misbehaviour in the classroom:

- If the structure of learning activities is boring and has unimportant detail, it may not motivate students to engage and construct learning activities.

- If the school is governed by authoritarian ways and rules, students will naturally refuse to obey these restrictions.

- If school staff are unable to set up rightful authority a rise in misbehaviour will occur.

- If a student demonstrates attention seeking behaviour this can cause misbehaviour.

Although the definition and description of misbehaviour or disruptive behaviour refers to behaviour rather than pupils, pupils who show consistent disruption in the classroom tend to display particular personal characteristics. The essential characteristics of disruptive pupils are consciously or unconsciously, knowingly or unknowingly and also effectively and frequently interrupting his/her learning as well as others' learning (Parry-Jones and Gay, 1980). Most disruptive pupils have a low academic attainment and ability, and relatively common neurological problems. Their socio-economic standards are relatively low, and they come from families who have financial or housing difficulties. They also generally suffer from abusive and inconsistent discipline in the home (Gray and Richer, 1988; Açikgöz, 1996).

Maxwell (1987) observes that the essential factors relating to disruptive pupils result from personal problems, problems related to home, and low economic aspirations. The consequence of these three basic factors is generally disruption in the school, and especially in the classroom. Furthermore, some factors related to school, such as teachers' class management style and the lack of guidance from the teacher are also responsible for disruptive behaviour.

In order to understand disruptive behaviour it is crucial to understand the students' home life. Especially crucial is the breakdown of family and relationships which causes a pupil's antisocial behaviour. Parental rejection, negative discipline, in terms of inconsistent and physically abusive and aggressive problem solving approaches in the home leads to antisocial behaviour. Disruptive students are distinguished from undisruptive pupils especially according to these home and family variables. Four main characteristics are specified in understanding a disruptive pupil's home and family characteristics:

- they come from very strict, inconsistent, lack of parental supervision and discipline.

- family discipline includes hostile, abusive, and angry behaviour as well as physical punishment.

- they have suffered from a lack of close relationship with parents.

- parents have little influence on the pupil, and believe that other pupils have a negative influence on their child (Levin and Nolan, 1996).

Although particular pupils may be labelled as disruptive pupils, they are not disruptive all the time. They are more disruptive with some teacher's lessons than with other's. Disruption can arise as result of the relationship between student and teacher (Gray and Richer, 1988; Colin, 1985). Although behaviour such as answering back may be seen as distracting and rude by a particular teacher, another teacher may presume it is showing creativity. Therefore, sometimes labelling leads to behaviour according to the label (McNamara and Moreton, 1995). Whether the behaviour is assessed by a teacher as disruptive will generally be influenced by the teachers' justification of it. This is partly built up from the expectation formed as the result of previous incidents.

Sometimes a teacher may be the cause of disruption. As not all teachers are perfect, some teachers have lack of ideal and creative learning environments. Therefore, disruption can be regarded as a rational and justifiable response to a poor learning and teaching environment. So it is possible to see that a student's behaviour can be a function of the teacher's behaviour. If a teacher wants to evaluate a students behaviour, they need to examine not only the learning environment, such as the classroom or school, but also their own behaviour. It may be assumed that both pupil and teacher come to school with certain emotional experiences without a pre-structured behaviour pattern, therefore, disruption occurs based on the perception of interaction among student, teacher and learning environment (Upon, 1992).

2.2.1. PUPILS' MISBEHAVIOUR AND INSTRUCTION

The classroom atmosphere created by the teacher relays a crucial message to the student regarding what is expected from them as behaviour (Mastropieri and Thomas, 1987). A teachers' behaviour has a strong influence on the students behaviour. If all

teachers gave excellent instructions in the classroom, misbehaviour that occurs because of poor instruction could be prevented (Levin and Nolan, 1996). How teachers deliver instruction may lead to off-task behaviour. Furthermore, how the teacher involves the student in activities, handles questions and uses a variety of teaching strategies may determine the existence of misbehaviour (Burden, 1995).

Vygotksy (1978) mentioned that "a well known and empirically established fact is that learning should be matched in some manner with the child's developmental level." (p.85). To match the level of learning activities with child cognitive developmental level seems to be an important issue in the classroom. If instruction is not matched with pupils cognitive development level, it may result in misbehaviour (Levin and Nolan, 1996). In addition to this, when curriculum activities are more difficult than a particular student's ability, the difficulty is keeping the child's attention on the learning activity. Generally, when students are not busy with the curriculum, they tend to misbehave and carry out acts unrelated to the learning process. This process also attracts the teacher's attention to the misbehaviour and thus leads to a problem with management. Attracting all students' attention to the actual activity is a common problem especially in the primary classroom. If a teacher can not include all the students in joint activities, a particular student may concentrate on unrelated activities which again result in management problems. Student misbehaviour also attracts the teacher's attention and it can lessen the teachers' concentration, especially if there is only one teacher. If s/he is always trying to deal with behavioural problems, s/he can not develop the lesson properly for other students. S/he may use a significant amount of her/his time in attracting students' attention to activities and managing misbehaviour.

Learning difficulties are an important problem in this circumstance. Because many students have problems in several subjects, they may find a particular lesson more boring. Pupils who have learning difficulties may not find the content interesting or the teacher's teaching strategies may fail to maintain these students attention and interest (Kyriacou, 1986).

According to Vygotsky (1978) "...mentally retarded children are not very capable of abstract thinking." (p.89). This issue is, again, especially important in the primary classroom situation. If instruction is thought of as whole class teaching, in terms of

giving lessons without having the students' active participation, and concentration on the task, the students' attention may be distracted from activities to unrelated things. This distraction also causes managerial problems, in terms of day dreaming, chatting, illicit talking and interrupting peer or teacher as well as the lesson. Therefore, there must be a bridge between student understanding, imagination style, actual curriculum activity difficulties, and concreteness of task in order to keep students busy with learning activities.

The question of whether curriculum materials challenge and are of interest to the student is an important aspect of the learning process. It may be accepted that not all learning activities attract a pupils' interest. The activities may become boring and fruitless (Merrett and Wheldall, 1990). Furthermore, it is not possible to follow the curriculum properly without excitement, challenge and some enjoyment. Most of the time, inappropriate behaviour and misbehaviour occurs as a response to classroom activities rather than by chance. If the curriculum activities are not perceived by pupils as interesting, exciting and related to their needs, it may cause some misbehaviour in the short time and feelings of anger and hostility towards the school in the long run (Fontana, 1994). Therefore, student misbehaviour and inappropriate behaviour might be assumed as a legitimate protest and altercation against boring and uninteresting lessons (Wheldall and Merrett, 1989). In addition to this, when a student is allowed to take responsibility and participate in classroom activities, they show less misbehaviour (Tattum, 1989)

Fontana (1994) further suggests that there is a relationship between curriculum material that is taught in the classroom, and classroom control. Pupils who are motivated, interested and engaged in activities produce less management problems. If teachers make students interested and motivated in curriculum activities they will not need to be so concerned with behaviour problems (Fontana, 1994). In addition to this, absenteeism is sometimes caused by negative responses to the curriculum when it delivered by way of boring and uninteresting teaching methods. If the curriculum does not attract student interest, their interest in classroom activities will diminish and types of inappropriate behaviour such as non-involvement in classroom activities, disruptive behaviour and truancy will increase. Therefore, whether the curriculum matches the pupil's current and future interests, and arouses interest is a very important and crucial issue. As a

result, it may be assumed that student misbehaviour can be a logical and reasonable response to curriculum subjects that have very little interest and involvement (Charlton and David, 1993). The proper preparation and planning of instruction and of a curriculum is essential to a well managed classroom (Evertson, 1989). Docking, (1996) suggested that effective lessons in terms of curriculum planning, decreases the number of occasions for inappropriate behaviour in the classroom.

2.2.2. RECENT RESEARCH RELATED TO STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR

Pupils' behavioural problems in the classroom have been studied under the heading of troublesome behaviour, misbehaviour, undesirable behaviour, and disruptive behaviour by several researchers using different research methods, such as structured classroom observation, survey and interviews.

A number of studies have used some form of classroom observation to identify common types of classroom misbehaviour which occur in the classroom in England. For example, Wragg and Dooley (1984) studied class management using a structured classroom observation schedule. They studied post graduate certificate of education (PGCE) students during their long block practice. They observed 34 PGCE student teachers in 6 six comprehensive schools. They also observed 204 lessons and 1020 segments of lessons. They used a pre-established observation schedule, the Nottingham Class Management Observation Schedule, produced by Wragg et al. (1979). 15 types of misbehaviour were used to observe students. Misbehaviour included: excessively noisy talk, non-verbal behaviour not appropriate to the task, irrelevant talk, inappropriate use of materials/ equipment, illicit eating/drinking, movement at the wrong time, fidgeting, provoking laughter (derision, not shared humour), teacher interrupted (excluding normal exchanges), physical aggression, damage to materials/equipment, disobeying the teacher, cheating, pupil insulted, teacher insulted.

The most common four misbehaviours were excessively noisy talk, non-verbal behaviour, behaviour not appropriate to task, irrelevant talk, inappropriate use of materials/ equipment. In contrast to this, the least common four misbehaviours were disobeying the teacher, cheating, pupil insulted, teacher insulted. They also looked at

the degree of seriousness of each misbehaviour. 83% of all misbehaviour was mild, 15 % was more serious and 2% was very serious.

Wragg (1993) also studied misbehaviour as part of a classroom management study. He used a structured classroom observation schedule in order to observe primary school pupils and teachers. He observed 60 teachers in 239 lessons and he used 11 categories of misbehaviour in order to record the types of misbehaviour. These names and percentages are given in table 2.1. He also found out that only 2% of all misbehaviour was serious and the rest (98%) was mild misbehaviour.

TABLE 2.1. THE PERCENTAGE MISBEHAVIOUR.

Types of misbehaviour	Percentages of occurrences
Noisy or illicit talking	32.9
Inappropriate movement	26.4
Inappropriate use of materials	10.3
Defiance of teacher	8.3
Taking something without permission	1.8
Physical aggression towards another pupil	1.4
Illicit copying	0.6
Damage to materials/equipment	0.3
Insult to teacher	0.3
Illicit eating or drinking.	0.3
Refusal to move	0.1

(Table source: Wragg, 1993; p.64).

The most striking results of Wragg's (1993) study is that primary classrooms have predominantly very little misbehaviour. Table 2.1 confirms that the main three behavioural problems including 70% in the primary classroom were noisy or illicit talking (32,9), inappropriate movement (26,4) and inappropriate use of materials (10,3%). The serious behavioural problems such as taking something without permission, physical aggression, damaging materials and insulting were rarely seen.

Wragg (1993) also compared the frequency of misbehaviour based on the age of pupils. He categorised age into 3 categories: reception class (4-7 year olds), year 3 and 4 (7-9 year olds) and year 5, 6 and 7 (9-12 year olds). He found that the frequency of misbehaviour in the 7-9 year old pupils' classroom was more than that of the reception class and of the 9-12 year olds

In addition to this, he also compared the time of day. He found that pupils seemed to be more tired in the afternoon, and more likely to misbehave. He also found that the frequency of the most common four misbehaviours: noisy or illicit talking (31-40), inappropriate movement (26-27), inappropriate use of materials (9-13), defiance of teacher (7-12) change depended on whether observation took place during the morning or afternoon.

The other main approach in identifying pupils' misbehaviour is teachers' self reports. The Elton report (DES,1989) was based on a national survey which included 3500 teachers in 220 primary and 250 secondary schools, representing the whole country. In the survey, teachers were asked to report their current experience in the classroom during the previous week. Most teachers reported that "...at some point, the flow of their lessons had been impeded or disrupted by having to deal with minor discipline problems." (p.61). The percentage of those primary teachers who reported having to handle a pupils' misbehaviour is given in table 2.2.

Once again table 2.2 also confirms that the most dominant misbehaviour in the primary classroom is verbal misbehaviour such as talking out of turn and unnecessary noise. As can be seen serious misbehaviour was rare at primary level. Very few teachers reported that serious problems such as physical aggression, verbal abuse and physical destructiveness occured on a daily or weekly basis. This national survey confirms that primary school pupils are required to learn how to do assigned work without inappropriate speech. Both Wragg's (1993) study and the Elton report (DES, 1989) show that like traffic accidents on the road, it is not possible to prevent inappropriate speech totally. Therefore, teachers should direct pupils to speak about an assigned task rather than irrelevant issues.

TABLE 2.2. PERCENTAGE OF PRIMARY TEACHERS WHO REPORTED THEY HAD TO HANDLE MISBEHAVIOUR DURING THE COURSE OF THEIR CLASSROOM TEACHING IN THE PREVIOUS WEEK.

Type of pupil behaviour	at least one during week %	at least daily %
1. Talking out of turn (e.g. by making remarks, calling out, distracting others by chattering)	97	69
2. Hindering other pupils (e.g. by distracting them from work, interfering with equipment or materials)	90	42
3. Making unnecessary (non-verbal) noise (e.g. by scraping chairs, banging objects, moving clumsily)	85	42
4. Physical aggression towards other pupils (e.g. by pushing, punching, striking)	74	17
5. Getting out of seat without permission	73	34
6. Calculated idleness or work avoidance (e.g. delaying start to work set, not having essential books or equipment)	67	21
7. General rowdiness, horseplay or mucking about	60	14
8. Verbal abuse towards other pupils (e.g. offensive or insulting remarks)	55	10
9. Not being punctual (e.g. being late to school or lessons)	53	11
10.Persistently infringing class (or school) rules (e.g. on dress, pupil behaviour)	50	13
11.Cheeky or impertinent remarks or responses	41	6
12.Physical destructiveness (e.g. breaking objects, damaging furniture & fabric)	16	1
13.Verbal abuse towards teacher (e.g. offensive, insulting, insolent or threatening remarks)	7	1
14.Physical aggression towards you (the teacher)	2.1	0

(source: DES, 1989 ; p. 242).

In a similar way Wheldall and Merrett (1988) have studied classroom behaviour with regard to the teachers' perception. They also used questionnaires in order to find out teachers' perception of pupils' disruptive behaviour. They sent questionnaires to 32 schools comprising of 8 infant schools, 9 junior schools and 15 junior/infant schools. They studied 192 teachers in 32 different schools. They listed 10 types of disruptive behaviour in order to assess teachers' perceptions about pupils' behaviour. The disruptive behaviour included eating, making unnecessary noise (non-verbal), disobedience, talking out of turn, idleness/slowness, unpunctuality, hindering other children, physical aggression, untidiness and students getting out of their seat.

They found that boys were perceived by 76% of teachers as disruptive compared to girls. 77% of female teachers claimed that boys were the most disruptive pupils. Slightly fewer (74%) of male teachers claimed that boys were the most disruptive pupils. Wheldall and Merrett (1988) claim that boys were perceived by all teachers to be significantly more disruptive than girls. When teachers were asked to state the most disruptive behaviour in their classroom, 47% of teachers said, talking out of turn, 25% of them said, hindering other pupils and rest of the disruptive behaviours reached 10%.

In a similar manner Varley and Busher (1989) also studied disruption in a small survey. They, however, used the concept of interruption instead of disruption. They point out that interruption can be defined as;

> "extensively, as any constraint which forces a teacher either (a) to suspend the teaching activity for some period of time, however brief; or (b) to alter the intended teaching activity; or (c) results in a different teaching outcome." (p.55).

They researched 11 schools with 16 teachers in nine junior-infant schools and 2 junior schools. They used structured interviews with both headteachers and teachers. They also observed teachers, using ethnographic observation. According to these researchers interruptions were part of the teachers job. They claimed that class teachers generally handle at least two interruptions per minute every day. Three year one teachers specifically pointed out that

> "interruptions had a greater disturbing effect on younger children that, they used interruptions 'as an excuse to stop working', whereas older pupils 'just want to get on with their work'." (p.64).

In addition to this, Varley and Busher (1989) found that computers have had a great influence on the density of misbehaviour. Various resources such as using computers, maths equipment and art materials lead to distraction and interruptions in the classroom.

Borg and Falzon (1990) also used survey techniques in order to understand the primary school teachers' perception of pupils' misbehaviour. They questioned 844 primary school teachers on a Maltese island using self administered questionnaires that contained 16 selected types of misbehaviour, consisting of being untidy in personal appearance, lying, being easily discouraged, weepy, disobediences, talkative, attention-

seeking, fearful/easily frightened, suspiciousness, cruelty/bullying, shyness, stealing, careless/untidy in work, rudeness/impertinence, unhappy/depressed, restlessness.

Borg and Falzon (1990) evaluated misbehaviour depending on pupils' age and gender. They grouped pupils into 2 groups: years 1-3 and years 4-6 pupils. They found that students' age is an important moderator of half of all misbehaviour. Two most serious kinds of misbehaviour were stealing and cruelty/bullying. Furthermore, unhappy/depressed, untidy in personal appearance, lying, disobedience, talkative, cruelty/bullying, stealing, careless/untidy in work and rudeness/impertinence were perceived to be significantly more serious by year 4-6 pupils' teachers than younger ones.

They also compared misbehaviour based on pupils' gender. The six most serious misbehaviours for years 1-3 and 4-6 pupils of both sexes were stealing, cruelty/bullying, unhappy/depressed, rudeness/impertinence, lying, disobedience. In contrast to this, if all misbehaviours are taken into account then teachers perceive these misbehaviours more seriously for boys than for girls. Furthermore, they found out that inexperienced teachers judged these misbehaviours more seriously than experienced teachers.

The definition and description of misbehaviour varied based on teachers' justification of pupils, learning activities and curriculum matters. However some pupils showed particular characteristics that differentiated them from non-disruptive pupils, such as home background, and psychological mood. The teachers' attribution is also important in order to decide what is disruptive behaviour and determinants of it. Although various problems can be attributed to pupils' personal characteristics, teachers personal characteristics, instruction and teaching methods may also result in disruption in the classroom. All these issues have been studied by several researchers using various methods such as: observation, interview and survey.

In addition to studying classroom misbehaviour, teachers' intervention of misbehaviour in order to maintain classroom processes smoothly is also an important part of teachers' behaviour management strategies. In the next section, therefore, a variety of teacher behaviour management strategies will be examined.

2.3. THE NATURE OF TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Brophy and Evertson (1976) point out that the determinant of an effective classroom manager is that

> "...they kept their students actively engaged in productive classroom work most of the time, thus minimising the amount of trouble that they had to deal with. They were more successful because they reduced the frequency of trouble, not because they were more skilled at dealing with trouble when it appeared." (p.52).

In addition to this, Brophy (1983) also states that

> "the effective managers are successful not so much because they are more effective in responding to problems of inattention or disruption, but because they are more effective in preventing such problems from arising in the first place." (p.33).

As can be seen from both definitions, there are two key strategies: proactive and reactive. Anderson (1991) also points out these two aspects of behavioural management: "preventing behavioural problems from occurring and reacting to behavioural problems that have occurred." (p.45). Emmer (1994) conceptualises teacher managerial behaviour under the two strategies: preventive and reactive. Sanford and Emmer (1988) state that

> "the prevention of problems through strategies and behaviours that increase student involvement in class activities and lessen the degree to which teachers must deal with misbehaviour." (p.39).

Parallel to these approaches teacher behaviour management strategies will be discussed under two headings: teacher preventive and reactive behaviour management strategies.

2.3.1. TEACHERS' PREVENTIVE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Gettinger (1988) points out that preventive classroom management is:

"...fundamentally a process of establishing order in classrooms rather than responding to problems of disruptive or off task behaviour. Proactive methods are aimed at establishing and maintaining a system for productive classroom behaviour rather than spotting and punishing individuals' misbehaviour." (p.240).

The concept of preventive behaviour management, especially, emphasises the process of improving pupils' task engagement levels that reduce their interest in irrelevant and inappropriate activities, this is also defined as misbehaviour. Preventive behaviour management was used dominantly in Kounin's (1970) research. Kounin (1970) carried out his research based on videotaping 80 primary school classrooms. He focused, especially, on behaviour management. He tried to uncover classroom processes by watching and analysing the videotapes of real classrooms. He also paid attention to the comparison between teachers in good and in poor classrooms. He points out that "successful classrooms were defined as those having a high prevalence of work involvement and a low amount of misbehaviour in learning settings." (p.IV). Kounin (1970) also focused on the classroom as a whole rather than individual pupils. He states that

"...how a teachers' method of handling the misbehaviour of a student influences the other students who are audiences to the event but not themselves targets. We referred to this as the ripple effect in discipline." (p. V).

Kounin (1970) described the characteristics of successful classroom teachers with 4 basic concepts: withitness, overlapping, smoothness and group alerting.

- WITHITNESS: It is defined "...as a teachers' communicating to the children by her actual behaviour that she knows what the children are doing or has the proverbial eyes in back of her head." (pp.80-81). This characteristic especially stresses the anticipation of misbehaviour and being aware of what may happen in the classroom related to misbehaviour.

- OVERLAPPING: This refers to "...what the teacher does when she has two matters to deal with at the same time." (p.85). Teachers generally need to do more than one thing at one time. For example, during teaching, they are also required to deal with pupils' misbehaviour without stopping instruction in the activity.

31

- SMOOTHNESS AND MOMENTUM IN LESSON: This characteristic refers to management of activity movement, such as initiating, sustaining and terminating several activities in the classroom (Kounin, 1970).

- MAINTAINING GROUP FOCUS; GROUP ALERTING: This characteristic of teachers refers to the

> "...degree to which a teacher attempts to involve non-reciting children in the recitation task, maintain their attention, and keep them 'on their toes' or alerted." (Kounin, 1970; p.117).

This is mainly related to involving all pupils in learning activities.

To sum up, Doyle (1985) points out that Kounin's major contribution is that

> "...a teachers' success in classroom management, defined in terms of high levels of student involvement and low levels of disruption, depended on his or her ability to monitor and guide a complex classroom system. To accomplish this task, the successful managers were aware of what was happening in classrooms and were able to handle two or more simultaneous events, to sustain a group focus, and to keep the action moving along smoothly." (Doyle, 1985; p.31).

After Kounins' (1970) major contribution to classroom management several studies related to this issue were done in the early and middle 1980's. In particular, Emmer, Evertson and Anderson (1980) explained aspects of classroom management, and emphasised the role of preventive behaviour strategies. They showed two major dimensions in preventive behaviour management strategies: the beginning of the year in the classroom and establishing classroom rules.

2.3.1.1.THE BEGINNING OF THE YEAR OF THE CLASSROOM

One of the common maxims of teaching in an English school is that called 'don't smile until Christmas'. This means that the teacher should be firm with the class at the beginning of the school year and only relax once students learn to behave appropriately. Emmer, Evertson and Anderson (1980) studied effective classroom management at the beginning of the school year. They point out that "...beginning of year activities are especially important in determining the level of pupil co-operation during the remainder of the year" (p.220). They investigated how effective teachers began the year

and what kind of managerial strategies they used. They studied 27 third grade primary school teachers in 8 schools. They used the observation technique of a classroom narrative record from the first week of school and then throughout the year.

They found that effective teachers were separated from ineffective counterparts by the degree to which the rules and "...the procedures were integrated into a workable system and how effectively the system was taught to the children (p.224)." Effective teachers planned the first day of school with lots of control over the pupils. When pupils arrived in the classroom, effective teachers started to describe classroom rules and procedures very clearly with examples and reasons. They spent most of their time in the first week explaining and reminding pupils on classroom rules. The main characteristics of effective teachers are "...they monitored students carefully and when disruptive behaviour occurred they stopped it promptly" (p.225).

In addition to this,

> "...the more effective teacher managers clearly established themselves
> as the classroom leaders. They worked on rules and procedures until the
> children learned them.... By the end of the first three weeks, these
> classes were ready for the rest of the year." (p.225).

Evertson (1989) states that "...the key to organising and managing classrooms for effective instruction begins with advance preparation and planning the first day of the school." (p.82). Evertson (1989) studied a school based training program, at the beginning of the year in order to improve classroom management qualifications. She did experiments in order to evaluate the importance of research based on classroom management program. 29 primary school classrooms were studied. She observed that "...treatment teachers had lower off task rates, less inappropriate behaviour, and were able to plan and implement routines that helped the year to begin effectively." (p.88). At the end of the research she claimed that "...solving managerial and organisational problems at the beginning of the year is essential in laying groundwork for quality learning opportunities for students." (p.90).

To sum up, Gettinger (1988) indicates that

"...the beginning of the year is a critical time for establishing effective classroom management. What teachers do to establish a productive classroom climate and to orient students in the first few days of school is a predictor of long term classroom management and teaching success...." (p.235).

Emmer and Evertson (1981) also confirm the importance of the beginning of the year. They point out that "the way in which teachers structure the first part of the year has consequences for their classroom management throughout the year." (p.345). In addition to this, they also emphasise that "a major management task at the beginning of the year is teaching children the rules and procedures of the classroom." (p.345).

2.3.1.2.CLASSROOM RULES

The general consensus emerging from research into the first of weeks of the school year is that one of the prime tasks of the teacher is stating and explaining the rules of behaviour and dealing promptly with any cases where these rules are broken. In this section we looked at the rules. Meanwhile McGinnis, Frederic and Edwards (1995) state that:

> "...schools require rules to function efficiently and effectively. Proactive classroom management strategies rely on the establishment of classroom rules as a means of preventing problem behaviour." (p.220).

As it can be seen from these quotations classroom rules are one of the most important components of preventive behaviour management strategies. Classroom rules are defined in a more or less similar way by different researchers as

> "class values underpinning all classroom activity." (Evertson, 1994, p.817).

> "do's and don'ts of classroom life all those guidelines for action and for the evaluation of action that the teacher expresses or implies through word or deed." (Boostrom, 1991; p.194).

> "behavioural standards, norms and behavioural expectations to describe the agreements teachers and students make regarding the types of behaviours that help a classroom be a safe community of support." (Jones and Jones, 1998; p.241).

> " classroom rules are usually intended to regulate forms of individual conduct that are likely to disrupt activities, cause injury of damage school property." (Doyle, 1990; p.118).

All of these definitions and descriptions show that rules are a guideline that leads to smooth and peaceful teaching without any disruption in the classroom. Without these guidelines it would be difficult to survive in the classroom and also difficult to orchestrate several classroom activities at the same time without any distraction.

As many pupils are assembled in a classroom, for a long period of time, in order to achieve a predefined purpose, the processes in the classroom are managed by explicit or implicit rules (Doyle, 1986). Hargreaves et al. (1975) point out that there are five phases in the classroom during each lesson. These phases are: "the 'entry phase', the 'settling down' or preparation phase, the 'lesson proper' phase, the 'clearing up' phase, the 'exit' phase." (p.67). Each phase includes different rules and emphasises different issues. The rule setting process that focuses individuals or all phases are crucial functions for teachers. Doyle (1990) suggests that the rule making process is not only making a list of directives, but teachers should understand what they are trying to orchestrate in each phase of the lesson. Boostrom (1991) points out that roughly four types of rules exist in the classroom. They are " rules about non-academic procedures, ...how to do classroom work, ...relationships with others in the classroom, and rules embedded in the subject matter." (p.194). The aim of making rules is to create an orderly environment and to have a mastery of learning (Boostrom, 1991).

McGinnnis et al. (1995) argue that pupils should be involved in the rule making process. They state that "students should be involved in the creation of rules. At this point, communication between teacher and student is of utmost importance." (p.222). Cullingford (1988) studied school rules and children's attitudes towards discipline by using semi-structured interviews with more than 60 students in their last year of primary school, and their first year of secondary school. Pupils thought that "... the teachers were there to impose rules and make sure that the rules protected the weak from the strong...." (p.4). Pupils also stated that "...rules are the only barrier against extreme bullying and natural excess...." (p.4). Pupils assumed that rules are a component of preventing thing from going wrong instead of encouraging and reinforcing positive behaviour. In addition to this pupils also expected their teachers to obey joint rules in the classroom as their side of the bargain (Cullingford, 1988).

Wragg and Wood (1984) studied the same issue under the heading of 'teachers' first encounters with their classes'. They researched 20 experienced teachers and 40 trainee teachers doing their bachelor degrees (19) and PGCE (21) course. They used both interviews and observation techniques in order to collect the data. They found that "student teachers gave a great deal of thought to lesson content and little to managerial aspects." (p.56). There were also two major differences between experienced teachers and trainees in establishing classroom rules. The first difference was that experienced teachers were confident and sure about the importance of rules. The second difference was the emphasise on the nature of rules suitable for the current classroom. Inexperienced teachers were less confident and clear about their rules and implementation. They also compared pupils involvement in activities for the first eight lessons. They found that there was a significant difference between experienced teachers, BEd and PGCE student teachers. There were also differences between all three groups with regard to pupils misbehaviour during the first eight lessons. They observed that there was more misbehaviour in BEd and PGCE student teachers' classrooms compared to experienced teachers in the first eight lessons.

In a similar manner Merrent and Jones (1994) studied the nature of the rule system in the primary school by using structured interviews. They found that almost half of the schools had rules that were written in either school policy or in a booklet that was prepared for parents. In addition to this, rules were also expressed by head teachers at assemblies and by classroom teachers in classrooms. All school staff were also given copies of rules and they had to obey these rules either written or orally presented at assembly, in order to develop a school ethos or comply with LEA guidelines. The majority of schools have developed school rules in the last 12 months. The majority of these were developed by all members of staff and other bodies of the school. In contrast to this, only two out of 21 schools involved pupils when developing rules.

The role of pupils during the rule making process appears crucial. Docking (1993) states that "...with older primary children, rules can be profitably negotiated rather than just explained." (p.172). He also claims that the pupils' "... sense of security depends on a clear understanding of what is to count as appropriate and inappropriate behaviour...." (p.172).

Emmer, Evertson and Anderson (1980) studied effective classroom management at the beginning of the school year with 27 primary school teachers. They used narrative classroom records. They found that the better classroom manager spent more time during the beginning of the school year explaining and reminding pupils of rules. They found that there was no difference between poor and better managers with regard to having classroom rules. In contrast to this, the differences lay in the presentation and follow up style of teachers.

Meanwhile Sanford, Emmer and Clements (1983) clarify effective teachers' characteristics with regard to rules. They claimed that:

> "effective classroom managers carefully taught students how to follow classroom procedures and rules. They explained, discussed, rationales, demonstrated, had students rehearse or practice, gave accurate feedback, and reviewed or retaught as needed." (p.57).

In addition to this the flexibility in classroom rules is crucial. Rules "...that are appropriate at the beginning of the year might well become decreasingly appropriate as the year goes on ...." (Brophy and Evertson, 1976; p.60). Therefore, rules could be replaced completely or partially by new ones. In addition to this, different pupils with different ages and contexts may require different sets of rules (Brophy and Evertson, 1976).

Martin (1992) studied the application of classroom management approaches to in-service programmes. He researched 60 teachers on the in-service course and 60 corresponding control group teachers who matched with those teachers who joined in service course. Martin (1992) found that the teachers who joined the in-service training, focused on rules more than the control group, who did not join the in-service training. Teachers claimed that rules were an integral part of their classroom management strategies. These teachers communicated very clearly, the aim and rationale of the rules. In contrast to this, the control group put less emphasis on rules.

As can be seen from the research results given above, classroom rules seem to play a crucial part in the smooth management of the classroom. Several research results show that there were differences between experienced and non-experienced, effective and non-effective teachers in having and establishing rules. The beginning of the term is

essential, in order to establish rules. If the rules are not established at the beginning, it is possible to see disorganisation in teaching and in the initiation and maintenance of activities and routines in the classroom.

2.3.2. TEACHERS' REACTIVE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Although prevention of misbehaviour before it arises is an effective way of behaviour management, in several circumstances it is not enough to prevent misbehaviour before it occurs. As a result, teachers meet disruption during instruction. The teacher then needs to intervene in order to maintain teaching and learning processes. In this case, teachers' active response, in other words reactive behaviour is required to deal with pupils misbehaviour. Doyle (1986) has also stated that this is one of the essential roles and responsibilities of teachers in the classroom to keep order and maximise learning. To accomplish this aim, teachers are required to intervene in misbehaviour either before or after its escalation. Doyle (1986) states that teachers:

> "must decide when and how to intervene into the flow of activity to repair order, that is, to stop a competing or disruptive vector and return to the primary program of action for a segment." (p.420).

Emmer (1994) points out that the complexity of teacher intervention of misbehaviour in another words reactive behaviour management strategies, show fluctuation from less time or effort, such as eye contact and facial expression, to verbal intervention which is more time consuming, such as removing pupils from the classroom. In addition to this, Doyle (1986) suggests that intervention includes risk factors since it may lead to some interruption in the flow of activities. He further maintains that intervention:

> "...call attention to potentially disruptive behaviour and they initiate a program of action that ironically can pull the class further away from the primary vector and a weaken its function in holding order in place." (p.421).

In a similar manner Kounin (1970) uses the concept of 'ripple effect' in order to explain this side effect. He states that "how a teacher's method of handling the misbehaviour of one child influences other children who are audiences to the event but not themselves targets." (p.2).

Weinstein and Mignano (1997) examine teachers' intervention in misbehaviour under three headings: non-verbal interventions, verbal interventions and ignoring the misbehaviour. Their description of strategies and their advantages are shown in table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3. DEALING WITH MINOR MISBEHAVIOUR

Strategy	Advantages
1. Non-verbal interventions: Facial expressions Eye contact Hand signals Proximity	Allow you to prompt appropriate behaviour without disrupting lesson. Encourage students to assume responsibility for changing behaviour
2.Verbal interventions: Direct command Stating student's name Rule reminder Calling on child to participate Incorporating child's name into Use of gentle humour I-message	Straightforward Brief, unobtrusive Reinforces desired behaviour Gets student back on task without even citing the misbehaviour; maintains flow of lesson Prompts a smile along with appropriate behaviour Minimises negative evaluations and preserves relationships Points out consequences of behaviour Promotes students' autonomy and responsibility for actions
3. Ignoring the misbehaviour	Unobtrusive; protects the flow of the lesson

(source: Weinstein and Mignano, 1997; p.105)

In a similar way Wragg et al. (1979) examine teachers' response patterns to pupils' misbehaviour under three headings: verbal, non-verbal and punishment. They classify particular teachers behaviour in order to develop an observation schedule. They demonstrate that verbal responses include "order to cease, reprimand, threat of punishment, statement of rule, humour, involves pupils in work, and praise or encouragement." (p. 5). Non-verbal interventions are "gesture, facial expression, proximity, touch and dramatic pause." (p.5). Punishment interventions are "extra work, pupil moved, confiscation, detention, physical, ridicule and another teacher involved." (p.5).

As a parallel to Wragg et al. (1979) approach, teachers managerial strategies will be examined under four headings: teachers' non-verbal intervention, teachers' verbal intervention, teacher's punishment and intervention as a whole school policy.

2.3.2.1.TEACHERS' NON-VERBAL INTERVENTION

Weinstein and Mignano (1997) state that non-verbal intervention is very suitable especially for mild misbehaviour such as whispering, staring into space, calling out, wandering around the classroom and passing notes. They further suggest that "non-verbal interventions not only allow you to deal with these misbehaviours, they enable you to protect and continue your lesson." (p.106). The essential advantages of non-verbal interventions are that they protect teacher from distracting other pupils concentration while handling misbehaviour (Weinstein and Mignano, 1997).

If misbehaviour is extremely mild and brief, intervention can be more disruptive than pupils' actual misbehaviour. Deliberately ignoring misbehaviour is appropriate in this kind of situation, however, pupils assume that teacher is unaware of what is happening in a classroom and the degree of misbehaviour may escalate (Weinstein and Mignano, 1997).

If a teacher is required to intervene, choosing, non-verbal strategies are the best ways to prevent 'a ripple effect'. For example, 'proximity' is one of the best way to remind pupils of classroom rules. Gray and Richer (1988) state that "as a reminder of the lesson expectations, the closer you are to the pupil, the more effective the reminder." (p.69). Physical proximity as a non-verbal cue is one of the most common strategies to cease misbehaviour without interrupting the lesson (Evertson et al., 1997).

Eye contact is also one of the other non-verbal managerial strategies. Sanford and Emmer (1988) point out that:

> "the teacher looks at the student until eye contact is made and the
> inappropriate behaviour ceases. As with proximity control, eye contact
> can be made without interrupting on going activity." (p.40).

Gesture is one of the other common strategies in the classroom. Most pupils are well behaved, however, in just a short time anyone of them can forget what s/he is doing and where s/he is. In this circumstance, if a teacher just looks at the pupils and respectfully

shaking their head or finger, this seems to work, pupils deliberately return to the instruction (Gray and Richer, 1988).

The other non-verbal strategy is touch. Weinstein and Mignano (1997) state that:

> "placing a hand on a student's shoulder or physically guiding a child to pick up a pencil and get to work are also unobtrusive, non-verbal interventions that teachers have found helpful." (p.106).

In addition to this, Gray and Richer (1988) advise that "gently approaching the pupil also carries the message that you are certainly not anxious about the situation...." (p.69).

Wheldall, Bevan and Shortall (1986) investigated the effects of teachers' touch on the behaviour of pupils in infant school. They used a structured observation schedule in order to observe teachers' touch behaviour and its' effects on pupils' task engagement. They observed two experienced teachers' classrooms in infant schools. Their observation shows that teachers' intervention by way of touching pupils results in an increase of pupils' on-task behaviour and a decrease in pupils' misbehaviour. When teachers touched pupils only to praise them for appropriate academic and social behaviour, pupils' on task behaviour increased substantially from 78% to 95% in first teacher's classroom and from 72% to 90% in the second. In addition to this, the mean number of misbehaviour dropped from 9.5 (baseline) to 3.2 (intervention) in the first teacher's classroom and from 11.6 (baseline) to 2.4 (intervention) in the second teacher's classroom. Wheldall et al. (1986) state that their results

> "...provide preliminary evidence for the effectiveness of teacher touch as a reinforcer for appropriate classroom behaviour when accompanying praise." (p.213).

Wheldall et al. (1986) further suggest that:

> "in a sense non-verbal factors such as touch, eye contact and proximity are an emotional bridge between verbal behaviour and physical action. Empty praise is meaningless but accompanied by proximity, eye contact and/or touch it re-evokes its association with primary reinforces such as creature contact (hugs, kisses, etc.) (similarly, continual empty nagging reprimands can safely be ignored, but if the teacher comes near, glares and /or touches, the threat of physical punishment is clearly evoked.) Touch would seem to be a particularly powerful variable in this respect and deserves further analysis and experimentation to refine its use as a reinforcer in classroom management." (p.216).

2.3.2.2.TEACHERS' VERBAL INTERVENTION

If non-verbal intervention of misbehaviour is not sufficient to cause it to cease, verbal intervention can be chosen as a way of dealing with misbehaviour. Various strategies as outlined can be chosen, depending on the severity of the misbehaviour (Weinstein and Mignano, 1997).

Rosen et al. (1990) state that the reasons for using verbal intervention on pupils' misbehaviour in order to maintain classroom behaviour are:

> "...(1) verbal responses are more popular because teachers perceive
> them to be more effective; (2) verbal responses require the least amount
> of time and effort to be implement; (3) at least with regard to
> inappropriate behaviour, teachers may not feel comfortable with
> concrete measures such as punishment or response costs or they are
> simply not assertive enough to impose concrete consequences; and (4)
> use of concrete consequences may be reserved as a backup for some
> teachers when verbal response don't work." (p.268).

If the misbehaviour is not very serious, using non-directive verbal intervention by simply calling a pupil's name is generally enough to get pupils back on task (Weinstein and Mignano, 1997). In addition to saying the pupil's name, reminding them of appropriate behaviour also turns them back from off-task to on-task (Evertson et al., 1997). Furthermore, redirection of pupils' concentration, giving group or individual public praise for expected behaviour encourages them to engage in learning activities (Evertson et al., 1997).

Weinstein and Mignano (1997) point out that "the use of humour can provide another 'gentle way of reminding children to correct their behaviour." (p107). Humour also neutralises the pupil's anxiety, and leads to an unthreatened feeling (Gray and Richer, 1988). It shows the funny side of classroom processes and misbehaviour (Weinstein and Mignano, 1997).

An 'I message' is another way of confrontation with pupils misbehaviour. Gordon and Burch (1974) points out that

> "if the teacher said something about how he felt about the behaviour or
> how it tangibly affected him, the message would have to come out as an
> I message rather than you message." (p.137).

42

Gordon and Burch (1974) further suggests that in a 'you' oriented message the teacher is "...blaming the student for having whatever need prompted him to contact you." (p.138). In a 'you' oriented message teachers avoid responsibility for their feelings of frustration. Using 'I message' in the classroom provides three effective advantages for managerial confrontation:

> "(1) they have a high probability of promoting a willingness to change;
> (2) they contain minimal negative evaluation of the student; and (3) they
> do not injure the relationship." (Gordon and Burch 1974; p.140).

One other verbal response is a strong desist statement such as "...you need to stop that behaviour now." (Sanford and Emmer, 1988; p.42). In addition to the desist statement the teacher sometimes criticises or reprimands pupils. Kyriacou (1997) states that "a reprimand is a communication by the teacher to a pupil indicating disapproval of the pupils misbehaviour." (p.128). The degree of reprimand can change from a stern stare to a threat of sanction (Kyriacou, 1997). It can be "...conveyed through the teachers' words, tone, facial features, and other body language." (Sanford and Emmer, 1988; p.42).

2.3.2.3.TEACHER PUNISHMENTS

Burden (1995) defined punishment as an "...act of imposing a penalty with the intention of suppressing undesirable behaviour." (p.303). Generally, punishment takes the form of 'loss of privileges', 'detention', 'time out' and as a 'penalty' in the classroom.

In the general practice of classroom activities, pupils have some special privileges such as using computer facilities, and classroom equipment. If pupils show misbehaviour, they may loose their privileges, such as not using a particular piece of equipment (Burden, 1995; Evertson et al., 1997). Docking (1996) point out that the aim of this technique is:

> "...to prompt offenders to reflect whether the illegitimate enjoyment
> derived from misbehaving is worth the cost of loosing opportunities
> which can be legitimately enjoyed. The technique is therefore
> technically known as 'response cost'." (p.85).

One other commonly used punishment is detention of pupils during their lunch break, or after the lesson or at the end of school when they are supposed to be free (Evertson

et al., 1997). Because of detention, pupils are deprived of free time, playing games or other socialisation processes in the school (Burden, 1995). One of the advantages of detention is that because it is not liked by most pupils, it usually results in avoiding the probability of disruption (Evertson et al., 1997).

Another punishment technique is 'time out' in the classroom. This is a common technique after managerial confrontation in order to send pupils to have a 'cool of' period until appropriate behaviour is demonstrated (Topping, 1987). It is especially common when the pupil is talking, disturbing his friends or interferes with the fluency of the lesson (Burden, 1995).

When pupils show further disruption, extra work may be given as a penalty. For example pupils may be required to do extra mathematical problems in maths, to run extra miles in physical education, or extra written work in English. One of the main disadvantages of this kind of punishment is that pupils' attitudes toward the school can be negatively affected (Evertson et al., 1997).

The main disadvantages of punishment techniques are the side effects. As it is seen to be solving managerial confrontation, it generally suppresses misbehaviour rather than teaching expected behaviour. Pupils may develop extreme emotional reactions towards school, suppress desired behaviour, or escape from the school. Punishment only inhibits particular behaviours (Topping, 1987).

Merret and Jones (1994) investigated the system of sanctions in the primary school. They researched 210 teachers in 24 schools using structured interview techniques. They categorised sanctions based on their research results under three headings: lower order sanctions, middle order sanctions, and higher order sanctions. They found that lower order sanctions included

> "telling off, both public and private; detention, lines or tables; comments on end of term or year report; confiscation of property, and short exclusion from the lesson." (p.349).

The middle order sanctions included

"on report card, letter home, forbidding of certain activities, removal of privileges, demotions, sending of refuge (special area or teacher), referral to an outside both (for example the educational psychologist), direct contact with parents and time out." (p.349).

The higher order sanctions included "exclusion, suspension or expulsion from school and usually involve some authority or agency outside the school." (p.349).

Merret and Jones (1994) point out that the most common sanction is telling off the pupil in the primary classroom. Detention was not used after school in any primary school. In contrast, some of the schools use play time detention for punishing misbehaviour. According to interview results, most headteachers claim that they do not like to see pupils excluded from the classroom. Furthermore, they suggest that it is not a productive form of punishment. They also found that the most common middle order sanction is a letter home and a higher order sanction is suspension.

Harrop and Williams (1992) also investigated pupils' perception and teachers' usage of punishments in the primary school. They studied 181 pupils in the primary school. Pupils and teachers were required to rank 10 types of punishments. Pupils evaluated the effectiveness of punishments and teachers evaluated the usage of punishments. The results are given in table 2.4

TABLE 2.4 PUPILS AND TEACHERS PERCEPTION OF PUNISHMENTS

Mean order of effectiveness as ranked by pupils	Mean order of usage as ranked by teachers
1. Parents informed about naughty behaviour	1. Being told off in front of the class
2. Being stopped from going on a school trip	2. Parents informed about naughty behaviour
3. Being sent to see the headteacher	3. Being told off in private
4. Being told off in front of the class	4. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your behaviour in private
5. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your behaviour in front of the class	5. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your behaviour in front of the class
6. Teacher explaining what is wrong with your behaviour in private	6. Being sent to see the headteacher
7. Taking unfinished work home	7. Kept in at playtime
8. Being told off in private	8. Being moved to another seat in the classroom
9. Kept in at playtime	9. Being stopped from going on a school trip
10. Being moved to another seat in the classroom	10. Taking unfinished work home

(Source: Harrop and Williams, 1992; p.213)

There is a slight difference between pupils' and teachers' perceptions of effective punishments. The largest difference between pupils and teachers are 'being stopped from going on a school trip'. Pupils ranked it second whereas teacher ranked it ninth. In contrast, one of the essential similarities was the status of 'parents informed about naughty behaviour'. Pupils ranked it first and teachers ranked it second.

Unlike the research related to the dimension of teachers' behaviour management techniques such as punishment, verbal or non-verbal intervention, some researchers conducted research about teachers' behaviour management techniques as a whole. For example, Wragg and Doley (1984) did research with PGCE student teachers. They studied systematic analysis of class management strategies of PGCE student teachers during their block practice, using systematic observation schedule, the Nottingham Class Management Observation schedule. Student teachers' responses to misbehaviour are given in table 2.5.

TABLE 2.5: STUDENT TEACHERS' REACTIONS TO MISBEHAVIOUR

Reactions	percentages
1. Order to cease	61
2. Reprimand	25
3. Statement of rule	24
4. Proximity (going over to pupils)	20
5. Involve pupils in work	16
6. Threat	10
7. Facial expression	8
8. Dramatic pause	7
9. Gesture	5
10.Pupil moved	3
11.Humour	2
12.Touch	1
13.Ridicule	1
14.Punishment	1

(source: Wragg and Doley, 1984; p.39).

Table 2.5 shows that the least seen type of teacher intervention were teacher non-verbal behaviour and punishments. Teacher punishments such as ridicule, pupil moved and punishment were almost not used by student teachers. Table 2.5 also confirms that non-verbal intervention such as touch, humour, gesture are less frequently used. However, proximity, in terms of going over to pupils, can be seen frequently. The most common

strategies were verbal strategies, such as order to cease, reprimand and statement of rules which can be seen frequently.

In a similar way, Wragg (1993) studied class management using a systematic observation schedule in the primary school classroom. He observed 60 teachers and 239 lessons. He examined teachers' responses to pupils misbehaviour. He observed the classroom based on pre-established observation schedules that contained 12 teachers responses.

TABLE 2.6: TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO MISBEHAVIOUR

Teachers' Responses to Misbehaviour	percentages of occurrences
1. Order to cease	72
2. Pupil named	68
3. Reprimand	45
4. Involve pupils in work	26
5. Proximity (going over to pupils)	22
6. Touch	16
7. Facial expression	15
8. Gesture	13
9. Pause	7
10.Pupil moved	5
11.Praise / encouragement	4
12.Humour	4

(source: Wragg, 1993; p.65).

The most striking aspect of Table 2.6 is the relatively large amount of non-verbal intervention strategies that were used by teachers in contrast to the student teacher in Table 2.5. Once again, it was seen that verbal strategies such as order to cease, pupil moved, reprimand and involves pupils in work are dominant type of teacher intervention. This result confirms that teachers use direct verbal response to pupils rather than preventing a ripple effect of intervention.

Rosen et al. (1990) also investigated the management techniques of primary school teachers by using self report survey techniques. They studied how teachers deal with appropriate and inappropriate academic and school behaviour, and the frequency of techniques that were used by primary school teachers. They observed 137 teachers and found out that there were clear difference between managing inappropriate academic and social behaviour.

They discovered that teachers showed response to inappropriate social behaviour in K-2 (61%) more than in Grades 3-6 (%35) and they reported using 'tell child to put work away or head down.' Furthermore, few teachers in grades K-1 (18%) reported using 'detention/ stay after school' compared to 52% of teachers of grades 2-6 (Rosen and et al., 1990).

In contrast to this, 44% of K-1 teachers admitted to using 'tell child to put work away or head down', compared to 18% teachers in grades 2-6. However, 9% of kindergarten teachers used 'detention or stay after school' compared to 6th grade teachers 67% (Rosen and et al., 1990).

They also found that primary school teachers generally preferred verbal behaviour management techniques, rather than concrete consequences. They claimed that:

> "verbal procedures may be more attractive to teachers than concrete procedures for a number of reasons. One possibility is that teachers truly believe that verbal responses are more effective than concrete ones. Another possible reason is that carrying out concrete consequences is perceived by teachers as taking more time and effort than making a quick verbal response." (Rosen et al., 1990; p.263).

2.3.3. INTERVENTION IN PUPILS' MISBEHAVIOUR AS A WHOLE SCHOOL BEHAVIOUR POLICY

In contrast to approaches which are largely carried out by the classroom teacher, most English schools have followed the Elton Report (DES, 1989) and established a whole school behaviour policy, in which serious misbehaviour is handled by senior members of school staff.

Traditional intervention to misbehaviour in the classroom seems to be reactive. When a teacher confronts any disruption, most teachers' behaviour is reactive, which is sometimes ineffective for pupils with severe behaviour problems. Most of the teachers' reactive strategies rely on detention, time out, penalty, loss of privileges, reprimand, suspension, gesture, touch and facial expressions (Colvin et al., 1993). This type of managerial strategies are not enough to reach expected levels of educational aims as a whole in the school.

Traditional behaviour management strategies suffer, from two weakness in particular: "a failure to consider staff development issues and a restrictive and reactive approach to discipline problems." (Colvin et al., 1993; p.363). Because of this, an alternative type of intervention is advised in order to solve managerial problems in the classroom and throughout school policy (DES, 1989; Colvin et al., 1993; Jones and Jones, 1998; Docking, 1996; Thopson et al., 1994; and Lund, 1996).

A school wide behaviour management model is one of the features of the whole instruction process in the school, it facilitates instruction and enhances learning by approaching managerial problems school wide. Therefore, by way of a whole school approach to discipline, the school mission and goals will be supported (Colvin et al., 1993).

A variety of managerial strategies that can be accepted as a school wide approach to behaviour problems, such as assertive discipline; positive discipline; Glaser's reality therapy; Dreikur's social discipline model; The Gordon's model etc. are pointed out by several researchers (Wolfgang, 1995; Charles, 1996; Martin and Sugarman, 1993).

Colvin and his colleagues (1993) advise three essential characteristics of school wide behaviour management strategies:

> "...(a) be implemented by all staff, (b) result in reduced problem behaviour in general education, and (c) meet the needs of all students including those with behaviour disorders." (p.365).

The main advantages and purposes of school wide behaviour management strategies are

> "...to promote consensus amongst members of the school community about expected standards of behaviour and how these might be realised and maintained." (Docking, 1996; p.98).

Furthermore, Jones and Jones (1998) also state that a school wide behaviour management plan includes

> "...a statement about how the school staff will work collaboratively to develop plans to assists these few but increasing number of students to develop more acceptable behaviour." (p.393).

The main issue in school wide behaviour management policy is collaboration among all staff of the school, such as headteachers, teachers, pupils and even other workers in the school. This point also was emphasised by the Elton Report (DES, 1989) which relied on a national survey in England. In the Elton Report it is specifically recommended that:

> "Behaviour policies should be specific to each school. The head should take the lead in proposing principles and standards, but the policy should be worked out co-operatively by the whole of the teaching staff in consultation with non-teaching staff...." (p.100).

The basic principles and characteristics of a school wide behaviour policy were demonstrated under the following five specific characteristics (Lund, 1996):

> "(1) To provide an opportunity to put shared values about the ways school communities should behave into practice. (2) To develop a positive reputation for the school within community. (3) To enable all members of the school community to behave appropriately towards each other and to co-operate in teaching and learning. (4) To provide a positive school ethos, conducive to teaching and learning. (5) To enable the school's system of rewards, sanctions and punishments to be accepted as fair and reasonable by the whole school community." (pp.3-4).

With the aid of collaboration among all staff and pupils in the school, a school wide behaviour policy could influence the attitudes and behaviour of pupils towards each other and all school staff (Thompson et al., 1994). This harmony is an essential feature that can also be defined as the preventive or proactive management of the school wide behaviour management model. Colvin and his colleagues (1993) further suggest that "a school-wide discipline plan will not be proactive or effective if staff approach behaviour problems in fundamentally different ways." (p.369). A comprehensive review of the whole school policy can only be implement once other school staff are equally co-operative or in agreement. A school wide behaviour management policy can only be implemented entirely with the co-operation of all staff of the school.

2.4. CLASSROOM SETTING STRATEGIES: SEATING ARRANGEMENT

The previous sections have dealt with ways in which teachers and schools attempt to cope with pupil misbehaviour. In the case of teachers' these responses are mainly non-verbal such as fidgeting, and verbal when they causes disruption to learning. However other researchers are interested in contribution of the classroom environment particularly whether the classroom seating arrangement helps or hinders pupils' capacity to learn.

The primary school classroom contains a variety of equipment which is used during instruction. They include the teacher's table, student's desks and chairs, computers, book cases, chalk board, overhead projector, television, tape recorder, bulletin boards, maps and a variety of other things. All of these items are arranged specifically depending on the structure of the instruction. The way in which a teacher arranges these things in a rectangular classroom generally depends on the teacher's knowledge about the teaching and learning processes. Before, or sometime during the lesson or the term, teachers generally do some decision making about how and where s/he can arrange these items in the classroom. Teachers are concerned with variety of details during this decision making process, such as the types of instructional activities (small groups, whole class discussions, teacher presentations, student presentations, individual assignments, group projects) and using equipment or materials (computer, tape recorder, and television). The quality and characteristics of this decision making process can lead to the success or failure of the teachers' instructional activities. Therefore, the teachers' room arrangement generally reflects her/his philosophy of teaching and learning processes (Evertson et al., 1997).

Getzels (1974) claims that "The images of habitation that people envision are expressions of their visions of themselves." (p.537). The classroom which is anticipated for students not only includes conceptions of space for learning, but also includes the conceptions of the learner. When the teacher arranges her/his classroom, s/he also arranges their own role and that of the pupils. S/he tells the student who s/he is supposed to be and how s/he is supposed to teach (Getzels, 1974). Furthermore, Getzels states that:

"one classroom tells the child he is empty organism learning through the operation of rewards and punishments at the command of the teacher; a second classroom tells him he is an active organism learning through solution of problems that satisfy his needs; a third classroom tells the child he is a social organism learning through interactions with others; the fourth classroom tells him he is a stimulus-seeking organism learning because he intrinsically has to." (p.538).

After the arrangement of the classroom, we are aware of who the student and teacher are and what both student and teacher have to do.

The aim of the classroom setting is to facilitate teaching and learning. Therefore, classroom organisation generally depends on values, aims and curriculum plans as a whole as well as practical circumstances. Because of this, classroom organisation must fit its instructional and curriculum activities and task purpose (Pollard,1997).

In the primary school, one of the important features of classroom setting is the pupils' seating arrangement. There are a variety of students' seating arrangement types, such as row and aisle pattern, table, circle and 'U' type. Both sitting in rows or around tables are the most common seating arrangements in many schools. Although it seems they are contrasting seating arrangement in terms of progressive and traditional styles, both of them are used together and efficiently in many primary schools.

There is a relationship among seating arrangements, and learning outcomes, pupil task engagement, pupil interaction, and the rate of misbehaviour. Many researchers have focused on these points. For example, Lambert (1994) points out that where a pupil sits in a classroom affects his or her experiences in the classroom. Seating location brings about more or less attention and interaction from the teacher. Although some pupils in the same seats are more likely to pay attention to the teacher, instruction and class assignments, many of them do not pay enough attention. The arrangement of furniture, teacher and pupils' tables, and the variety of equipment affects both students' and teachers' behaviour (Lambert, 1994).

Weinstein (1979), after doing literature review about classroom environment, states that the most interested pupils sit near the teacher, while those who want to escape, sit as close to the door as possible. Pupils who sit at the front of the classroom place a more positive value on learning. Besides, pupils who choose seats near his/her friends

imply a high requirement of affiliation and sensitivity to criticism. Conversely, pupils who sit at the rear of the classroom or near the windows have negative attitudes towards the learning process, and their own capacity for success. Pupils achievement levels go down as a function of distance from the teacher, both towards the rear and sides. Furthermore, students verbal interaction is concentrated in the centre of the classroom in terms of 'action zones'. Weinstein states that there is a very important dilemma about these debates:

> "Do students who are interested in a particular class and wish to participate select seats in the front, or does a front seating position somehow lead to these attitudes and behaviours?" (Weinstein, 1979; p. 579).

Schwebel and Cherlin (1972) claim that pupils who sit at the front in the primary school classroom often seem to be more attentive and less disruptive than their peers at the rear. There are two factors related with seat assignment: "...the pupils' understanding of why he was assigned to a particular seat, and whether the seat's location facilitates attention." (p.543). The allocation of "territory" in a social situation and seat assignment carries culturally coded messages. For example, in diplomatic meetings, generally the person with the higher status is seated near the head of the table (Schwebel and Cherlin, 1972).

Schwebel and Cherlin (1972) further claim that

> "...the proximity of seats in the front of the teacher's work area would lead the occupants to receive more individual attention than classmates in the back." (p.544).

They examined the behaviour of students who had been assigned seats in the front, middle and back of the classroom by the teacher and observed the following student behaviour according to several categories: own work, inactivity or assigned activity, social friendly, social work and social unfriendly.

Schwebel and Cherlin (1972) point out that students at the front were engaged, to large extent, in their own work and to a lesser extent of inactivity than the others. In contrast, students who sat at the back of the classroom showed more social friendly and unfriendly behaviour than their counterparts. In addition to this, they also evaluated

pupils' concerns of "who is most and least attentive, shy and likable to the teacher." (p.547).

They argue that there are obvious differences in teacher perception of pupils' who sit at the front, middle and back of the classroom. Pupils who sat at the front of the classroom were rated more attentive and least disruptive with regard to their counterparts.

There is a positive relationship between sitting in front of the classroom and access to the instructor, and student participation in lessons (Becker, Sommer, Bee, and Oxley, 1973). Becker and his colleagues investigated the relation between seating arrangement, class size and student participation. They did several experiments. In the first experiment they studied class size and the amount of student participation. They found that when class size increases total time of pupil participation also decreases. In the research, the participation dropped from an average of 5.8 minutes for small (6-20 pupils) to 2.4 and 2.6 minutes, medium (21-50) and large (50 + students) students. Furthermore, the percentage of students participation in small classrooms (41%) was higher than their counterparts with regards to medium (19%) and large (7%) sized classrooms.

In the second experiment they studied the relationship between seating position and performance. They found that students achievement decreased with distance from the teacher, both toward the back and side of the classroom. In addition to this, they found a significant difference with the scores taken from the front, middle and rear of the classroom (Becker, Sommer, Bee, and Oxley, 1973).

In the last part of the study, they studied student perceptions of other students related to seating position, grades, interest and participation. 76 % of student said that the most interested students sat in the front of the classroom. 92 % of students reported that the least interested students sat in the rear of the classroom. In addition to this, 58 percent of students replied that the best grades were from the front and 87 percent replied that the worst grades were from the rear (Becker, Sommer, Bee, and Oxley, 1973).

Koneya, (1976) points out that there is a relationship between interaction rates and seat location. Physical location in the classroom is one of the determinants of an

individual's verbal interaction rate. Koneya studied verbal interaction rates on row and column seating arrangements in 7 classrooms. All students were seated randomly in row and column seating arrangement type classrooms, the investigator then observed the rate of verbal participation in the lesson depending on a students' increased distance from the front and centre of the classroom. After that, Koneya found that there was a dichotomy in the row and column type of classroom with regard to centrality and non centrality. As a result, Koneya (1976) claims that seating location is a legitimate index of verbal interaction rate .

Weinstein (1979) points out that the dilemma remains unresolved. Most research results revealed that a front and centre seat facilitates achievement, positive attitudes and participation. Although these mechanisms have not been identified, it seems reasonable to state that teachers attend more to students in the front and centre of the classroom .

Lambert (1994) claims that either pupils' selection of his/her seats or seating arrangement by teachers relies on pupils ability, success and friendship. Teachers can also rearrange pupils seats in order to decrease the level of disruption or misbehaviour and improve social interaction between different genders and among pupils by assigning pupils a specified location in the classroom. Generally, the purpose of arranging pupils' seats relies on teachers' aims, curriculum activities and behaviour management issues.

Location of students in the classroom affects what pupils hear and how they utilise the visual mode of instruction. As the primary mode of communication is visual the hearing-impaired pupil should sit in the areas of the classroom where their visual field is maximised. These areas in traditional row and aisle type classrooms are generally both by the sides and of the front of the classroom (Saur, Popp, and Isaacs, 1984). According to common sense, the student who sits in the centre and in the front of the classroom, 'in the action zone', interacts with the teacher much more than students of the sides and the rear. The location of a pupil in the classroom determines to what extent s/he will have contact with the teacher and be able to see chalk board (Saur, Popp, and Isaacs, 1984).

Saur and his colleagues (1984) studied this an action phenomenon to reveal the effects of classroom participation of mainstream, and hearing-impaired students. They observed six classes with regard to layout and student teacher interaction. They did not find significant differences supporting the claim of the existence of an action zone in post secondary classroom. They stated that an action zone does not necessarily exist in the college classroom. Pupils who sit at the back and to the side of the classroom experience some disadvantages with participating in classroom interaction because of seating arrangements (Saur, Popp, and Isaacs, 1984).

Lambert (1994) points out that

> "...where a student sits in a classroom affects his or her experiences in the classroom. Seating location results in more or less teacher attention and interaction." (p.5355).

When teachers were asked to make judgements about students with information on gender and location of their seat, teachers judged children seated at the front of the classroom more positively than those seated at the back (Lambert, 1994).

Rosenfield, Lambert and Black (1985) did experiments to evaluate desk arrangement and its effects on the classroom behaviour of pupils. They focused on three types of desk arrangements in terms of rows, clusters and circles. Their experiments were designed to test whether different pupil seating arrangements promote pupils' interaction. First, they choose common row and cluster desk arrangements. They also choose one more desk arrangement, desks in circles, as it is considered to facilitate discussion. They observed on-task and off-task behaviour in different types of desk arrangement.

Interaction was defined as the amount of students' verbal participation in class discussion. They observed every group three times each time with different desk arrangements. They did not find any significant difference attributable to desk arrangement on listening, discussions comment or disruptive behaviour. They found partial differences between the three different arrangements. For example, circles produced a greater number of on-task behaviours than rows. Furthermore, cluster type seating arrangements produced more on-task behaviours and hand raising than row seating arrangements. The row arrangement produced a greater number of withdrawal

responses than the cluster and circle type seating arrangements. When gender and ability were compared with teacher interaction, they found particular differences with low achieving girls with regard to disruptive behaviour. Low achieving boys engaged in disruptive behaviour more frequently than low achieving girls. Low achieving boys showed more withdrawal and off-task behaviour than other pupils. On the other hand, low achieving boys engaged in listening and on-task behaviour less than others. To sum up, the result showed that desk arrangement, pupil interest, architectural features significantly affected pupil behaviour. They found that circle type seating arrangements facilitate on-task response and on task out of order comment. Pupils were affected by active participation in lessons more positively in row seating. Circle and cluster type desk arrangement influenced total on-task verbal responses positively. Conversely, the number of hand raising in the cluster arrangement was greater than in the circle arrangement.

Axelrod, Hall and Tams (1979) compared table desk arrangement with more traditional row desk arrangement. They did two experiments. In his first experiment they focused on on-task and off-task behaviour. They found out that pupils seem to be on-task and promoting more study in row formation desk arrangement. In the second experiment, they monitored the number of talk-outs. A talk out was defined as "...any audible, verbal sound made by a student without the teacher's permission." (p.33).

According to their findings, the row type desk arrangement seems better than table type desk arrangement with regards to talk out. Since talk out mean dropped from 58% to 30% when the seating arrangement changed from table to row. Then, it rose again to 50% when seating changed back to table clusters.

Axelroad et al. (1979) claim that there were several reasons why table type desk arrangement led to more disruptive behaviour than row formation. A student who is seated in a table formation classroom need only raise his/her head to get eye contact and gain the attention of the pupil who sits opposite them. Therefore, a conversation can easily occur. Pupils who sit in row formation often whisper, reach over or leave their seats to get the attention of their neighbour. A table arrangement may lead to conversation involving more than two pupils because of the closeness and face to face relationship of the other pupils.

Wheldall et al., (1981) subsequently replicated more or less Axelroad and his colleague's (1979) studies in the British primary school. Wheldall et al., (1981) studied the effects of different classroom seating arrangements on pupils' task behaviour in junior classrooms of ten-eleven year olds. They did two experimental studies to compare desk and table seating arrangements. They defined "on-task" behaviour as

"...compliance with the teacher's instructions, eye contact with the teacher when requested, eye contact with their text book and materials when asked to get on with their set work." (pp.175-176).

Besides, they defined off-task behaviour namely

"...calling out, interrupting a neighbour, talking to a neighbour, being out of one's seat without permission, not compliance with teacher instructions not getting on with the set work." (p.176).

They found that average mean on-task behaviour was higher in both classrooms when pupils sat in row type seating arrangements (Wheldall et al., 1981). The on task behaviour percentage increased from 72% to 88% when seats changed from table to row. Then, when seats changed back to table the percentage again decreased to 69%.

Wheldall and Lam (1987) again compared rows with table seating arrangements in a large special school for specified behaviourally troublesome students. They focused on the importance of seating arrangements on students' on-task and off-task behaviour and any concomitant effects on teaching approval and disapproval response.

Wheldall and Lam (1987) state that during the experimental conditions when the classroom was arranged as row type desk arrangement pupils' group and individual on-task behaviours were gradually raised and disruptive behaviour markedly went down. Class on-task behaviour doubled (from around 35% to 70%) with row formation and fell with table arrangements. Students generally (88%) exhibited greater individual on-task behaviour when sitting in rows. Pupils' misbehaviour trebled during table arrangements and fell when they sat in row arrangements. In addition to this, teachers' positive responses consistently increased during row formation while teachers' negative responses fell. Teachers' approval behaviour was four times higher during row formation, whilst teachers' disapproval behaviour decreased to one-third of that during table formation. Moreover teachers' positive comments on academic behaviour doubled when seating arrangements changed from table to row formation (Wheldall

and Lam, 1987). They further point out that, as a result, seating arrangements have a crucial effect on teacher and student behaviour. Furthermore, their results also confirmed this point. Although their results show that row arrangement is superior to table arrangement, this is not necessarily the best arrangement, for all kinds of learning activities. For example row formation is not an appropriate arrangement for topic work and group discussion. Therefore, classroom seating arrangements may be systematically rearranged according to particular tasks, in order to have desirable outcomes in terms of expected behaviours (Wheldall and Lam, 1987).

Bennett and Blundell (1983) studied the effects of different seating arrangements on the quality and quantity of work produced in mathematics, language and reading among 10-11 year old mixed ability pupils in junior school. They examined three areas of the curriculum in terms of language comprehension, reading and mathematics. They defined quality of work in terms of the percentage of questions answered correctly. Yet, they defined quantity of work as the number of questions or work cards attempted (Bennett and Blundel, 1983). After the experiment, they claimed that the findings were noticeably clear in showing an improvement in the quantity of work when pupils worked in rows but, significant fall in group arrangements. In contrast to this, the results for quality of work were more varied. Although the quantity of work seemed to increase when the pupils were seated in rows the quality of work was maintained gradually at the same level in both, row and group seating arrangements (Bennett and Blundel,1983).

Many researchers have examined the relationship between seating arrangement and on-task behaviour and misbehaviour. It is obvious that there is a high relationship between learning outcomes and on-task behaviour. Although it was not seen concurrently by these experiments, the most important question is whether students learn more in one seating arrangement than another? (Hastings, Schwieso and Wheldall, 1996). In addition to this, is there a relationship between the extent of on-task behaviour and the learning quantity and quality?

Although many researchers compared row formation seating arrangement and table formation according to on-task behaviour and misbehaviour, there is no information about whether or not they were doing co-operative and collaborative work around table.

Studying around the table does not mean that pupils only sit around the table but it also shows the level of co-operation and collaboration they have with each other. Seating around a table is based on unique learning theories and philosophical foundations. Wood (1996) points out that language and communication (instruction) are at the core of intellectual and personal development. Therefore, the aim of putting students around a table is to facilitate co-operation and collaboration between them. Wood states that "knowledge is embodied in the actions, work, play, technology, literature, art and talk of members of a society." (p.25). Therefore, by interaction with other students, student can embody and develop knowledge (Wood, 1996). In addition to this Galton and Williamson (1992) cite Vygotsky's emphasis on the co-operative nature of learning:

> "learning awakens a variety of developmental process that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in co-operation with peers. Once these processes are internalised they become part of the child's' developmental achievement." (p.19).

Although the aim of seating around a table is to improve co-operative learning, such improvement is not seen in the experiments that were mentioned previously. To set students around tables and expect on-task behaviour seems very simplified approach. Without preparing any specifically designed activities and tasks, to expect positive on-task behaviour as a consequence of table formation seating arrangements seems to be questionable. If students are seated around tables instead of behind desks, suitable conditions exist to produce off-task behaviour and misbehaviour. Everything in the conditions is suitable for these negative behaviours. Therefore, these experiment results seem quite questionable. In row type seating arrangements, students interact only with their neighbour. The physical condition does not permit a show of frequent misbehaviour and too much off-task behaviour. Yet, in table formation, if a student raises his head immediately he meets with lots of other students around him. Everything is supportive of off-task behaviour. Therefore, tasks, activities and work structures are very important points in co-operating and without taking this into account the comparison of desk and table arrangements seems to be questionable.

As explained in the first chapter two components of classroom management: classroom behaviour management and classroom settings are the subject of this study. Classroom behaviour management was examined under two headings: students' problem

behaviour and teachers' behaviour management strategies. Classroom setting was also examined focusing especially the determinant of classroom seating arrangement and its effect on pupils' misbehaviour. Several pieces of study were reviewed about classroom behaviour management and classroom setting in western literature.

The purpose of the present study is understanding and comparing classroom behaviour management and classroom setting strategies in the Turkish and English primary school classroom.

As can be seen above, most of the previous research has been carried out in western countries, in particular in Great Britain and United States of America. In this case, one of the essential questions is whether the results of this research are appropriate to non-western circumstance. In order to shed light on this issue the current research was carried out in England and Turkey by way of comparison.

In order to compare Turkish and English classrooms with regard to classroom management three main issues were taken into account:

- students' misbehaviour,

- teachers' behaviour management strategies,

- classroom settings.

The present study was carried out to investigate those three issues in Turkish and English classrooms. In the following chapter the design of the current research concerning quantitative and qualitative research techniques, structured observation and semi-structured in-depth interview, will be discussed.

3.   CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

For some researchers who are interested in measuring differences between input and output variables 'presage-product research (Dunkin and Biddle, 1974)', the classroom is viewed as a black box. Within that black box a range of interaction takes place, some or all of which may contribute to the outcomes. When the classroom door is closed nobody knows what is happening inside. The aim of this research is to investigate classroom interactions related to classroom management aspects.

In this study, two aspects of classroom processes were investigated: first, managerial interaction between teacher and students; second, the teacher's classroom setting in terms of student seating arrangements and effects on students' behaviour problems. Two research methods were used in order to accomplish this objective. Both semi-structured in-depth interview and structured observation were used to answer and check different research questions related to each other.

The objectives of study were to:

1. Define and describe student misbehaviour in the primary classroom.

- Determine causes of student misbehaviour.

- Identify misbehaviour based on pupils' gender and age, time of day and lesson, learning activity, subject matter, and seating location.

2. Describe how teachers dealt with student misbehaviour.

- Describe teachers' preventive behaviour management strategies.

- Describe teachers' reactive behaviour management strategies.

- Describe teachers' perspectives about goals of discipline and ideal student behaviour.

- Identify the place of whole school policy in the teachers' behaviour management strategies.

3. Describe classroom setting considering seating arrangement and its basis in the Turkish and English classroom,

- Identify the effects of classroom layout on student and teacher behaviour during lesson.

4. Compare Turkish and English teachers' behaviour management strategies, students' misbehaviour, and classroom setting.

The work was done in Turkish and English primary classrooms.

The rationalisation and purpose of using particular research methods to investigate the objectives which are given above, will be discussed under the headings of quantitative and qualitative research methods.

3.1. QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Paradigms have been frequently used in social science to investigate problems and to define how to solve them theoretically and methodologically (Husen, 1994). Two main methodological paradigms have been discussed: the quantitative and qualitative (Hammersely, 1992; Husen, 1994). The quantitative paradigm is derived from positivism which holds that the world is made up of observable, measurable and quantifiable facts (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992). The essential aim is to explain causal relationships and to have generalised knowledge. In contrast, the qualitative paradigm is rooted in the humanities which focuses on holistic information and interpretative approaches (Husen, 1994).

Both the quantitative and qualitative paradigms include different research methods that are founded on separate philosophical assumptions about social life (Hammersley, 1995). There are important epistemological differences between the two approaches in that they use diverse principles and knowledge about the social world (Bryman, 1988).

Quantitative research relies on positivist approaches. The essential aim is to produce knowledge that is as value-free as possible and that can be generalised (Borg and Gall, 1989). Quantitative researchers try to find out particular explanations and prediction to generalise from a sample to the population (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992). They generally

63

study a group or sample of people that represent a population (Borg and Gall, 1989). In contrast to this approach, qualitative research adopts a phenomenological perspective in viewing reality as a social construction which develops by way of an individual or co-operative definition of the situation. The aim of qualitative research is to understand and perceive reality from the actor's perspectives (Firestone, 1987). It is mainly subjective in the sense that it depends on the researcher's skills of perception and interpretation of social reality for valid information. Qualitative research gives more emphasis to the study of a subject holistically rather than to the generalisation of results. Therefore, the essential purpose is to compile a body of knowledge that is unique to an individual case (Borg and Gall, 1989).

Broadly, two most frequently used methods in qualitative research are participant observation and in-depth interview which may be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. In qualitative research, the research design focuses on in-depth participation and interaction with individuals or groups of people (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992). If examination of social interaction and first-hand information about social processes is required, participant observation and depth interviewing are essential and appropriate research methods. In this kind of research, the researcher tries to reduce the distance between him/her and the case (Bryman, 1992; Creswell, 1994). Therefore, qualitative research provides rich, context-bounded and naturalistic information (Bullock, Little and Millham, 1992).

In contrast to the qualitative research process, quantitative research refers to the implementation of a measurement process and assigns numerical values to the research subjects, in gathering and analysing them (Bullock, little, and Millham, 1992). It includes several data gathering and analytic methods such as survey techniques, experiments, structured observation, content analysis and parametric or nonparametric statistical analysis. It emphasises causality, measurement and generalizability (Bryman, 1992). Explanation and prediction of future behaviour are important concepts in order to generalise from the basis of current results (Husen, 1994).

Both quantitative and qualitative paradigm rely on different epistemology and consist of different research methods. Furthermore, both of them provide different kinds of data that also have advantages and disadvantages. Because of this, most of the time

being depending on one type of data leads to biased and limited information. Each type of method serves different data that explain particular sides of a subject or reality. This is also the main limitation of relying on a single type of data. Therefore, the combination and collaboration of both quantitative and qualitative methods in the same research is a desirable way of current study rather than relying on either quantitative or qualitative research methods. Because of this, the combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods will be discussed in the following part of the theses.

3.1.1. THE COMBINATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Denzin (1994) states that "the social world is socially constructed and its meanings, to the observers and those observed, is constantly changing." (p.6462). Therefore, to find out valid information for everybody seems difficult. On the other hand, to get some perspective on reality with a single method can be questionable. Each research technique provides different perspectives and interpretation to the research subject.

In addition to this, Patton (1990) mentions that "fieldwork is not a single method or technique." (p.244). It contains a variety of methods such as survey, experiment, structured observation, ethnography and interview. Each of them is used to gather different kind of data. Therefore, using multiple sources can give a wide range of information, unlike the use of a single method. Patton (1990) also points out that each method has particular strengthes and weaknesses. As single methods may not provide enough information for the purposes of validity, multiple sources or combination of data types may advance validity and strengthen conclusions.

Denzin (1989) argues that the combination or integration of quantitative and qualitative research methods in the same study can be a more acceptable approach than a single method. Denzin refers to 'triangulation' in this integrative approach. In order to overcome the weakness, biases and disadvantages of single methods, multiple research techniques and investigation are essential techniques in social science.

According to Denzin (1989) triangulation that uses multiple sources of data collection provides a deeper understanding of social phenomena. Therefore, triangulation can be

accepted as an alternative to validation (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). In addition to this, it extends the quality of data and trustfulness of results (Robson, 1993).

Denzin (1989) expand the general triangulation definition and claims that "triangulation is the use of multiple methods in the study of the same object." (p.236), and further suggested that there are four basic types of triangulation:

1. "Data triangulation has three subtypes: (a) time, (b) space, and (c) person.

2. Investigator triangulation consists of using multiple rather than single observers of the same object.

3. Theory triangulation consists of using multiple rather than single perspectives in relation to the same set of objects.

4. Methodological triangulation can entail within-method triangulations and between-method triangulation's." (Denzin, 1989; p.237).

In addition to Denzin's (1989) classification, Patton (1990) suggests one more type of triangulation: "using multiple analysts to review findings, that is, analyst triangulation." (p.464).

Data triangulation and method triangulation were used in this classroom management study rather than investigator and theory triangulation. The data source is an important issue in data triangulation. Denzin (1989) indicates that "selecting dissimilar settings in a systematic fashion, investigators can discover what their concepts have in common across setting." (p.237). Data triangulation was applied in this research by using the same methods in two different spaces or settings namely Turkey and England.

Patton (1990) has also pointed out that triangulating data sources includes "...comparing and cross-checking the consistency of information derived at different times and by different means within qualitative methods." (p.467). This processes consists of two steps:

- the comparison of data that is collected by observation and semi-structured interview data.

- checking the consistency of what people say in different countries, cultures, schools and times.

In this research, one of the aims was to check the validity of data by having two kinds of data collected using different instruments: structured observation and semi-structured interview.

Denzin (1989) suggests that there are two types of method triangulation: within-method triangulation, and between-method or cross method triangulation. Between method triangulation is used in this research. In between method triangulation, the aim is to strengthen the other methods. Two different research strategies in terms of observation and interview can be applied on the same subject of study (Denzin, 1989).

In order to use between-method triangulation as a method triangulation, structured observation that contained pre-established observation schedules was chosen as a quantitative research method to collect numerical data. In addition to this, semi-structured interviews were chosen as a qualitative research method to collect deep and rich verbal data. Since a single method yields very limited information, two different methods in terms of quantitative (structured observation) and qualitative (semi-structured interview) were used in this study.

Patton (1990) mentions that the "interviews are a limited source of data because participants and staff can only report their perceptions of and perspectives on what has happened." (p.245). If only the interview method is applied, the research results may contain a variety of subjective information, personal biases, anxiety, politics, anger etc. It is generally affected by the emotional state of the person, time and space in which the interview takes place (Patton, 1990). Therefore, to strengthen and check the interview data, structured observation that reflects the real practice of teacher and student behaviour was applied in this research.

Consequently, in this study, semi-structured in-depth interview and structured classroom observation methods were used to collect data from teachers related to their classroom management and setting practice.

3.2. STRUCTURED OBSERVATION

During observation, the researcher goes into the classroom and takes careful and detailed field notes in that these are the raw data of observation. The main advantage of observation is that there is no manipulation or stimulation. It fundamentally occurs in the natural context and the researcher follows the natural stream of everyday life (Adler and Adler, 1994). The actions and behaviours of people are essential subjects of observation. This technique is generally used in an exploratory phase to find out what is going on in the program, events or situation (Robson, 1993).

Although using observation has some advantages, it has also some disadvantages. There is some debate about the degree of the observer effects in the situation. If people know that they are being observed, they may behave slightly differently (Robson, 1993; Patton, 1990). If people do not know that they are being observed, there may be ethical concern about the observation process (Patton, 1990). In addition to this, to believe and rely on the observer's perceptions may be questionable. To deal with this problem and improve the validity of observation, the use of multiple observers is recommended (Adler and Adler, 1994).

One of the objectives of this research was to describe what kind of misbehaviour and teacher's managerial methods occur in the classroom. Structured observation was used to examine, check and monitor classroom processes especially interaction. Bakeman and Gottman (1997) suggest that observation is concerned with simultaneous behaviours that occurs in a naturalistic context. Its aim is to record behaviours according to pre-defined codes on a pre-established observation schedules. Galton (1994) mentions that the process involves three stages:

- "the recording of events in a systematic manner as they happen,

- the coding of these events into pre-specified categories, and

- subsequent analysis of the events to give descriptions of teacher pupil interaction." (p.811).

The categorisation in terms of choosing events to assign into pre-defined categories may seem very subjective. However, the method itself is objective in the sense that

categories and criteria are clearly described beforehand to provide data that is unaffected by observer's biases (Galton, 1994).

Croll (1986) mentions that there are four main characteristics of structured observation as a research process:

- "It is explicit in its purpose or purposes and the purposes have to be worked out before data collection is conducted.

- It is explicit and rigorous in its definition of categories and in its criteria for classifying phenomena into these categories.

- It produces data which can be presented in quantitative form and which can be summarised and related to other data using statistical techniques.

- Once the procedures for recording and criteria for using categories have been arrived at the role of the observer is essentially one of following instructions to the letter and any observer should record a particular event in an identical fashion to any other." (pp.5-6).

As pointed out in a previous quotation, one of the main purposes of structured observation is to provide uniformity among observers and an objective account of classroom events. It also excludes the subjectivity which generally occurs in an individual description of events, and it provides a descriptive overview of certain characteristics of events or programs (Croll, 1986).

In this research, only one observer collected data. There is, thus, a consistency problem in using one observer in the research, as there is no way of checking against another researcher's coding. As a means of dealing with part of this problem before carrying out the live observation, the researcher looked at the same sequence several times over a number of days and checked each subsequent analysis for agreement. Then, the researcher observed two primary classrooms each for three days, one of them open plan and the other a corridor classroom, in order to absorb a sense of the real classroom atmosphere before starting to collect data.

The essential disadvantage of structured observation is that it measures only overt behaviour. For example, thinking is not observable behaviour. So it is difficult to code a student who is thinking without doing anything else. (Delamount and Hamilton, 1993). Therefore, to get information through structured observation about pupil and

teacher thinking and interpretation is obviously very difficult (Mcintyre and Mclead, 1993).

In structured observation, time sampling is also an important issue. Galton (1994) mentions that there are various methods that are used to record behaviour:

- "event sampling (which records a particular event whenever it occurs),

- instantaneous time sampling (where only events occurring at a particular pretimed interval are recorded),

- scanning (where the number of individuals within a class who are engaged in a particular activity is recorded at pre-timed intervals), and

- continuous recording (where an ongoing record is made and the exact time in which a change in activity takes place noted)." (P.814).

In this study, 'event sampling' was used as the main method to record data. If instantenous time sampling were chosen, it is possible to not record particular managerial interaction that occur between interval. Because of this, in order to pick all interaction related to behaviour management, event sampling was chosen as a best method. Croll (1986) points out that during event sampling an event that is of interest is recorded whenever it is observed by the researcher. Event sampling yields clear counts of the frequency of interactions. Furthermore it provides the explicit location and sequence of events. The frequency of managerial interaction varies depending on the classroom content. Therefore it is possible to record a few things or record a huge amount of interaction in a given classroom situation. Many of the incidents which were of interest occurred frequently. Therefore, in order to record such interactions whenever they occurred event sampling is an appropriate method for this research.

3.2.1. THE DEVELOPMENT OF BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRUCTURED OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

In this study, one of the essential aims was to develop a structured behaviour management observation schedule which would record data related to teacher's behaviour management strategies and pupil's misbehaviour in the primary classroom.

The emphasis was on student misbehaviour in the primary classroom and teacher responses in dealing with this misbehaviour. In addition to this, student task engagement was also examined.

Developing a systematic observation schedule capable of surveying teacher and student interaction relating to classroom behaviour management also allowed comparisons between teachers (based on their gender and experience) and pupils (based on their age and gender) in different subject matters and times of day.

The behaviour management schedule has seven sections that are given in appendix 1.;

1. Teacher response to student misbehaviour subdivided into

• Teacher reactive behaviour, and

• Teacher preventive behaviour,

2. Student misbehaviour,

3. Outcomes of teacher and student interaction,

4. Audience,

5. Seating style,

6. Activities,

7. Student task engagement observation schedule.

When developing a structured behaviour management observation schedule both of Wragg's studies (1979 and 1993) were taken into account. Wragg and colleagues (1979) developed a Nottingham Class Management Observation schedule for a secondary school. Therefore most of the items were valid for secondary school circumstances. However, the Nottingham Class Management Observation schedule was reconstructed for the Leverhulme primary project (Wragg, 1993). During development of the present structured behaviour management observation schedule, both studies were taken as a reference. However, there were some differences between Wragg's (1979-1993) instruments and the one used in the present study. As one of the

aim of this present study was to develop a new schedule that was suitable for both Turkish and English primary classrooms, changes in some of the names of items that were appropriate to both circumstances were made in constructing the present schedule. The categories used in Wragg's studies' were given in the literature review (chapter-2).

The first section is divided into two subsections that relate to one another. It may be thought that both of them can be grouped under the heading of teacher response to student misbehaviour. However recent research results reveal that effective classroom management involves not only responding to the problem behaviour but also preventing it from occurring in the first place (Brophy, 1983). Moreover, Kounin (1970) by analysing several videotapes of many subjects in the primary classroom has reported that the effective and successful classroom manager is not one who intervenes and handles misbehaviour. Instead s/he anticipates misbehaviour to prevent it arising in the first place. Therefore, teacher responses were grouped into two sections, preventive behaviours and reactive behaviour, in terms of active response to student misbehaviour.

The preventive behaviour section was constructed originally by the researcher. On the other hand, the teacher's reactive behaviour section was adapted from Wragg's studies (Wragg, 1979; p.5 and Wragg, 1993; p.65). Wragg (1979) classifies teacher response according to whether they are verbal, non-verbal or to do with punishment. Except for the 'calling out' all the names of the items were taken from Wragg's two studies. The content of the items were mostly rewritten in order to accomplish research aims and cultural differences. The items were given under three headings: teacher verbal behaviour, non-verbal behaviour and punishment.

1. Teacher preventive behaviour: (1) Telling expectation; (2) Request and explanation; (3) Threat and warning; (4) Remind rules; (5) Involves pupil (s) in work; (6) Encouragement; (7) Proximity; (8) Gesture; (9) Others.

2. Teacher reactive behaviour

a) Teacher verbal behaviour: (1) Order to cease; (2) Reprimand; (3) Statement of rules; (4) Pupil named; (5) Humour; (6) Involves pupil(s) in work; (7) Encouragement; (8) Calling out

b) **Teacher non-verbal behaviour:** (9) Gesture; (10) Facial expression; (11) Proximity; (12) Touch; (13) Dramatic pause;

Teacher punishment: (14) Pupil moved; (15) Physical Punishment; (16) Ridicule; (17) Others.

Again, except for 'day dreaming/ mind wandering' and 'unsettling', the rest of the names of the items in the student misbehaviour section were taken from Wragg's studies. Both teacher's reactive behaviour and student misbehaviour were adapted from the Nottingham classroom management (1979) and Leverhulme project study (1993). The student misbehaviour section also consists of three subsections: student verbal misbehaviour, non-verbal misbehaviour and miscellaneous.

a) **Student verbal behaviour:** (1) Noisy or illicit talking; (2) Interrupting pupil; (3) Insulting pupil; (4) Insulting teacher

b) **Student non-verbal behaviour:** (5) Illicit eating or drinking; (6) Taking something without permission; (7) Inappropriate use of materials; (8) Inappropriate movement; (9) Day dreaming or mind wandering

c) **Miscellaneous:** (10) Defiance of teacher; (11) Physical aggression; (12) Unsettling; (13) Damage to materials; (14) Others.

The third section, in other words the outcome of teacher and student interaction section was taken from the Nottingham classroom management study (Wragg, 1978).

a) **Outcome of student behaviour:** (1) Pupil(s) silent; (2) Pupil(s) accept(s) teacher's action; (3) Pupil (s) altercates or protest(s).

b) **Outcome of misbehaviour:** (1) Misbehaviour ends; (2) Misbehaviour lessen; (3) Misbehaviour is sustained; (4) Misbehaviour is increased

c) **Outcome of teacher behaviour:** (1) Teacher is calm; (2) Teacher is agitated; (3) Teacher is angry.

In contrast to three sections described above, audience (fourth), seating style (fifth), activities (sixth) and student task engagement (seventh) sections were the author's original construction. The subheadings of these were:

Audience: (1) To individual boy; (2) To individual girl; (3) To boy pair; (4) To girl pair; (5) To mixed pair; (6) To whole class; (7) To group; (8) To boy for class; (9) To boy for group; (10) To girl for class; (11) To girl for group; (12) To group for class

Seating style: (1) Alone; (2) Group; (3) Class; (4) Pair

Activities: (1) Individual seat work; (2) Group working; (3) Whole class teaching

There were also differences in the sampling of coding between both of Wragg's (1979 and 1993) studies and the present one. Wragg's class management observation schedules were based on time sampling. In contrast, the present schedule was constructed on the basis of event sampling.

In addition to this, in the present study, the definitions of misbehaviours were different from Wragg's (1993) study. In Wragg's (1993) study, the observer spoke with the teacher and agreed what was justified as misbehaviour before the observation, since both definition and description of misbehaviour could change depending on a teacher's judgement. In contrast, in this research teacher managerial behaviour was taken as a reference. If a teacher said something related to any student's active misbehaviour, it was accepted as a misbehaviour. Otherwise it was not recorded. Furthermore the coding process of the present schedule was different from that used in both of Wragg's studies. There are only similarity in the names of the items in the first, second and third sections.

All the names and content of items that belong to the behaviour management schedule are given in the appendix 1 and appendix 2.

3.2.2. THE PSYCHOMETRIC CREDENTIALS OF THE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRUCTURED OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

3.2.2.1. VALIDITY

In quantitative research, validity indicates the appropriateness of the instrument to what it purports to measure. It concerns what the scale measures and how well it measures. It is determined by the particular use for which the instrument is being considered (Anastasi, 1976). When the psychometric characteristics of the instrument is examined, reliability measurements are also a necessary condition but they are not sufficient (Utwin, 1995). In addition to reliability, validity should also be taken into account as one of the parameters.

Utwin (1995) suggests that in quantitative research, validity is measured in several different ways such as: construct validity, criterion validity, content validity and face validity.

The construct validity of an instrument shows to what extent it links up with a set of theoretical assumptions about an abstract construct such as anxiety neuroticism, mechanical comprehension and intelligence (Oppenheim, 1992). As this present observation schedule was not unidimensional, it was not homogeneous, and, therefore, did not represent any specific theoretical construct. Because of this, no attention was paid to construct validity.

Criterion related validity, sometimes referred to as predictive validity, shows the effectiveness of the instrument in predicting an individual's behaviour in particular situations (Anastasi, 1976). The result of the instrument links up with the expected future performance. Again, since the aim is not measure probable behaviour, this factor was also ignored. Instead, content and face validity are considered as a suitable approaches.

Content validity is the systematic examination of the scale content in order to determine whether or not it contains a representative sample of the behaviour domain to be measured (Anastasi, 1976). The essential aim of content validation is to assess whether the scale items adequately represent a domain as a construct of particular interest

(Crocker and Algina, 1986). Cronbach (1971) points out that content validity gives an answer to this question

> "do the observations truly sample the universe of tasks the developer intended to measure or the universe of situations in which he would like to observe?" (p. 446).

He also claims that it is used "to decide whether the tasks (situations) fit the content categories stated in the test specifications." (p. 446).

One method of assessing content validation is to assemble independent experts to judge whether the scale items adequately sample the domain of interest. This judgmental process may be proceeded by the following steps:

- the definition of the domain of interest

- the selection of qualified experts from the content domain

- the provision of providing a framework for the process of matching instrument items to the performance area

- the collection and summarisation of the data from the matching process (Crocker and Algina, 1986).

Pellegrini (1996) points out that "content validity is determined by the match or mismatch between the test items and the instructional objectives." (p.116). In this present circumstance, the issue is whether or not the structured behaviour management observation schedule's items match events related to behaviour management taking place in English and Turkish primary classrooms. Although there were cultural differences between Turkish and English classrooms, it was decided to sample the same behaviour areas in each country in order to use the same schedule and compare results.

Face validity is not concerned with what the instrument actually measures, but with what it appears superficially to measure. It is concerned with whether the test looks valid to the examinee who takes it (Anastasi, 1976). It is a casual review of how good an instrument's items or whole group of items appear (Utwin, 1995). Face validity is therefore accomplished within content validity.

Unlike the construct and criterion validity, both content and face validity seem more suitable to the aim of developing the current structured behaviour management observation schedule for the primary classroom. This behaviour management systematic classroom observation schedule was, therefore, examined by two researchers from the same research area to determine its content and face validity.

In this research, first of all, the definition of several concepts such as preventive behaviour, student misbehaviour, teacher response repertoire, audience, activities, seating style and task engagement were an important issues. Whether or not the schedule items covered the universal manifestation of these concepts within the different cultural interpretations is the important question. The main question was whether or not these items matched 'real world practice' where in this case the 'real world' consists of English and Turkish primary classrooms. In this respect, classroom life was represented by the range of items. The aim of establishing a systematic observation schedule was to represent the actual practice of these classrooms and to bring them into the scientific arena. Therefore each item in the schedule has crucial importance. The researcher observed the classroom through the schedule's window. In this respect, classroom life was represented by the range of items covered in the schedule. Consequently, the examination of each item was a basic step in evaluating the schedules' content validity.

The observation schedule has three major subscales: teachers' preventive and reactive behaviour, pupils' misbehaviour and the task engagement schedule. First of all, the difference between the teacher's preventive and reactive behaviour were regarded as a main aspect of a teacher's behaviour. Although some teachers' reactive and preventive behaviour items were the same, the content and relation with the other parts of the observation schedule, such as activity and audience were different. Whether or not both teachers' preventive and reactive behaviour represents the general teacher behaviour repertoire related to behaviour management in the primary classroom was the main question posed during the development of the schedule. In addition to this, teachers' reactive behaviour management strategies were examined under three headings: teachers' verbal behaviour and teachers' non-verbal behaviour and teacher punishment. A student's misbehaviour repertoire was the second important domain. It was divided into three different sections such as student verbal misbehaviour, non-verbal

misbehaviour and miscellaneous. Whether the student misbehaviour items constitute the universe of student classroom misbehaviour was again an important issue in this case.

The other main problematic area of the schedule was the student task engagement observation sub-schedule. During the observation of the teacher-student interaction, the predefined group was observed and recorded every 4th minute according to whether they were on-task or off-task. The interval seemed problematic because of extension. However the essential aim was to observe student-teacher interaction. The student task engagement observation schedule only proceeded to give a general view of the level of the students' task engagement in class session.

3.2.2.2.RELIABILITY

Reliability is one of the essential dimension and assurance of quantitative research since test or attitude schedule that are used to collect quantitative data must have this characteristics. Crocker and Algina (1986) argue that

> "whenever a test is administered, the test user would like some assurance that the result could be replicated if the same individuals were tested again under similar circumstances." (p.105).

That replicability in other words consistency of attitudes or test scores is assumed reliability (Crocker and Algina, 1986). In educational circumstance, when achievement test or essay test are administered to pupils on two occasions, pupils may earn quite different scores in the second occasion. In this kind of circumstance, which score is pupil's true score? If different teachers evaluate an examination, which score is pupil's true score? (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996). In this kind of circumstance, the "reliability is concerned with consistency of measurement." (Lemke and Wiersma, 1976; p.70). In this case, the key element is whether the schedule measure pupil's true score? If test is accepted that it measure pupil's true score, it must give same scores consistently in a different administration. Since pupil's true score is measured by using a test, test's reliability is main concern. Because of this, reliability is classically defined as the consistency of scores obtained by the same person with the same test on different occasion. Reliability is computed by using three methods: test-retest methods, alternate form test methods, split half methods and measuring of internal consistency (Anastasi,

1976). Although these methods are very common when traditional psychological tests are used, they prove impractical when applied to observational measures (Frick and Semmel, 1978). In structured observation, the observer-instrument's reliability is taken into account rather than that of the observation schedule.

A second case involves different examiners evaluating pupils' test scores. In this case the degree of agreement between examiners reflect reliability of examinations. When this classical model of reliability is applied to observational data, it causes some confusion for the systematic observation process in terms of observer agreement coefficient (Croll, 1986). Classical reliability analysis is done for instruments or tests. In contrast, reliability is done for the observer-instrument in structured observation. Therefore, different concepts in terms of observer agreement will be used for reliability. Frick and Semmel (1978) point out that observer agreement is consistentency between observers when they simultaneously code the same classroom event.

There are two kinds of reliability for structured classroom observation (Robson, 1993; Frick and Semmel 1978):

• inter-observer agreement reliability,

• intra-observer agreement reliability.

To get inter-observer reliability, agreement is computed by comparing observers with each other or with an expert coder when coding the same events at the same time. If the observers are compared with the expert (criteria) observer, it is defined as criterion-related reliability. If more than two observers are compared with each other, it causes some problems. Therefore, to reduce these problems, criterion-related reliability is advised (Frick and Semmel 1978).

In intra-observer reliability, the observer is not compared with the criterion observer or other observer, s/he is compared with himself. In this sense, individual observer agreement is addressed. To do intra-observer reliability, the observer's first viewing of a videotape of realistic classroom conditions is compared with his second, on the same

events, at a different time (Frick and Semmel 1978). Frick and Semmel (1978) also point out that to have intra-observer agreement

> "...measures of intra-observer agreement can be obtained by showing twice to all observers a videotape in which conditions parallel those encountered in the field. The purpose of an intra-observer agreement measure is to demonstrate the extent to which each observer can consistently code under observational circumstances that closely approximate classroom conditions." (Frick and Semmel 1978; p.180).

As one observer observes all classrooms in this study, intra-observer agreement is the reference method. In order to compute agreement coefficients for structured observation, three different formulas were used in this study: proportion of agreement percentages, Cohen's Kappa formula and Flander's modification of Scott's coefficient.

3.2.2.2.1.PROPORTION OF AGREEMENT PERCENTAGES:

The most frequently used and the basic way of expressing observer agreement for an observational variable is a percentage or proportion of the observed events (Croll, 1986).

This can be expressed as:

$$P = \frac{Na \times 100}{Na + Nd}$$

P = percentage of agreement
Na = the number of agreement
Nd = the number of disagreement

Although the agreement percentage is used frequently, it has some disadvantages. When the observer codes events into an observation schedule, certain agreements can occur just by chance, and an agreement percentage does not correct this chance agreement. A different formula, Cohen's Kappa, was used to control for this chance effect (Bakemen and Gottman, 1986).

3.2.2.2.2.COHEN'S KAPPA FORMULA

To correct for the chance factor, Cohen's Kappa formula is advised. (Bakeman and Gottman,1986; Croll, 1986; Robson, 1993). This can be expressed as:

$$K = \frac{Po - Pc}{1 - Pc}$$

Po = proportion of agreement

Pc = the proportion expected by chance

Robson (1993) points out some interpretation related to Kappa value (p.223):

- Kappa of 0.40 to 0.60: "fair"

- Kappa of 0.60 to 0.75: "good"

- Kappa of above 0.75: "excellent"

3.2.2.2.3.FLANDER'S MODIFICATION OF SCOTT'S COEFFICIENT

Both agreement percentage and Kappa formula are used for a scale that is homogenous schedule. If schedule consists of more than one schedule including one or more sub-schedule both formula should compute for each sub-schedule separate. In contrast to this Flander's modification of Scott's coefficient is computed for whole schedule that may include several sub-schedule. One of the other advantages of this formula is that is suitable method when frequency of observation is low. Flanders (1968) points out that

> "Scott's method is unaffected by low frequencies, can be adapted to per cent figures, can be estimated more rapidly in the field, and is more sensitive at higher levels of reliability." (p.161)

In this study, frequency of observation for each item was fairly low. Therefore, this formula seems more suitable for the aim of the reliability computation.

The formula can be expressed as follows:

$$\Pi = \frac{p_o - p_e}{100 - p_e}$$

Flanders (1968) explains that

> "Po is the proportion of agreement, and Pe is the proportion of agreement expected by chance which is found by squaring the proportion of tallies in each category and summing these over all categories." (p.161).

Kappa formula and percentage agreement can be applied to only one particular group of items such as preventive behaviour. In contrast to this, many systematic observation schedules consist of several behaviour groups such as the schedule which was used in this research. For example, the behaviour management systematic classroom observation schedule described above consists of seven different sections that are coded simultaneously together for every occasion. How, then, can we compute reliability for the whole schedule? Both percentage agreement and Kappa coefficient do not seem to be suitable for application to all groups together, because they will give nine different reliability coefficients. In addition to this, different reliability coefficients such as the Kappa coefficient and percentage agreement that belongs to a different group can be summed up and divided into the number of sections. It is then possible to get one average reliability coefficient. But this seems quite artificial. Therefore, Flanders' coefficient seems more suitable for this circumstance as it takes all groups into account.

In this research, because only one researcher observed all the classrooms, intra-observer reliability was used in order to determine observer consistency with himself. All three formulae were used to compute a reliability coefficient.

In order to get reliability coefficients for systematic observation, 27 different incidents that contained 48 different interactions related to behaviour management were recorded on video cassettes. Then all of them were resorted again based on random selection and recorded again, based on randomisation into different video cassettes. They were shown to the observer with a week interval to control sequence effects. Then the first observation and second observation were analysed as if both of them belonged to a different observer.

Kappa coefficients were not computed for several sections such as teacher response-1 and student misbehaviour-1 because row values were not equal to column values. In order to compute Kappa coefficient, one essential requirement is having a matrix that consist of at least two sets of observation. Although, some items of certain sections such as teacher response-1 were recorded during the first observation session they were not recorded during the second observation. This leads to a mismatch of cells in the matrix with regard to row and column. On the other hand, agreement percentage were computed for all sections. Flander's modification of Scott's coefficient pertaining to the

whole schedule was also computed. The reliability results are given at the Table 3.1 and Table 3.2

TABLE 3.1. BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT OBSERVATION SCHEDULE RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR EACH SUB-SCALES.

VARIABLES	Agreement percentage	Kappa coefficient
Teacher reactive behaviour-1	62.8	
Teacher preventive behaviour	72.7	
Student misbehaviour -1	76.4	
Outcome - "A"	91.1	.62
Outcome - "B"	82.3	
Outcome - "C"	85.3	
Audience	86	.82
Seating style	93	.88
Activities	81.4	.52
MEAN	81.22	

As can be seen in Table 3.1, agreement percentages for all sub-scales vary between about 60% to 93%. Most of the percentage of agreement for scales was over 70% and can be assumed to be an acceptable level. On the other hand, the few Kappa coefficients were slightly smaller than the agreement percentages because of the chance factor.

TABLE 3.2 BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT OBSERVATION SCHEDULE'S RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE WHOLE SCHEDULE.

VARIABLES	Average agreement percentage
Average percentage agreement belonging to whole schedule	.81
Flander's modification of Scott's coefficient belonging to whole schedule	.76

As shown in Table 3.2 The whole schedule's reliability coefficient, computed using Flander's modification of Scott's coefficient gave average percentages of more than 70%. Although not very high, it was thought sufficient for this research.

After developing the structured observation schedule, it was tried using a video record of primary classroom in England. Several hours of lessons were recorded to be sure that these were enough examples of misbehaviour to provide a representative sample from the final schedule. Two teachers were then observed for several hours, to be sure that all items worked consistently at least in the context of an English primary school classroom. Some of the items were modified at this stage before establishing its reliability and procedures to the main part of the research.

3.2.3.1.ADMINISTRATION OF STRUCTURED BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

During each observation background information such as the number of teachers, subjects, time of day, school was first recorded before beginning actual observations. Observation was based on event sampling, the observer monitored all classroom activities until the teacher engaged in activity concerned with behaviour management. The observer then needed to decide whether the activity was preventive behaviour or an active response to students' misbehaviour. If the former, the observer recorded it as a preventive behaviour, along with the interaction of the audience, the audience's seating style and their activities. If the teacher response could not be coded as preventive behaviour, the observer recorded any items from the teacher response and student misbehaviour section matching the teacher's active response, then audience of interaction, outcomes of interaction, audience sitting style and activities.

As demonstrated previously, four items in the preventive strategies section namely 'involves pupil (s) in work', 'encouragement', 'proximity' and 'gesture' were exactly the same as the reactive section's items. The decision as to which section to code depended on a number of key points, for example, the existence of misbehaviour. If a teacher reacted to concrete misbehaviour, this involved reactive strategies. Preventive strategies generally related to teachers' anticipation to the emergence of misbehaviour. However, in certain circumstance, it was quiet difficult for the observer to recognise this difference because of working in a second language. All a lack of experience,

cultural difference and understanding of spoken English effected the observer's understanding of the classroom processes. Where the observer could not decide whether a teacher's response was preventive or reactive, he looked at the emergence of misbehaviour and if this occurred used the reactive category. Thus it may be that only successful preventative strategies were recorded.

The observer was able to record a maximum of three teacher behaviours and student misbehaviours. Generally, both student misbehaviour and teacher response did not constitute a single interaction. Instead, these interactions usually consist of more than one behaviour. Therefore, three options were available. On observing the interaction, the observer first decided the audience of the interaction, then, the outcomes of the interaction in terms of student behaviour, misbehaviour and teacher behaviour were recorded. Finally, as in the case of the preventive behaviour, audiences, seating style and activities were recorded in the schedule. In addition to recording the interaction, the time of observation was also recorded. If the audience of the managerial interaction was the same during a second interaction, it was also recorded in a 's' column in the observation schedule to specify those students who engaged in extended misbehaviour.

Besides, recording managerial interaction, students' task engagement was also recorded. First of all, the students were divided into particular groups depending on their seat position. Then, each group was observed every fourth minute whether students in the group were on-task or off-task. A maximum of nine students could be recorded during each observation.

Both the behaviour management observation and the student task engagement observation schedules were used simultaneously. Each teacher was observed over three days and during each day for two hours. In addition to this, 'PGCE' student teachers were observed over two days and again on each day for two hours in the English sample. After observation, all the teachers were interviewed about their practice, based on a pre-established semi-structured interview schedule.

3.3. IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS

Depth Interviewing was used in this research, with structured observation, in order to compare the teacher's point of view with their practice. Cohen and Manion (1994) point out that such interviews are

> "a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant-information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation." (p.271).

This kind of conversation is maintained by the interviewer asking several pre-established questions to the respondent. The general aspect of interaction is mainly verbal but non-verbal messages such as facial expressions of the emotions, postures, gestures and eye contact are also important in order to interpret the whole interaction (Keats, 1994). It is possible to see a difference between the teacher's practice and conceptualisation of it. In this particular case what teachers thought about their classroom process was also an important issue in order to have in-depth information about a teacher's classroom management and organisation strategies. This research was done in the Turkish and English situations, so the interview may give information about the different thought processes of teachers in the two countries.

The aim of the in-depth interview is neither to test a hypothesis nor evaluate a program. The broad purpose of interviewing is "an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience." (Seidman, 1991; p.3). The main focus is the other individual's stories and thoughts in the in-depth interview (Seidman, 1991). By interviewing, the interviewer gains access into another individual's world in order to perceive, learn and understand the meaning of the subject from the other person's perspective (Patton, 1987). Seidman (1991) indicates that one of the other aims of the depth interview is

> "...that the meaning people make of their experience affects the way they carry out that experience. To observe a teacher, student, principal or counsellor provides access to their behaviour. Interviewing allows us to put behaviour in context and provides to understanding their action."
> (p.4).

The Interview is therefore a very fruitful method, especially where it is used to learn something that cannot be directly observed. The main advantage of the in-depth interview is it allows the interviewer to enter into the other individual's mind, perspective and to understand themes of the world from the person's own perspective (Patton, 1990; Kvale, 1996). Kvale (1996) emphasises the importance of the meaning of the underlying general themes of what the interviewees are saying. In addition to this, the interviewer tries to interpret not only what is said but also how it is said. The interpretation of the themes of the interviewees' voice intonation, eye contact, vocalisation, and facial expressions that reflect emotional circumstance and other physical and verbal gestures, are also important issues (Kvale, 1996). Through this it is possible to see cultural differences in the different countries' teaching practices and perception processes. However Keats (1994) mentions that these non-verbal behaviours such as "...facial expressions of the primary emotions of anger, sorrow, fear and joy...." (p.3006) are the expression of feeling and they have cross cultural and universal joint meaning. Because of this, it is an essential part of the entire interview processes.

Broadly speaking, in-depth interviewing consists of asking open-ended questions and listening and recording what the interviewee says. The processes do not only contain talking and listening but also require special skills, sensitivity, extra attention, interpersonal understanding, deep understanding, insight and discipline (Patton, 1987). As both interviewer and interviewee react to questions, answers and each other, it is a very dynamic process. The quality and aspects of interaction can change very easily during the interviews' progress (Keats, 1994).

Keats (1994) demonstrates that there are several factors that effect the consistency of the research interview such as

> "...the structure of the interview schedule; the development of skills of listening; probing and empathy; the control of bias; training of interviewers; coding, scoring; and analysis of the responses." (p.3004).

Semi-structured interviewing lies between both the structured and unstructured interview. It refers to a situation in which interviewer sets up a general structure of interview, but details this structure by asking extra, spontaneous questions depending on the interaction process during the interview. The interviewer extends questions using prompts, probes and follows up questions to get the interviewee to clarify and

expand his or her answers (Drever, 1995). It is more flexible than structured interview. It gives the opportunity to the interviewer to probe and expand on the interviewees' responses (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989). The interviewer remains almost free to build up on interaction within a particular subject area, to ask questions spontaneously and to establish conversation, but related to particular predetermined subjects (Patton, 1987). In this research, therefore, semi-structured in-depth interview technique was used in order to get information from teacher's about their classroom management and setting strategies. As structured and unstructured interview techniques have some limitations, semi-structured depth interview was accepted as a suitable technique in order to investigate this research's aims and objectives.

3.3.1. THE PROBLEM OF VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN DEPTH INTERVIEWS

In quantitative research, validity indicates appropriateness of the instrument to what it is supposed to measure. Lemke and Wiersma (1976) mentions that "validity concerned with the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure" (p.111). Five different methods such as content, predictive, construct, criterion and face validity of instrument are used in quantitative research (Utwin, 1995).

In addition to this, reliability is also conceptualised differently in qualitative research. In quantitative research, "reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same results each time." (Babbie, 1990; p.132). The consistency of results are the main issue in quantitative research.

In contrast to quantitative research, the researcher is the main instrument when qualitative methods are used (Patton, 1990). Therefore, the meaning and structure of validity and reliability is different from quantitative research. Guba (1981) suggests the need for different concepts and rhetoric for qualitative research rather than the concepts of quantitative research. Guba (1981) advises credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability instead of internal validity, generalisability, reliability and objectivity.

In in-depth interview research, the essential problem is whether the interviewee is telling the truth or not. Furthermore, the relationship between what s/he says and does

is again an important issue. If the respondent gives different information from his or her real, active practice, it is possible to get unreal and biased information from the interview. Therefore, the confirmation between what s/he said and his/her practice in real life is the validity problem in the interview, hence the value of observation to collaborate what is claimed by the interviewee. Because of this semi-structured interview was used with structured observation to answer the same questions.

One of the important concern is the ethical issue in analysing and reporting interview data. Since the researcher is the main instrument for collecting interview data the outcome is refined through and including interviewer biases. What data it is important and valuable to collect, analyse and report relies on the researcher's point of view (Merrian, 1988). Whether or not a given report reflects a valid account is the main inquiry for the validation process (Kvale, 1995). In this research all interview data were analysed only by the researcher

In addition, during analyses of the Turkish interview transcripts there was also the problem of translation. The intention was to convey meaning related to the research aims rather than word by word mechanical translation as there was a vast amount of unsystematic data. Most of the quotations included unsystematic ordinary speech rather than correctly structured language and translating them into another foreign language was difficult, and sometime meaningless. Generally, the aim was to translate the meaning rather than give a verbatim transcript. After translating Turkish transcripts into English, one of the Turkish native speaker who also speaks English very well checked all translation in order to improve the veracity of translation.

Maxwell (1992) points out that

> "Validity has long been a key issue in debates over the legitimacy of qualitative research; if qualitative studies cannot consistently produce valid results, then policies, programs, or predictions based on these studies cannot be relied on." (p.279).

According to the quantitative paradigm, reliability is the consistency of the results. On the other hand, as the researcher is the main instrument in the interview, reliability refers to the consistency of asking the same questions with the same words to different persons, transcribing and analysing reported data (Kvale, 1996). Asking questions

using the same words with each interviewee was the important issue, since different wordings of questions may lead to different answers. As the researcher collected all the data in this research, he tried to ask the same question with the same words to everybody in order to prevent any confusion over meaning.

Transcription of data was also crucial for interview. The consistency of transcription of the same passage by two different persons involves possible unreliability of transcription. In such cases, during the categorisation and coding process the agreement of two researchers for the same passage confers to reliability of analysis (Kvale, 1996). Again all transcription and coding was done by only one researcher in order to have a consistent process in this research.

The original, English, version of interview schedule was translated into Turkish before using in Turkey. The translation was done by three doctorate Turkish students who were studying at English universities together with the researcher in order to reach agreement in the meaning of questions. Then, the four different translations were reduced to one final form. In addition to this, the original English interview form was reduced for the PGCE student teachers since some questions were not related to their situations.

The transcription of what is said in interview is another important problem related to trustfulness of data. Both Turkish and English data were checked by another native speakers in both languages in order to correct any possible mistakes on the part of the researcher.

3.3.2. DEVELOPMENT OF CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT AND CLASSROOM SETTING INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The classroom behaviour management and classroom setting interview schedule was constructed in order to reveal teachers' perspectives and thoughts about their classroom behaviour management and classroom setting practice. The schedule contains three sections that are given in the appendix 3.

The first section consists of 7 questions related to the interviewee's personal background and school's characteristics such as teachers' experience, academic record,

socio-economic standards of school area, whether or not taking classroom management and organisation course and class size. They were asked under the heading of demographic variables.

Eight questions were asked in the second section that is related to classroom setting. Since one of the aims of this thesis was to compare Turkish and English classroom processes concerning classroom management, these questions were asked in order to reveal the difference between the English and Turkish classroom layout. There were two purposes of classroom setting questions. One was to reveal the determinants of two different classroom setting styles in England and Turkey. The second was to examine the effects of classroom layout on student misbehaviour and instruction in the classrooms of both countries.

Questions were asked to find out the aspects of classroom layout, determinants and frequency of seating arrangement and effects on teaching and student misbehaviour. They were asked under the heading of classroom setting.

1. Could you describe your actual classroom layout?

2. Has your classroom been arranged this way since the beginning of the year?

   - If not what other arrangements have you used?

   - When did you last change?

3. Which factors determine your seating arrangements?

   - Student characteristics,

   - Classroom's physical characteristics

   - Others

4. How often do you change your classroom?

   - seating arrangements?

   - Other aspects of classroom?

- On what basis do you change your classroom arrangements?

5. In what ways does the layout of the classroom influence your teaching?

6. How can you adjust the layout of the classroom to suit your teaching?

7. In what ways does the classroom layout effect student behaviour?

8. In what ways do some classroom layouts lead to greater misbehaviour?

- Can you give me some examples?

The third section consisted of 14 main questions related to behaviour management. Two important issues were examined with these questions: student misbehaviour and teacher managerial behaviour.

As discussed in the review chapter, there is a relationship between the difficulties of learning activities, teaching methods, whether pupils are challenged by learning activities, and frequency and types of misbehaviour (Vygotsky, 1978; Levin and Nolan, 1996; Kyriacou, 1986; and Merret and Wheldall, 1990). The aim of these questions was to clarify the meaning of misbehaviour, frequency and their types depending on student gender, activity, lesson, and the time of day in different culture. The following four questions were used to try to understand student misbehaviour in context.

1. What would you regard as misbehaviour in your present class?

- Can you give me some examples?

- when did they last occur?

2. What kind of student behaviour causes most problems in your classroom?

- How often do they occur?

3. What types of misbehaviour are presently occurring in your classroom?

- Depending on sex of the pupils?

- During certain type of activities?

- During certain type of lessons?

- During certain type of seating location?

- Depend on the time of day?

- Are there any particular situations involving a combination of these above?

- How would you describe students who appear to be causing problems?

4. Does student behaviour ever influence your teaching ?

- In what ways do student problems influence your teaching?

Teacher managerial behaviour was interpreted broadly under the heading of teacher proactive and reactive behaviour in order to deal with student misbehaviour (Anderson, 1991; Emmer, 1994). As also emphasised earlier, the difference between the effective and ineffective classroom manager was the ability to avoid confrontation in managerial situations and the ability to anticipate and prevent misbehaviour (Kounin, 1970). Because of this the fourth, fifth and eighth questions were asked to understand how teachers dealt with misbehaviour and whether they tried to prevent and anticipate it.

1. How do you deal with misbehaviour when it occurs?

- Can you give me an actual example?

- Do you try to anticipate misbehaviour? In what ways?

- Do you use sanctions or rewards, when they occur? If so, when?

2. What kind of methods do you use to prevent misbehaviour?

- Have these methods changed over the time that you have been teaching?

- How do your children learn what is the expected correct behaviour in your classroom?

3. Have you changed your behaviour management methods since

- you began teaching? If so why? In what ways?

- you have had this class? If so why? In what ways?

As discussed in the review chapter, teacher classroom behaviour management strategies were examined under three headings: teacher verbal behaviour, non-verbal behaviour and punishment. As a parallel to this construct, several types of misbehaviour were presented to the teacher in order to learn about their managerial strategies. The following question involved of 13 types of misbehaviour all taken from the structured classroom observation schedule also used in the research. They were asked to explore the teacher's perception of their response when they meet misbehaviour in their classroom. The questions were asked using concrete examples as a means of stimulating the recall by the teacher's of their reactive behaviours.

What is your typical response when a student in your classroom is

- excessively noisy

- engaged in illicit talk

- interrupting another pupil

- insulting another pupil

- insulting the teacher

- showing physical aggression towards other pupil

- engaged in illicit eating or drinking

- showing defiance to the teacher

- taking something without permission

- is unsettled

- engaging in inappropriate movement

- using materials in inappropriately

- damaging materials

In the second chapter of the thesis, the rules of the classroom and what teachers did about setting guidelines at the beginning of the term were discussed. Setting rules and establishing certain behaviour at the beginning of the year have enormous effects on the quality of order in the classroom (Emmer, Evertson and Anderson, 1980). The following questions were asked to reveal how each teacher persuade pupils to behave in the classroom and to learn the classroom rules. As stated earlier, classroom rules not only effect pupils behaviour but also teacher's behaviour. These rules may determine the whole classroom behaviour culture, style and standards. The following questions were asked to learn the classroom rules in two different classroom cultures and the effects on student and teacher behaviour.

1. How did you teach your students to behave properly in the classroom?

- How do you teach your students acceptable and unacceptable behaviour?

2. What did you do at the beginning of the school year to teach classroom rules and procedures?

3. How has student behaviour changed since the first weeks of the school?

4. Have you changed your behaviour management methods since

- you began teaching? If so why? In what ways?

- you have had this class? If so why? In what ways?

Teacher's thoughts about discipline and student behaviour also affect what they expect from students. Most of their behaviour related to behaviour management is affected by their philosophy and understanding of these concepts. The following questions were asked to learn the teacher's goals for discipline and their concept of ideal student behaviour:

5. What are your goals for student behaviour or discipline in the classroom?

6. How would you define ideal student behaviour?

3.3.3. ANALYSING INTERVIEW DATA

To analyse these interview transcripts very broadly, open coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1990), data reduction, display and verification (Miles and Huberman, 1994) and constant comparison methods (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) were taken as reference methods. All transcripts were coded based on pre-established coding schema. Then, data were assigned into predefined categories based on a these pre-established codes using qualitative data analysis software, QSR, NUDIST version 4.

After reducing the whole text into predefined categories, the data belonging to Turkish and English primary school teachers was compared within and a across the characteristics of the sample. A cross case theme was developed based upon the majority of text which contained the comparison of Turkish and English primary teacher's classroom management strategies.

The analysis was done under three main headings:

1. Student misbehaviour consisting of three subheadings:

- Determinants of pupils misbehaviour,

- Definition and descriptions of misbehaviour,

- Variations of misbehaviour depending on gender, time of day, seating arrangements, type of learning activity and subject matter.

2. Teachers' behaviour management strategies consisting of two subheadings:

- Teacher preventive behaviour management strategies.

- Teacher reactive behaviour management strategies.

3. Teachers' classroom setting strategies consisting of two subheadings.

- Description of classroom layout and frequency of changing classroom layout,

- Classroom layout, and teaching style and student behaviour.

In displaying interview data six abbreviation were used in order to give explanation about teachers. They are: 'FM: female', 'M: male', 'Exp: experience', 'Y: the year or grade that teacher taught'. 'ET' and 'TT' refer to English and Turkish teachers respectively.

3.4. SAMPLING ISSUES

This study was carried out in both Turkish and English primary school classrooms. One of the essential aims was the comparison of classroom processes of both countries. Samples were selected from teachers in Turkey and England. However, there were some practical difficulties such as time limitations especially in Turkey. In addition Turkish teachers were not used to being observed by outsiders as the processes resembled the inspection. There was, as a consequence the possibility of some friction. Because of the lack of willingness and the time limitation, the numbers in the samples chosen were limited in Turkey. There were also some problems in the English schools. It was difficult to reach a wide population as many teachers were unwilling to be involved in research that relied on classroom observation. Because of this, the number of available teachers was also limited in the English sample. The practical problems such as time limitation, and the lack of willingness of teachers lead to researchers studying a small group in order to select information rich cases, rather than a large population. Therefore, all cases were selected with particular care giving particular consideration to the teachers' experience, gender and the students' age. The willingness of cases to participate is very crucial in this kind of research. No one was studied without getting personal permission from the teacher. Because of this, both Turkish and English samples were broadly opportunity samples.

In selecting cases, based on teachers' experience, gender and students' age attempts were also made to involve equal number of non-experienced and experienced teachers. Patton (1990) advises that

> "the logic of extreme case sampling is that lessons may be learned about unusual conditions or extreme outcomes that are relevant to improving more typical programs." (p.170).

In this study main purpose of choosing extreme cases was to get information on the effects of experience in order to contribute to a teacher training program.

This study was carried out in the 1997-1998 academic years in Turkey and England. The Turkish sample consisted of 12 teachers from the city of Izmir. Four of them were observed then interviewed. Another 8 teachers were only interviewed about their teaching practice as it related to classroom management. The English sample consisted

of 8 teachers from the city of Leicester. Seven of them were first observed then interviewed. The remaining teacher was only interviewed. All characteristics of the Turkish and English samples are given in Table 3.3

TABLE. 3.3 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE.

	Teacher	Research type	Age	Sex	Experi ence	Bachelor degree	Students' age	Student's Grade or year
	Teacher-1	Obs-inter.	31	Male	7	Class thr.	7-8	2
	Teacher-2	Obs-inter.	31	Female	1	Sociology	6-7	1
T	Teacher-3	Obs-inter.	38	Female	19	Class thr.	9-10	4
U	Teacher-4	Obs-inter.	46	Male	28	Class thr.	9-10	4
R	Teacher-5	Interview	29	Male	2	Class thr.	8-9	3
K	Teacher-6	Interview	38	Female	19	Class thr.	7-8	2
I	Teacher-7	Interview	29	Female	6	German thr.	6-7	1
S	Teacher-8	Interview	29	Female	5	Philosophy	8-9	3
H	Teacher-9	Interview	26	Male	4	Class thr.	9-10	4
	Teacher-10	Interview	33	Male	12	Class thr.	8-9	3
	Teacher-11	Interview	42	Female	23	Class thr.	6-7	1
	Teacher-12	Interview	28	Female	2	Biology	8-9	3
E	Teacher-13	Obs-inter.	37	Male	10	Class thr.	6-7	1-2
N	Teacher-14	Obs-inter.	51	Male	28	Class thr.	9	4
G	Teacher-15	Obs-inter.	43	Female	1	Econ. + PGCE	6-7	1-2
L	Teacher-16	Obs-inter.	30	Male	3	Drama + PGCE	11	6
I	Teacher-17	Interview	22	Female	0	Psychology	9-10	5
S	Teacher-18	Obs-inter.	26	Male	0	Psychology	8-10	4
H	Teacher-19	Obs-inter.	24	Female	0	Psychology	9-10	5
	Teacher-20	Obs-inter.	22	Female	0	Psychology	7-8	3

4. CHAPTER FOUR : RESULTS OF STRUCTURED OBSERVATION: QUANTITATIVE DATA

Observation was carried out in Turkey and England using the same structured observation schedule described in the method chapter and in appendices 1 and 2. The behaviour management observation schedule consisted of two main sections. The first section of the schedule was related to behaviour management and consisted of several subsections such as teacher preventive behaviour, teacher reactive behaviour, student misbehaviour, outcome of student and teacher interaction, audience, type of seating and type of activities. This section was carried out using event sampling. If any interaction related to behaviour management occurred in the classroom, it was recorded. Otherwise, the observer had to wait until such interaction occurred.

The other part of the schedule was related to student task engagement. After dividing students into particular equal groups, each group was observed every fourth minute. Every student in each group was recorded as either on task (+) or off task (-).

After all data was collected, it was analysed using 'SPPSWIN' statistical software. The primary analysis of the behaviour management observation schedule consisted of the frequency and percentage of teacher response and student misbehaviour. This data was also broken down by country, student age, teacher experience, subject matter, time of day, activity and student seating style.

4.1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

In this study 11 primary school teachers (4 from Turkey and 7 from England) were observed using a structured observation schedule. Table 4.1 shows that they were chosen to represent a range of different experiences. Two out of four Turkish teachers had about twenty years experience. The others had been teaching between one and seven years. In the English sample, however, there were three groups consisting of experienced, less experienced and 'PGCE' student teachers. It was assumed that the experience of a teacher was an important factor in management of a classroom. Care was taken to observe the behaviour of different experienced teachers with different student age groups in order to

compare the effect of experience and student age on classroom management style and ability.

Another important factor in managing a classroom is likely to the student age. One could expect that pupils of different age groups would exhibit different behaviour based on their maturity. In this research, pupils of younger and older primary age groups were observed. As is apparent from Table 4.1 two of the Turkish classrooms were grade one and two, that is 6-7 and 7-8 years old pupils. The other two classrooms consisted of 9-10 year olds. The English classroom sample covered a larger age range from year 1 to 6.

TABLE 4.1 FREQUENCY OF INCIDENTS ACCORDING TO TEACHER.

Country	Teacher Exp.	Teacher gender	Student year or grade	Incident frequency	Percent
	28	Male	Grade 4	34	4.3
	19	Female	Grade 4	59	7.4
Turkey	7	Male	Grade 2	97	12.2
	1	Female	Grade 1	123	15.5
	28	Male	Year 4	87	10.9
	10	Male	Year 1-2	65	8.2
	3	Male	Year 6	54	6.8
England	1	Female	Year 1-2	60	7.5
	PGCE-1	Female	Year 6	90	11.3
	PGCE-2	Female	Year 5	77	9.7
	PGCE-3	Male	Year 3	50	6.3
Total				796	100.00

As can be seen in Table 4.1 above a total of 796 interactions (both Turkish and English ones) were recorded. Almost 40% of the interaction involved the Turkish sample.

During observation student misbehaviour and corresponding teacher response were recorded for each particular incident. In some cases, the same student exhibited several different kinds of misbehaviours and the teacher responded in different ways. A maximum of three student misbehaviour and three teacher responses were recorded for any particular incident. As can be seen from Table 4.2 the majority of incidents were dealt with by single

teacher responses. Table 4.2 also includes those cases where teachers anticipated misbehaviour and engaged in preventative intervention.

TABLE 4.2 FREQUENCY OF ALL TEACHERS RESPONSES

Teacher response	Turkey Frequency	%	England Frequency	%	TOTAL Frequency	%
Teacher response -1	277	63	439	59	716	61
Teacher response -2	103	23	211	28	314	26
Teacher response -3	26	6	51	7	77	6
Preventive behaviour	36	8	44	6	80	7
Total	442	100	745	100	1187	100

In table 4.2 for both Turkish and English cases the overwhelming number of interventions by the teacher consisted of single responses. Compared to 716 single responses, there were 314 occasions when the teacher was required to have a second response, and a further cases, 77, where a third intervention was attempted. This pattern was remarkably consistent in both the English and Turkish samples. For example in the case of English teachers the ratio was '439:211=2.08' and '211:51=4.13', and the corresponding figures for Turkish teachers were '277:103=2.69' and '103:26=3.96'. Attempts to anticipate misbehaviour were less frequent in that 80 such interactions were recorded in comparison to 1107 response interventions.

In addition to teacher responses, as can be seen from Table 4.3 overall 910 misbehaviours were recorded.

TABLE 4.3 FREQUENCY OF ALL STUDENTS MISBEHAVIOUR

Misbehaviour	Turkey Frequency	%	England Frequency	%	Total Frequency	%
Misbehaviour -1	277	78	439	78	716	78
Misbehaviour -2	75	21	103	19	178	20
Misbehaviour -3	2	1	14	3	16	2
Total	354	100	556	100	910	100

78% of all interaction consisted of a single misbehaviour. The percentage of first, second and third misbehaviours in the classrooms of both countries was similar.

4.2. TYPES OF MISBEHAVIOUR

This part of the schedule contained four main areas defining student verbal misbehaviour, non-verbal misbehaviour, miscellaneous and other, non-codable misbehaviours. Student verbal misbehaviour consisted of 'noise and illicit talking', 'interrupting another pupil', 'insulting other students' and 'insulting the teacher'. Students' non-verbal misbehaviour consisted of 'illicit eating or drinking', 'taking something without permission from other pupils or the teacher', 'inappropriate use of materials', 'inappropriate movements' and 'day dreaming or mind wandering'. The third section of miscellaneous misbehaviour also consisted of 'defiance to teacher', 'physical aggression towards other pupils', 'unsettling' and 'damaging materials'. Finally, the fourth section consisted of other non-codable elements of classroom misbehaviour.

In this part, all analyses were expressed as column percentages. This was because in some classrooms the observations covered a different proportion of time. Since the amount of observation time could influence the potential number of misbehaviours it was necessary to normalise the data in order to compare teachers from both countries. All analyses were, therefore, done using column percentages when comparing Turkish and English classrooms regarding frequencies of teacher responses and student misbehaviours across different contexts.

In the combined Turkish and English primary classrooms "910" misbehaviour were recorded. As was stated earlier, during an observation a maximum three misbehaviours could be recorded. The types of misbehaviours as they occurred, (expressed as percentages) within the classrooms of each country is given in Table 4.4.

The most striking aspect of Table 4.4 is that the majority of misbehaviours seen in both the Turkish and English primary classrooms were comparatively mild in nature. Serious misbehaviours were rarely observed in the classrooms of either country.

TABLE 4.4 MISBEHAVIOUR IN TURKISH AND ENGLISH CLASSROOMS

Misbehaviour	Turkish classroom		English classroom	
	Percent	Rank order	Percent	Rank order
Noisy or illicit talking	51.4	1	49.5	1
Inappropriate movement	27.1	2	27.0	2
Interrupting another pupil	9.3	3	7.9	4
Unsettling	3.7	4	2.7	5
Day dreaming or mind wandering	2.0	5	.5	7
Inappropriate use of materials	1.7	6	10.1	3
Insulting pupil	1.1	7	.4	9
Defiance of teacher	1.1	7	.4	9
Physical aggression towards other pupils	1.1	7	.5	7
Taking something without permission	.6	10	0	11
Others	.6	10	1.1	6
Illicit eating or drinking something	.3	12	0	11
Insulting teacher	0	13	0	11
Damaging materials	0	13	0	11
Total	100.0 %		100.0 %	
The number of incidents	354		556	

The most frequent misbehaviours seen in the Turkish primary classrooms were noise and illicit talking (51.4%), inappropriate movement (27.1%), interrupting other pupils (9.3%) and unsettling (3.7%). These four items constituted almost 91% of all observed misbehaviour in the Turkish context. In contrast, insulting the teacher and damaging materials were not observed on any occasion. Likewise, 'illicit eating or drinking something', 'taking something without permission', 'physical aggression towards other pupils', 'defiance of teacher', 'insulting another pupil' were rarely observed. They constituted less than 5% of all misbehaviour.

The most frequent misbehaviours in the English primary classrooms were 'noise and illicit talking' (49.5 %), 'inappropriate movement' (27 %), 'inappropriate use of materials' (10.1 %) and 'interrupting other pupils' (7.9 %). These constituted 94.5 % of all misbehaviour seen in the English sample. In contrast to these frequent misbehaviours, 'taking something without permission', 'illicit eating or drinking', 'insulting teacher' and 'damaging materials' were not observed in the English classrooms.

The percentages of the two most frequent misbehaviours in both the Turkish and English classrooms, 'noisy or illicit talking' and 'inappropriate movement', were almost the same in each case. The third frequent misbehaviour in the English sample was 'inappropriate use of materials' (10.1 %) whereas in the Turkish sample this was only 1.7%. Such misbehaviours as 'insulting teacher' and 'damaging materials' were not observed in either sample. The Turkish and the English samples seemed to be similar in that the proportions of their most and least frequent misbehaviours were of the same magnitude.

After presenting the overall percentages of misbehaviour in the English and Turkish classrooms more detailed analysis of each classroom based on pupils' age and teachers' experience will be examined. Table 4.5 shows the percentage of misbehaviour in each classroom separately.

The general features of the Turkish and the English classrooms based on percentage of misbehaviour are given in Table 4.5. Each category of behaviour is assigned to quartile in terms of 'relatively high', 'average' and 'relatively low' frequency of occurrence.

In order to present a complicated table in relatively simple format the approach used by Galton and his colleagues (1999) was adapted. They advised this approach when "...many of the differences between the observation categories making up the cluster profiles were not statistically significant." (p.114). The method involved taking values belonging to each misbehaviour category within each cluster containing both Turkish and English data and placing them in rank order. Then, the difference between highest and lowest value was divided by four (Galton et al. 1999). For example in the category 'noise or illicit talking' the highest value was 73.4 and lowest 30. The difference between the highest and lowest value was 43.4. Therefore, the quartile value was 10.85. In order to compute the average range the quartile value, 10.85, was added to the cases mean of 50.2 (i.e. 61.05) and then it was taken away from the mean (i.e. 39.35). All scores lying between 39.35 and 61.05 were assumed to be average. Scores higher than 61.05 were said to be 'relatively high', and those less than 39.35 'relatively low.

TABLE 4.5 STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR IN DIFFERENT TEACHERS CLASSROOM

KEY	
Relatively high	■
Average	▨
Relatively low	□

Misbehaviour	Teacher experience	TURKISH TEACHER				ENGLISH TEACHER							
		1-Yr	7-Yr	19 Yr	28 Yr	28 Yr	10 Yr	3 Yr	1 Yr	PGCE1	PGCE2	PGCE3	
	Student age	6-7	7-8	9-10	9-10	9	6-7	11	6-7	11	10	8	Mean
Student Verbal Behaviour	1. Noisy or illicit talking	48.4	50.6	58.7	53.3	72.2	30	73.4	44.4	34.7	35.4	64.3	50.2
	2. Interrupting pupil	2.5	7.1	19.0	24.4	1	5.7	1.6	2.8	14.4	12.7	16.1	8.5
	3. Insulting another pupil	1.2	1.2	1.6	0	0	0	0	2.8	0	0	0	.7
	4. Insulting teacher	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Student Non-verbal Behaviour	5 Illicit eating or drinking	.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	.1
	6. Taking smth. without Perm.	1.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	.2
	7 Inappropriate use of mat.	0	5.9	1.6	0	6.2	8.6	0	15.3	17.8	6.3	12.5	6.8
	8 Inappropriate movement	41.0	27.1	4.8	8.9	19.6	47.1	25	27.8	25.4	36.7	5.4	27.0
	9.Day drea./mind wand.	0	3.5	3.2	4.4	1	0	0	1.4	0	0	1.8	1.1
Miscella-neous	10.Defiance of teacher	2.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.7	0	0	.7
	11. Phys. aggr. Twrds oth p.	1.9	0	1.6	0	0	0	0	0	1.7	1.3	0	.8
	12. Unsettling	.6	4.7	7.9	6.7	0	7.1	0	4.2	3.4	3.8	0	3.1
	13. Damage to materials	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	14. Others	0	0	1.6	2.2	0	1.4	0	1.4	.8	3.8	0	.9
	TOTAL	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %
	Number of incidents	161	85	63	45	97	70	64	72	118	79	56	910

Overall, there was no observable pattern based on teacher experience although in the case of the Turkish teachers some trend could be observed. Above average level of student verbal misbehaviour (interrupting other pupils) was more likely to occur in the experienced teacher's classroom whereas non-verbal misbehaviour was marginally more frequent in the classroom of a teacher with one year's experience.

In the English classroom however, no clear cut pattern emerged. As might be expected there was a slightly higher proportion of the incidence of misbehaviour recorded for PGCE students compared with qualified teachers but there was no overall trend.

When teachers and pupils were compared in the main categories of 'student verbal misbehaviour', 'non-verbal misbehaviour' and 'miscellaneous' the differences were clearer. Table 4.6 shows the summary of these four main categories.

In most cases the majority of misbehaviours were verbal (commonly noise or illicit talking and interrupting another pupils). Only two of the PGCE teacher had less than 50% of such behaviour.

According to Table 4.6 most misbehaviour in the Turkish classroom was verbal. When students were compared based on age, 9-10 years old students' verbal misbehaviour was greater than that 6-7 and 7-8 years old pupils. There was an interaction between teacher experience and student behaviour since the percentages of verbal misbehaviour were higher in experienced teachers' classroom. However, in these classrooms the age was greater than in the case of less experienced teachers. As can be seen from Table 4.6, the lowest percentages of misbehaviour were in the miscellaneous category in all Turkish teachers' classroom.

In the English teachers' classrooms, it was difficult to demonstrate any pattern based either on the teachers' experience or the pupils' age. However, the pattern for two of the PGCE students and for the 10 and 1 year experienced teacher did differ in that, typically, the proportion of non-verbal misbehaviour was higher amounting to over 40% of total.

TABLE 4.6 TYPE OF STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR (TOTAL SAMPLE=910).

Teacher	Student age	Verbal misbeh aviour	Non-verbal misbehaviour	Miscella neous	Other	Total
28 Year experienced Turkish teacher	9-10	77.8	13.3	6.7	2.2	100.0
19 Year experienced Turkish teacher	9-10	79.4	9.5	9.5	1.6	100.0
7 Year experienced Turkish teacher	7-8	58.8	36.5	4.7	0	100.0
1 Year experienced Turkish teacher	6-7	52.2	42.9	5.0	0	100.0
28 Year experienced English teacher	9	73.2	26.8	0	0	100.0
10 Year experienced English teacher	6-7	35.7	55.7	7.1	1.4	100.0
3 Year experienced English teacher	11	75.0	25.0	0	0	100.0
1 Year experienced English teacher	6-7	50.0	44.4	4.2	1.4	100.0
English PGCE student 1	11	49.2	43.2	6.8	.8	100.0
English PGCE student 2	10	48.1	43.0	5.1	3.8	100.0
English PGCE student 3	8	80.4	19.6	0	0	100.0
Total		59.3	35.3	4.5	.9	100.0

When Turkish and English teachers' classrooms were compared, it was obvious that there were some similarities and some differences. The percentage of verbal misbehaviour was lower in less experienced teachers' classrooms in both groups. However, the age of the pupils in the Turkish classrooms was lower than in the English ones. In the experienced teachers' classrooms, the proportion of verbal misbehaviour was higher as was also the pupils' age. In contrast, the percentage of non-verbal misbehaviour was higher in the English classrooms than in Turkish ones.

Table 4.6 presents the overall results without distinguishing between the country of origin. Variations in pupils' ages will now be explored in an effort to determine how far pupils' misbehaviour is influenced by such factors.

Since a majority of misbehaviours were observed very rarely as can be seen from Table 4.4, those observed for less than 5% of overall misbehaviour were excluded. This was done to make the significance of frequent misbehaviours clearer. As can be seen from Table 4.4, four misbehaviours namely, 'noisy or illicit talking', 'interrupting another pupils', 'inappropriate use of materials' and 'inappropriate movement' were observed more frequently than 5% both in Turkey and in England. They constituted 89.5% of all Turkish records and 94.5% of English ones. The remaining categories were grouped under 'others'.

In Figure 4.1 the relative proportion of each misbehaviour was broken down by age of pupils. These could be compared with the aggregated values reported in Table 4.4. As can be seen from both tables and figures the ranking of different types of pupils for different misbehaviours seemed unaffected by age, although the absolute values did show slight age variations.
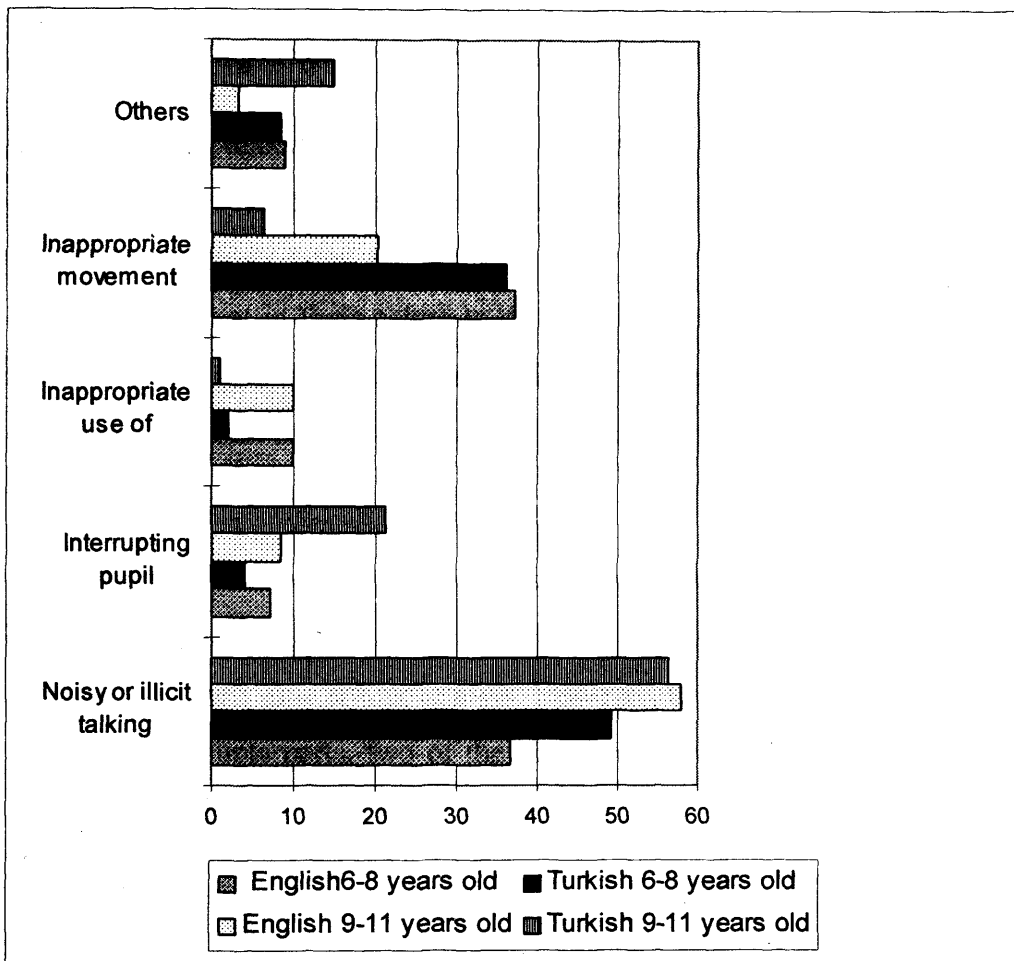
FIGURE 4.1 MISBEHAVIOUR ACCORDING TO PUPILS AGE

As can be seen in Figure 4.1, the most frequent misbehaviours for all age groups were again 'noisy or illicit talking' and 'inappropriate movement'. However, the absolute percentage of both misbehaviours changed according to pupils' age. Although 'inappropriate movement' was common for younger pupils, 'noisy or illicit talking' was more frequently observed in older students. The percentage of 'inappropriate use of materials' was mainly observed in the English classrooms and was distributed almost

equally across both age groups. 'Interrupting another pupil' was commonly observed in the 9-11 year old Turkish students' classrooms. These classrooms were arranged with pupils sitting around tables. However, there were no major differences in the learning and teaching styles compared with classrooms with more traditional seating arrangements. Since all teachers taught subjects using whole class teaching when students sat around tables it might be hypothesised that they were more easily distracted if they became bored, because the seating arrangement provided a suitable situation in which to interact easily.

In attempting to understand how misbehaviour varied according to the context in which it occurred, it was important to consider other factors as type of learning activity, seating arrangements, time of day and subject matter. Most of the time pupils do not misbehave because it was not in their nature to do so. Misbehaviour could often be caused by such factors as those given above. Therefore, in order to understand misbehaviour we first of all considered different seating arrangements. Table 4.7 shows the percentage of misbehaviour in these different contexts.

In this section, we examined the forms of organisation and the kinds of misbehaviour observed in both English and Turkish classrooms. Overall, in Turkish classrooms pupils spent most of their time sitting in rows. However, in order to compare Turkish classrooms with English counterparts, two of the classrooms in which pupils sat around tables were included in the sample observed.

TABLE 4.7 FREQUENCY OF MISBEHAVIOUR DURING DIFFERENT SEATING ARRANGEMENTS

Misbehaviour	Turkish Group	English Group	Turkish Class	English Class	Turkish Pair	English Pair
Noisy or illicit talking	57	46.6	83.3	55.9	48.1	76.9
Interrupting another pupil	21.5	9.4	0	3.9	4.1	0
Inappropriate use of materials	.9	12.7	0	1.6	2.1	7.7
Inappropriate movement	6.5	25.2	0	33.9	36.9	15.4
Others	14	6	16.7	4.7	8.7	0
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Number of incidents	107	416	6	127	241	13

As can be seen from Table 4.7, the same four misbehaviour that were previously described were broken down by different seating arrangement. The difference between Turkish and English classrooms revealed some interesting differences when both Turkish and English

pupils were seated in groups. The percentage of 'noisy or illicit talking' and 'interrupting other pupils' was greater in Turkish classrooms than in English ones. When pupils sat in groups they rarely worked as group, so these misbehaviours were commonly observed. The other two misbehaviours namely 'inappropriate use of materials' and 'inappropriate movement' were observed in English classrooms more often than in Turkish ones.

The differences between English and Turkish classrooms concerning the frequency of 'inappropriate use of materials' and 'inappropriate movement' were mainly the result of differences in the content taught. Teachers in English classroom made use of lots of classroom materials. As a result, 'inappropriate use of materials' was seen more frequently than in Turkish classrooms in which few materials were provided for pupils. When Turkish pupils sat in groups, there was very little space available for wandering around because of the large number of students in the class.

When the data on Turkish students is examined as they sat in pairs and groups, there were some differences in the occurrences of certain misbehaviours. These were mainly non-verbal, 'interrupting another pupil' and 'inappropriate movement'. When students sat in groups there were more interruptions than inappropriate movements because of the seating arrangements.

English students, however, showed quite different patterns when they sat in groups rather than as a class. Certain misbehaviours namely 'interrupting other pupil' and 'inappropriate use of materials' were observed mainly when pupils sat in groups. This could be the result of the structure of the group work and of sharing materials while engaged in seatwork.

These were interesting findings in the context of the different classroom cultures. How teachers delivered the curriculum and the classroom seating arrangement appeared to affect each other. Because of this, teachers should take into account both factors in seeking to have less distraction during instruction.

Although in both countries some of pupils sat around tables in the classroom, they engaged mostly in individual seatwork. The relationship between frequency of misbehaviour and learning activity was also examined. Table 4.8 shows the frequency of misbehaviour

during three different types of activity: individual seat work, group work and whole class teaching.

When Table 4.7 and 4.8 were examined together, there were interesting findings in the context of classrooms of both countries. Although more misbehaviour was observed when pupils sat in groups, there was very little misbehaviour in the English classrooms and no misbehaviour in the Turkish classrooms when the task involved group activity. This could be the result of the lack of such activities. Sitting in a group did not mean working as a group.

As can be seen from Table 4.8, majority of misbehaviours in classrooms of both countries were observed when the teacher initiated the lesson as whole class teaching. However, there were few differences between Turkish and English classrooms regarding the frequency of misbehaviour during whole class teaching.

TABLE 4.8 MISBEHAVIOUR AND LEARNING ACTIVITY

Misbehaviour	Turkish seatwork	English seatwork	Turkish group work	English group work	Turkish class	English class
Noisy or illicit talking	66.7	32.3	0	66.7	51.1	58
Interrupting pupil	33.3	10.1	0	33.3	8.9	5.9
Inappropriate use of materials	0	14.8	0	0	1.7	7.9
Inappropriate movement	0	36.5	0	0	27.6	22.8
Others	0	6.3	0	0	10.6	5.4
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Number of incidents	6	189	0	12	348	355

If English classrooms were examined, there were obvious differences in the frequency of all misbehaviour during seatwork and whole class teaching. 'Noisy or illicit talking' was observed largely during whole class teaching. However, 'interrupting another pupil', 'inappropriate use of materials' and 'inappropriate movement' were predominantly observed during seatwork. This could be caused by the structure of both activities since during seat work pupils started to share resources and discuss their work with peers. They showed certain misbehaviours more than in other contexts. Furthermore, they wandered around when they got bored.

In addition to sitting arrangement and activities, two other important factors such as time of day and the subject matter were regarded as important components in the emergence of misbehaviour. Figure 4.2 examines whether the frequency of misbehaviour depended on time of day in the English classroom.

According to Figure 4.2, there were differences between the percentage of particular misbehaviours depending on 'time of day'. 'Noise and illicit talking' was the most common misbehaviour in the afternoons (57.4%) rather than the mornings (43%). On the other hand 'inappropriate movement' was more frequent in the mornings (33%) rather than afternoons (19.1). Although there were no significant differences between 'interrupting another pupil' and 'inappropriate use of materials', these were seen mostly in the afternoons. It would seem that verbal misbehaviour tended to occur in the afternoons rather than mornings.
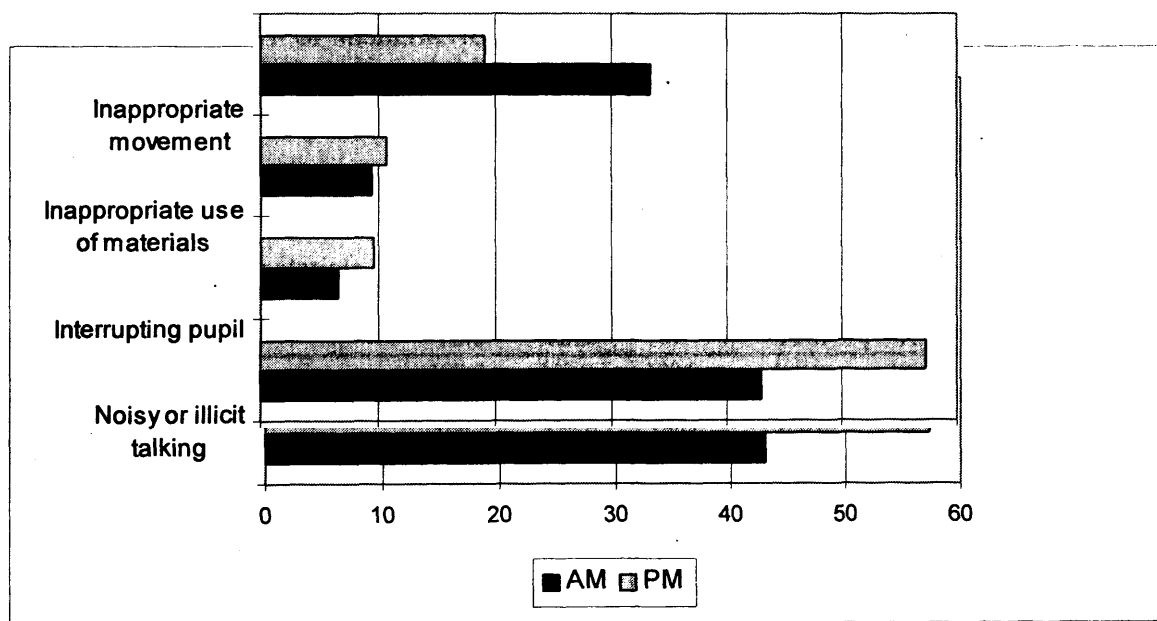
FIGURE 4.2 MISBEHAVIOURS AS A FUNCTION OF TIME OF DAY

However, these variations could be caused by the tendency to allocate certain times to certain curriculum areas. Lessons such as music, physical education and colouring were generally taught in the afternoon. In other words, core subjects such as science, mathematics and English were usually taught in the morning. These arrangements could affect the frequency of certain misbehaviour in either mornings or afternoons.

Since most Turkish primary schools provided two shifts of education in mornings and afternoons, it was not possible to observe the same pupil groups over the two sessions. Therefore, Figure 4.2 was not compiled for the Turkish classrooms.

One of the other important components of teaching was the subject matter. It appeared that the kind of subject matter taught in the classrooms could determine the emergence of misbehaviours. Table 4.9 gives the frequency of different misbehaviours within different subjects.

Four different main subjects were observed in the Turkish classrooms. These were sciences, mathematics, Turkish and social sciences. Turkish included reading and writing. Social sciences included subjects such as humanities, geography, history, religious education and traffic. Three subjects, English (reading and writing), mathematics and social sciences were observed in the English classrooms.

TABLE 4.9 FREQUENCY OF MISBEHAVIOUR AS A FUNCTION OF SUBJECT MATTER

| Misbehaviour | Turkish classroom | | | | English classroom | | |
	Science	Math	Mother tongue	Social sciences	Math.	Mother tongue	Social sciences
Noisy or illicit talking	64.5	53.1	50.0	46.8	40.2	44.0	64.9
Interrupting pupils	9.7	9.4	6.1	23.4	10.4	7.3	6.3
Inappropriate use of materials	3.2	6.3	.5	0	15.2	9.2	6.3
Inappropriate movement	9.7	18.8	34.4	17.0	26.8	32.1	20.7
Others	12.9	12.5	9	12.8	7.3	7.3	1.7
Total	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %
The number of incidents	31	64	212	47	164	218	174

The frequency of 'noisy or illicit talking', 'interrupting another pupils', 'inappropriate use of materials' and 'inappropriate movement' varied from subject to subject in classrooms of both countries. The difference in frequency of misbehaviours in different subjects may be caused by the difference in teaching and learning styles, the availability of classroom resources and also the learning environment.

Table 4.9 shows that 'noise and illicit talking' and 'inappropriate movements' were again the dominant misbehaviours irrespective of subject. In the Turkish classrooms there were small fluctuations in the frequency of misbehaviour based on subject matter. 'Interrupting

114

other pupils' was more common in social science lessons than others. Furthermore, the frequency of 'inappropriate movement' dropped in science lesson. However, 'noise or illicit talking' increased dramatically to 64.5%. This could be a consequence of the practical aspects of science lessons since pupils share resources or of teacher initiation of the lesson. Because of this, the level of noise increased whereas the remaining misbehaviour fell.

In the English classrooms, 'noise and illicit talking' was especially problematic in social sciences 65%. Although 'inappropriate movement' was a common problem in all three subjects, it was a particular feature of English lessons. The other common misbehaviour, 'interrupting pupils', was mostly seen during mathematics lessons.

When both English and Turkish classrooms are examined together, each dominant misbehaviour varied across different subjects to some extent. For example 'noise and illicit talking' was seen most frequently in science lessons in the Turkish classrooms but it was seen more frequently during social science lessons in the English classroom. Again, 'interrupting pupils' was predominantly seen in social science lessons in the Turkish classroom but during mathematics lessons in the English classrooms. On the other hand, 'inappropriate movement' and 'inappropriate use of materials' were seen as dominant misbehaviours in both countries during mother tongue (English-Turkish) and mathematics lessons.

These differences across different subjects regarding frequency of misbehaviour could be the result of the different teaching methods used, the amount of classroom resources and the use of classroom settings. It is difficult, therefore, to claim these variations on misbehaviour are determined solely by the subject matter. There are also other possible intervening variables such as pupils' age, time of day and seating arrangements.

COMMENTARY

There were both differences and similarities between Turkish and English classrooms. As can be seen in Table 4.4, the frequency of a majority of misbehaviours was similar in both

English and Turkish classrooms except for 'inappropriate use of materials' because of a lack of resources in the Turkish classrooms compared with their English counterparts.

However, the frequency of misbehaviour did vary depending on factors such as time of day, pupils age, seating arrangement, learning activity and subject matter. Misbehaviour was therefore, context bound. As a result, the observed differences between English and Turkish classroom could be attributed mainly to the classroom organisation and lesson content. However, there were more similarities in the way that lessons were taught than in the patterns of misbehaviour apparent in both countries.

4.3. TYPES OF TEACHER RESPONSE

This part of the schedule consisted of two subsections: teachers' preventive behaviour and teachers' reactive response to any misbehaviour. Teachers' active responses included four components: teacher verbal response, teacher non-verbal response, teacher punishment and others that were non-codable.

In this section, all percentages given will be based on column percentage since various classrooms were observed for different amounts of time. In order to compare teachers, all percentages had to be computed using column percentages. All results should be interpreted with this procedure in mind.

The preventive sub scale was composed of nine items that identified the repertoire of teachers' responses. The scale's items were 'telling expectations', 'requesting and explanations', 'threat or warning', 'reminding rules', 'involves pupils in work', 'encouragement', 'proximity', 'gestures' and 'others' that were noncodable preventive behaviour.

It can be seen from Table 4.2 (p.103) that mainly seven percent of teacher responses overall consisted of preventive behaviours. Approximately 45% of these were recorded in the Turkish context. Table 4.10 shows the overall percentage of teacher preventive strategies. It can be seen from the table that there were teacher differences rather than a pattern based on teacher experience. The experienced teachers appeared to use preventive strategies infrequently. In contrast, both the Turkish less experienced teacher and English PGCE student teacher appeared to use preventive strategies more often than their colleagues.

According to Table 4.10, the most common teacher preventive behaviours in the Turkish classrooms were 'telling expectations', 'threat or warning' and 'reminding rules'. The repertoire of Turkish teachers' preventive behaviour was limited.

TABLE 4.10 FREQUENCY OF TEACHER'S PREVENTIVE BEHAVIOUR

Preventive behaviour	TURKISH TEACHER				ENGLISH TEACHER							Total
	1-Yr	7-Yr	19 Yr	28 Yr	28 Yr	10 Yr	3 Yr	1 Yr	PGCE-1	PGCE-2	PGCE-3	
Telling expectations	80.0	30.4	80.0	33.3	40.0	0	50.0	0	37.5	26.3	50.0	37.5
Request and explanations	0	0	0	0	20.0	0	0	0	0	26.3	0	7.5
Threat or warning	20.0	4.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	37.5	0	0	6.3
Remind rules	0	26.1	0	66.7	20.0	66.7	0	100.0	25.0	5.3	16.7	20.0
Involves pupils in work	0	17.4	0	0	0	33.3	0	0	0	0	33.3	8.8
Encouragement	0	21.7	0	0	0	0	50.0	0	0	42.1	0	17.5
Gesture	0	0	20.0	0	20.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.5
Proximity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
The number of incidents	5	23	5	3	5	3	2	1	8	19	6	80

Only the 7 year experienced teacher used preventive behaviour frequently. Less experienced teachers used it rarely perhaps because of lack of experience. On the other hand, the two most experienced teachers may not have used this approach because they had established rules of expected behaviour. As Turkish primary education is 5 years and generally teachers do not change their school or classroom during this period, it is reasonable to hypothesise that classroom rules and expected behaviours had previously been set and clarified. Because of this, when misbehaviour occurred these experienced teachers may have thought that it was time to respond directly to misbehaviour rather than attempting to prevent it.

In the English classroom, preventive behaviour was also infrequent. 'Telling expectation' and 'reminding rules' were used by most of the teachers. Other preventive behaviours were rarely used. Preventive behaviours were used more frequently by PGCE students. It could be argued that using preventive behaviour was uncommon because the pupils had already attended infant school. They had, therefore, already learned how to behave in the classroom. In addition to this, each English school had a behaviour policy that was explained in assembly meetings by the head teacher and followed up by teachers in the classroom.

As stated earlier, teachers' active responses to student misbehaviours were divided into four categories. The first category was teachers' verbal behaviour that included 'order to cease', 'reprimand', 'statement of rules', 'pupil named', 'humour', 'involves pupil in work', 'encouragement' and 'calling out'. The second category was teachers' non-verbal behaviour in terms of 'gesture', 'facial expression', 'proximity', 'touch' and 'dramatic pause'. The third category was teachers' punishments that included 'pupil moved', 'physical aggression towards pupils' and 'ridicule pupils'. The fourth category 'other' included all non-codable behaviour.

During observation a maximum of three teacher responses were recorded into the observation schedule for each segment of teacher-student interactions. Hence, three teacher responses were thought as independent response to actual misbehaviours. So all responses

were added to each other. As a result, "1107" different teacher responses were used in the analysis of data. Thirty seven percent of data was attributable to the Turkish teachers and the remainder to the English teachers.

In Table 4.11, the percentages of all teachers' responses are given for the teachers of both countries. Table 4.11 shows that the majority of teachers' responses were verbal, namely 'statement of rules', 'order to cease' or 'pupil named'. This was true for the classrooms of both countries. Both Turkish and English teachers tended to respond to student misbehaviour by means of a verbal intervention. However, such responses did not include extreme behaviour such as punishment. Punishment was the least used form of intervention seen during observation. Non-verbal strategies were also used by both Turkish and English teachers but not as frequently as verbal ones.

The four most frequent teacher reactive responses were 'statement rules', 'order to cease', 'pupil named' and 'reprimand' in the Turkish classroom. All of these involved teacher's verbal behaviour. The four least frequent responses were 'physical punishment', 'ridicule', 'move pupil from seat', and 'calling out'. Apart from calling out, these involved teachers administering punishments. According to Table 4.11, punishment was the least frequent used response in Turkish classrooms. Non-verbal responses were also infrequent. 75% of Turkish teachers' responses were verbal responses to misbehaviour.

On the other hand, the four most common English teachers' managerial strategies were 'statement of rules', 'pupil named', 'gesture' and 'facial expression'. The first two strategies were verbal responses and the other two strategies were non-verbal. In contrast to this, the least common five responses were 'physical punishment', 'ridicule', 'calling out', 'encouragement' and 'reprimand'. The two least used strategies were teacher punishment (physical or ridicule). The other three strategies consisted verbal behaviours.

TABLE 4.11 FREQUENCY OF TEACHER RESPONSES

Teacher response	Turkish teacher		English teacher	
	Percent	Rank order	Percent	Rank order
Statement of rules	38.4	1	26.4	1
Order to cease	20.0	2	10.0	5
Pupil named	10.3	3	18.7	2
Reprimand	6.4	4	.7	12
Gesture	5.4	5	17.7	3
Facial expression	4.7	6	10.6	4
Touch	4.2	7	1.7	8
Proximity	3.2	8	1.9	7
Humour	3.0	9	1.1	9
Involves pupil in work	2.0	10	7.7	6
Dramatic pause	1.5	11	1.1	9
Encouragement	.5	12	.7	12
Calling out	.2	13	.6	14
Pupil moved	.2	13	1.0	11
Ridicule	0	15	.1	15
Physical	0	15	0	16
Total	100.0 % (406 incidents)		100.0 % (701 incidents)	

As can be seen from table 4.11, although some non-verbal responses were used by Turkish teachers, they used 'gesture' and 'facial expression' about half as frequently as their English counterparts. In contrast, 'proximity' and 'touch' were used by Turkish teachers twice as frequently as English teachers. In addition to this, negative verbal behaviours such as 'reprimand' and 'order to cease' were used by Turkish teachers markedly more frequently than by English teachers. 'Statement of rules' was also used by Turkish teachers more frequently than by their English counterparts. Turkish teachers seemed to be more critical of misbehaviour.

After examining the frequency of all teacher reactive responses by country, differences between individual teachers were examined. Table 4.12 shows separately the frequency of teachers responses for verbal, non-verbal and punishment . Eleven teachers' responses using the procedure previously described on page '106' for Table 4.5 .

Table 4.12 Comparison of teacher responses

KEY
Relatively high	(dark)
Average	(grey)
Relatively low	(white)

Misbehaviour		TURKISH TEACHER				ENGLISH TEACHER							
	Teacher experience	1-Yr	7-Yr	19-Yr	28-Yr	28-Yr	10-Yr	3Yr	1-Yr	PGCE-1	PGCE-2	PGCE-3	
	Student age	6-7	7-8	9-10	9-10	9	6-7	11	6-7	11	10	8	Mean
Teacher Verbal Behaviour	1. Order to cease	27.1	21.8	4.8	11.8	5.5	5.2	12.7	15.6	15	4.9	12.3	13.6
	2. Reprimand	10.1	5.0	1.2	2.9	0	0	0	1.1	2.9	0	0	2.8
	3. Statement of rules	39.9	39.6	33.7	38.2	22.9	29.6	19.7	32.2	25	34	17.8	30.8
	4. Pupil named	8	17.8	8.4	5.9	7.3	31.3	2.8	8.9	25	23.3	24.7	15.6
	5. Humour	1.1	3.0	3.6	11.8	3.7	.9	0	0	.7	1.9	0	1.8
	6. Involves pupil (s) in work	0	5.0	2.4	2.9	3.7	6.1	11.3	12.2	6.4	9.7	6.8	5.6
	7. Encouragement	0	2.0	0	0	0	.9	0	0	0	3.9	0	.6
	8. Calling out	0	0	1.2	0	0	2.6	0	0	0	1	0	.5
Teacher Non-verbal Behaviour	9. Gesture	5.9	1.0	9.6	5.9	50.5	3.5	40.8	15.6	5.7	2.9	15.1	13.2
	10. Facial expression	1.1	4.0	13.3	5.9	1.8	10.4	9.9	12.2	10.7	12.6	19.2	8.4
	11. Proximity	2.7	0	8.4	2.9	2.8	1.7	0	0	2.1	3.9	1.4	2.3
	12. Touch	4.3	0	6.0	11.8	0	3.5	1.4	2.2	2.9	0	1.4	2.6
	13. Dramatic pause	0	1.0	6.0	0	.9	1.7	1.4	0	2.1	1	0	1.3
Teacher Punishment	14. Pupil moved	0	0	1.2	0	0	2.6	0	0	1.4	1	1.4	.7
	15. Physical	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	16. Ridicule	0	0	0	0	.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	.1
Other	17. Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Number of incidents	188	101	83	34	109	115	71	90	140	103	73	1107

As can be seen in Table 4.12, there were individual differences among teachers rather than an overall pattern based on teacher experience or country. At first sight it appears less experienced Turkish teachers use more verbal managerial strategies. However, although, this is true in comparison with the 19 year experienced teacher it is not true of the older colleague with 28 years of experience.

For the English teachers', in Table 4.11, the three common responses, namely 'statement of rules', 'pupil named' and 'gesture' were also common responses in Table 4.12. Overall, this form of responses was used by all teachers irrespective of their experience.

By comparing teachers by examining whether or not they used 'verbal', 'non-verbal' or 'punishment' categories rather than by considering each item of teacher responses, differences between teachers in both countries and experience may emerge. Table 4.13 shows comparisons by percentages of each response category for each individual teacher.

As can be seen from Table 4.13, there were clear differences between the first two less experienced and the other two more experienced Turkish teachers in using verbal and non-verbal responses. Less experienced Turkish teachers used verbal behaviour rather than non-verbal behaviour to deal with misbehaviour.

On the other hand, the 28 and 3 year experienced English teachers were separated from other English teachers by their use of verbal responses. Although the differences were not as clear as for the Turkish teachers, there were also interactions between the two groups. Less experienced teachers tended to use verbal responses more than non-verbal ones.

TABLE 4.13 TYPE OF TEACHER RESPONSES (TOTAL SAMPLE=1107).

Teacher	Verbal behaviour	Non-verbal behaviour	Punishment	Total
28 Year experienced Turkish teacher	73.5	26.5	0	100.0
19 Year experienced Turkish teacher	55.4	43.4	1.2	100.0
7 Year experienced Turkish teacher	94.1	5.9	0	100.0
1 Year experienced Turkish teacher	86.2	13.8	0	100.0
28 Year experienced English teacher	43.1	56.0	9	100.0
10 Year experienced English teacher	76.5	20.9	2.6	100.0
3 Year experienced English teacher	46.5	53.5	0	100.0
1 Year experienced English teacher	70.0	30.0	0	100.0
English PGCE student 1	75.0	23.6	1.4	100.0
English PGCE student 2	78.6	20.4	1.0	100.0
English PGCE student 3	61.6	37.0	1.4	100.0
Total	71.4	27.8	.8	100.0

When the responses of the teachers of both countries were taken into account, the difference between experienced and less experienced teachers in the Turkish sample was clearer than for their English counterparts.

Punishment was used very rarely by all teachers. As seen from Table 4.13, less than 1% of all responses were punishment. In contrast, 71% were verbal and 27.8% were non-verbal responses.

In order to clarify the difference in the managerial response based on teaching experience, the teachers were grouped into two categories either 'experienced' or 'less experienced'. Furthermore, English PGCE student teachers were separated from less experienced teachers. They were identified as a third group. Table 4.14 shows the difference of responses based on teacher experience.

TABLE 4.14 TEACHER RESPONSES AS A FUNCTION OF EXPERIENCE

Teacher response	Turkish teacher		PGCE students	English teacher	
	Less experienced	Experienced		Less experienced	Experienced
Order to cease	25.3	6.8	11.1	14.3	5.4
Reprimand	8.3	1.7	1.3	.6	0
Statement of rules	39.8	35.0	26.3	26.7	26.3
Pupil named	11.4	7.7	24.4	6.2	19.6
Humour	1.7	6.0	.9	0	2.2
Involves pupil in work	1.7	2.6	7.6	11.8	4.9
Encouragement	.7	0	1.3	0	.4
Calling out	0	.9	.3	0	1.3
Gesture	4.2	8.5	7.0	26.7	26.3
Facial expression	2.1	11.1	13.3	11.2	6.3
Proximity	1.7	6.8	2.5	0	2.2
Touch	2.8	7.7	1.6	1.9	1.8
Dramatic pause	.3	4.3	1.3	.6	1.3
Pupil moved	0	.9	1.3	0	1.3
Ridicule	0	0	0	0	.4
Total	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %
The number of incidents	289	117	316	161	224

Table 4.14 makes it even clearer that there were obvious differences between Turkish 'experienced' and 'less experienced' teachers with regard to managing student behaviours. The less experienced Turkish teachers used verbal behaviours such as 'order to cease', 'reprimand', 'statement of rules' and 'pupil named' more than their experienced colleagues. Only two categories, 'humour' and 'involve pupils in work' were used more frequently by experienced teachers as a strategies for managing misbehaviour. On the other hand, non-verbal strategies such as 'gesture', 'facial expression', 'proximity', 'touch' and 'dramatic pause' were used by experienced teachers more frequently.

When we examine the English teachers, it was not possible to make clear cut distinctions on managerial strategy related to teachers' experience. Both 'order to cease' and 'reprimand' were used by PGCE student teachers and less experienced teachers more often than by experienced teachers. However, there were differences between PGCE student teachers and others in the use of 'gesture' and 'facial expression'. 'Order to cease', 'involve pupil in work' and 'facial expression' were used by the less experienced English

teacher significantly more than by the experienced ones. Only 'pupil named' was used predominantly by experienced teachers in comparison with other strategies.

When Turkish and English teachers were compared, it appeared that there were no clear-cut differences. However, there were differences between the Turkish 'less experienced' teachers and the English 'less experienced' teachers. The first five verbal managerial strategies, 'order to cease', 'reprimand', 'statement rules', 'pupil named' and 'humour' were used more frequently by Turkish 'less experienced' teachers. In contrast, 'gesture' and 'facial expression' and 'involves pupil in work' were used more often by the 'less experienced' English teacher and by PGCE student teachers in comparison with the Turkish counterparts. English PGCE students used non-verbal strategies more than inexperienced Turkish teachers while the reverse was true of verbal strategies.

Although verbal intervention generally stopped misbehaviour, it had side effects such as awareness by other pupils of a confrontation. The difference between Turkish and English teachers could have been caused by their experience during training. Since the majority of newly qualified English teachers came to school with knowledge about classroom management, because of the practical benefits of the PGCE course, they may have acquired a better range of strategies.

As most of the categories of managerial strategies were used only rarely by teachers, those with a frequency of more than 5% were selected from Table 4.11 in order to examine their effects more easily. As a result 7 strategies namely 'order to cease', 'reprimand', 'statement of rules', 'pupil named', 'involves pupils in work', 'gesture' and 'facial expression' were chosen and the remainder grouped under the heading of 'others'.

The '5%' teacher strategies were then examined using student age as an independent variable to investigate possible variations in use.

Table 4.1 (p.102) showed that there were some clear differences between different grade levels and the kinds of misbehaviour students showed. Therefore, it may also be possible to find some difference in the use of different strategies by teachers based on students' age. Figure 4.3 shows the percentages of teacher responses according to the pupils' age.

126

Those classrooms that included 6-8 year old pupils were grouped into one category and between 9-11 year old pupils were grouped into the second category. Teachers teaching the Turkish '6-8 year age groups' and '9-11 year age groups' were the same as those in table 4.14 for the less experienced and the experienced teacher groups, because 6-8 year olds were taught by less experienced teachers and the older pupils were taught by their more experienced colleagues. On the other hand, the English teachers taught a mix of age groups, (i.e. the experienced teachers taught both younger and older age groups and vice versa).

As can be seen from Figure 4.3 Turkish teachers who taught 6-8 years olds pupils, less experienced teachers, used verbal strategies such as 'order to cease', 'reprimand', 'statement of rules' and 'pupil named' more than did the teachers who taught 9-11 years old pupils. This could be due to their lack of experience. The same distinction was also observed among English teachers but not so clearly as with their Turkish counterparts. Verbal strategies were used for 6-8 years old English pupils' classrooms more often than with 9-11 year olds. Gesture was used to a remarkable degree in older pupils' classrooms.

Although teacher experience seemed to affect the choice of strategies, student age also appeared influential since younger students may understand direct intervention more clearly than non-verbal intervention. Pupils understanding and interpretation of teacher behaviour and intervention may also determine the teachers' choice of strategies.
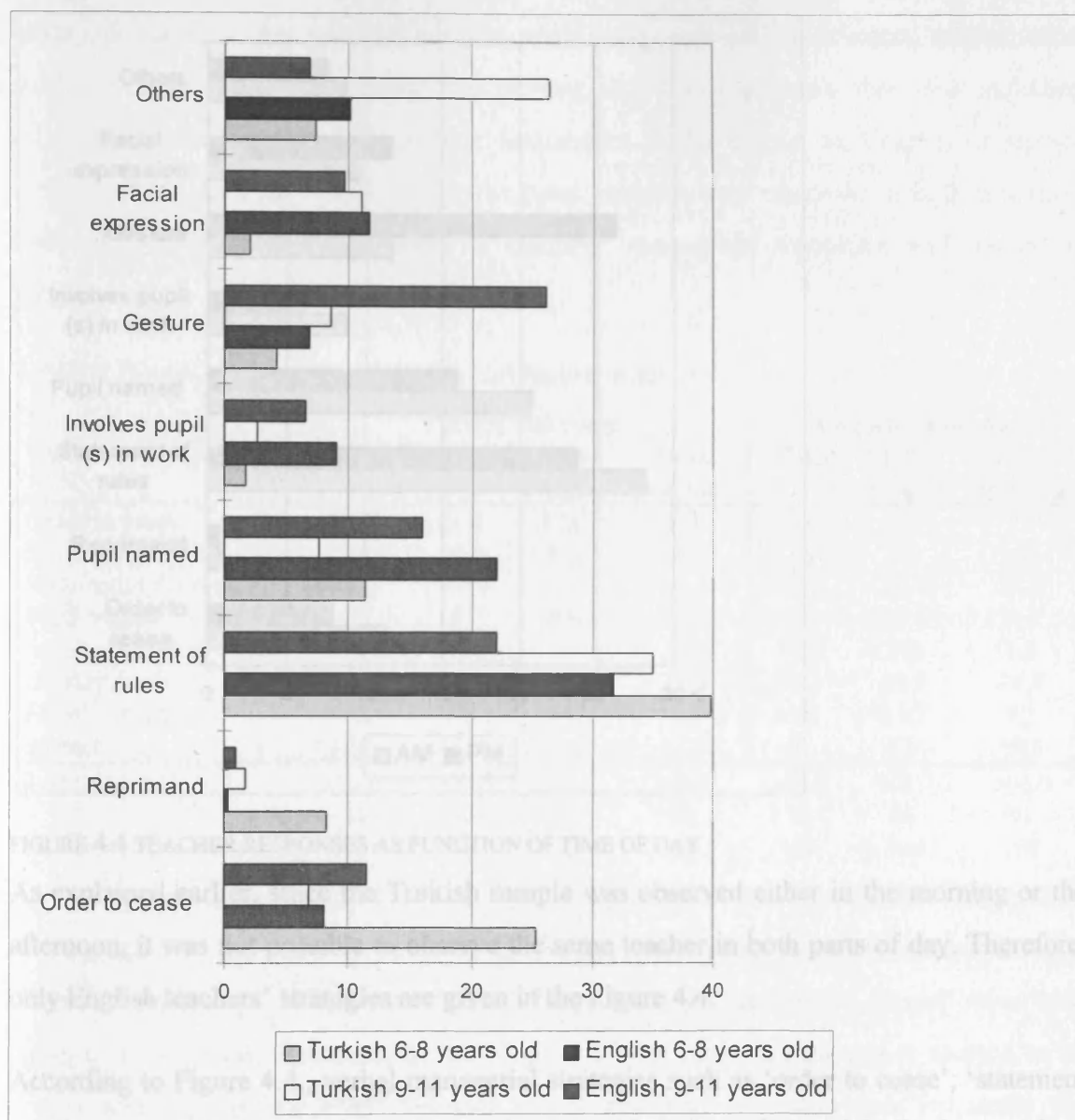
FIGURE 4.3 TEACHER RESPONSES AS A FUNCTION OF STUDENT AGE

In order to understand teachers managerial strategies in the larger context, information on matters such as time of day and the subject matter, (namely, mathematics, sciences, mother tongue (English-Turkish) and social sciences) was deemed necessary. Figure 4.4 shows the percentages of teachers' managerial strategies depending on the time of day in the English context.
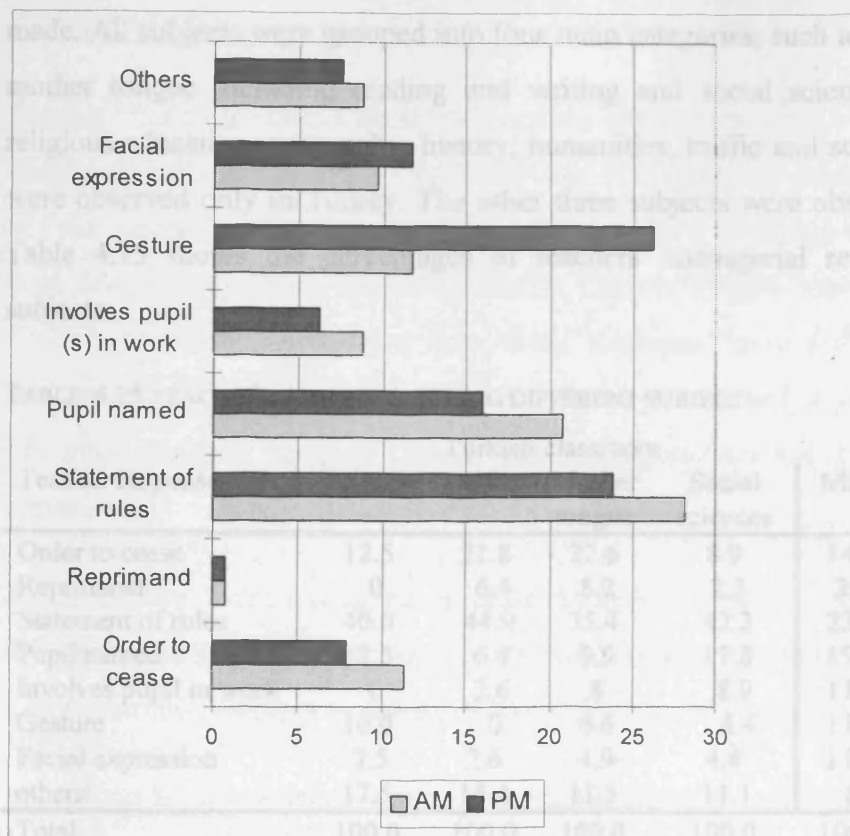
FIGURE 4.4 TEACHER RESPONSES AS FUNCTION OF TIME OF DAY

As explained earlier, since the Turkish sample was observed either in the morning or the afternoon, it was not possible to observe the same teacher in both parts of day. Therefore, only English teachers' strategies are given in the Figure 4.4.

According to Figure 4.4., verbal managerial strategies such as 'order to cease', 'statement of rules', 'pupil named' and 'involve pupils in work' were used especially in the mornings rather than the afternoons. On the other hand, non-verbal management strategies such as gesture, facial expression were used more frequently in the afternoons. This may be a result of the energy of the teachers and the pupils. Since the teachers may have tried, they may have chosen non-verbal managerial strategies rather than verbal strategies in the afternoons because they used up less energy.

Finally, it may be that the teachers' managerial strategies changed while teaching different subject matter. In order to examine whether or not there was any relationship between subject matter and teachers' managerial behaviours, several different comparisons were

129

made. All subjects were grouped into four main categories, such as sciences, mathematics, mother tongue including reading and writing and social sciences that also including religious education, geography, history, humanities, traffic and so on. Courses of science were observed only in Turkey. The other three subjects were observed in both countries. Table 4.15 shows the percentages of teachers' managerial responses with regard to subjects.

TABLE 4.15 TEACHER RESPONSES DURING DIFFERENT SUBJECT

Teacher response	Turkish classroom				English classroom		
	Science	Math	Mother tongue	Social sciences	Math	Mother tongue	Social sciences
Order to cease	12.5	21.8	22.6	8.9	14.6	8.9	7.1
Reprimand	0	6.4	8.2	2.2	2.0	.3	0
Statement of rules	40.0	44.9	35.4	42.2	23.1	29.9	24.2
Pupil named	12.5	6.4	9.9	17.8	19.1	24.3	9.6
Involves pupil in work	0	2.6	.8	8.9	11.1	7.6	4.5
Gesture	10.0	0	6.6	4.4	11.1	10.9	34.8
Facial expression	7.5	2.6	4.9	4.4	11.1	11.2	9.1
others	17.5	15.4	.11.5	11.1	8	6.9	10.6
Total	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %
Number of incidents	40	78	243	45	199	304	198

As can be seen from Table 4.15, both Turkish and English teachers used all strategies in varying amounts for different subjects. In Turkish classrooms, the common responses to misbehaviour namely 'statement of rules', 'order to cease' and 'pupil named' were used again in all subjects. However, in the English circumstances all strategies seemed to be present at a less extreme level. Although verbal strategies were used more frequently, the range was not large as much as Turkish classrooms.

Again it is difficult to draw any conclusions as to a pattern of teacher strategies based on subject matter. There were some frequency differences among subjects and these could have been caused by different teaching strategies. In the present study, research sample was not large enough to reach firm judgement on this matter.

<u>*COMMENTARY*</u>

Teachers from both countries showed certain similarities but also some differences. Both Turkish and English teachers used a majority of strategies to some extent. However, some of them stressed particular strategies more than others. Although their use of the most and least favoured strategies showed a similar pattern, English teachers differed from their Turkish counterparts in using non-verbal strategies more frequently. Unlike Turkish teachers, the English ones used such strategies as gesture and facial expression more often. The main similarity between Turkish and English teachers was that both used punishment infrequently.

When teachers were examined in order to look for patterns across groups, individual differences dominated. However, the tendency to use non-verbal managerial strategies was a more common element in the experienced teachers' repertoire.

In addition to this, teachers used more verbal strategies with the younger, 6-8 years old, pupils. Furthermore, several different subjects were also examined to look for meaningful patterns based on different subject matter. However, no evidence was forthcoming on this point. The differences among subject matter may be caused by different teaching methods, time of day or the importance of a subject in the whole curriculum and, hence, the amount of time devoted to it. To explore this matter further research is required with bigger samples.

4.4. THE OUTCOME OF STUDENT AND TEACHER INTERACTION

According to the observation schedule used in this study, the interaction had to be started by the teacher. If the teacher gave a response to the students' misbehaviour the interaction was recorded. In every case, first the teacher responses and then the student misbehaviour were recorded. Finally, the outcome of the interaction was recorded. The outcome of interaction was then examined with reference to the original student's misbehaviour and the teacher's response.

The outcome of student-teacher interaction was examined under the three categories:

• the outcome of student behaviour,

• the outcome of misbehaviour,

• the outcome of teacher behaviour.

A student's particular responses included three behaviours: 'pupil silent', 'pupil accepts teacher's action' and 'pupil altercates or protests'. Misbehaviour was recorded based on four categories: 'misbehaviour ends', 'lessens', 'sustain' or 'increases'. Finally teacher behaviour was recorded based on three possible outcomes: 'teacher is either calm', 'agitated' or 'angry'. Table 4.16 shows the outcome of student behaviour.

TABLE 4.16 THE OUTCOME OF STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

Outcome	Turkish classroom Percent	English classroom Percent
Pupil (s) silent	98.9	99.5
Pupil accept teacher's action	1.1	.5
Pupil altercates or protests	0	0
Total	100.0 % (277 incidents)	100.0 % (439 incidents)

As can be seen from Table 4.16, the majority of pupils were silent after managerial confrontation. Furthermore, in both countries none of the audience protested to the teacher as a response to the teacher's intervention.

When the misbehaviour rather than the audience was examined in Table 4.17, almost 70% of misbehaviour ended after the teacher had intervened.

TABLE 4.17 THE OUTCOME OF STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR

Outcome	Turkish classroom Percent	English classroom Percent
Misbehaviour ends	69.3	74.5
Misbehaviour lessens	20.9	20.3
Misbehaviour sustained	8.3	5.2
Misbehaviour increases	1.4	0
Total	100.0 % (277 incidents)	100.0 % (439 incidents)

Table 4.17 shows that around 90% of confrontation in classrooms of both countries finished positively in that misbehaviour either ended or lessened. In only a few cases was misbehaviour sustained after confrontation with the teacher.

When teachers' behaviour was examined, as can be seen from Table 4.18, it was found that teachers usually remained calm in the majority of interactions, although a few interactions (6% of cases) ended with teacher agitation in the Turkish classrooms.

TABLE 4.18 THE OUTCOME OF TEACHER BEHAVIOUR

Outcome	Turkish classroom Percent	English classroom Percent
Teacher is calm	92.1	99.8
Teacher is agitated	5.8	0
Teacher is angry	2.2	.2
Total	100.0 % (277 incidents)	100.0 % (439 incidents)

As can be seen from all three tables, teacher and pupils' managerial interaction usually ended with successful results in the classrooms of both countries. A majority, more than 90%, of confrontations were dealt with very quietly. Besides, almost all pupils reacted positively to teacher intervention. A majority of pupils had positive tendencies towards studious behaviour.

4.4.1. THE AUDIENCE OF STUDENT AND TEACHER INTERACTION

The audience of managerial interaction was also an important part of the classroom management schedule. Table 4.19 shows the audience of managerial interactions in both countries in this research.

TABLE 4.19 THE AUDIENCE OF MANAGERIAL INTERACTION

Audience	Turkish classroom	English classroom
Individual boy	25.2	29.2
Individual girl	6.7	8.3
Boy pair	3.2	5.2
Girl pair	1.6	1.4
Mix pair	.3	.4
Group	8.3	7.9
Boy for group	2.2	2.5
Girl for group	.6	0
Whole class	35.1	36.9
Boy for class	6.1	3.9
Girl for class	4.8	.2
Group for class	5.8	4.1
Total	100.0 % (313 incidents)	100.0 % (483 incidents)

As can be seen from Table 4.19, in one out of three cases, the audience in the interaction was the whole class. Then, the audience in most of the remaining interactions were boys from both countries. If we compare boys and girls with each other, the following ratios can be displayed:

Ratio	Turkish classroom	English classroom
Individual boy / Individual girl	25.2 / 6.7 =3.8	29.2/8.3 =3.5
Boy for class / Girl for class	6.1 / 4.8 =1.2	3.9 / .2 =20
Boy for group / Girl for group	2.2 / .6=3.6	2.5 / 0 =
Boy pair / Girl pair	3.2 / 1.6=2	5.2 / 1.4 =3.8

These ratios above show that boys took part in more of the managerial interactions than girls. It also indicates that boys attracted teacher's attention with their misbehaviour significantly more often than girls.

4.5. STUDENT TASK ENGAGEMENT OBSERVATION

After dividing all the students into several groups in the classroom, each group was observed every fourth minute. For each observation, students were recorded as either on-task or off-task.

All records belonging to each teacher were aggregated to give totals for on-task or off-task behaviour. Table 4.20 shows the off-task and on-task percentages for each teacher. This table can be examined according to teachers' experience and pupils' age.

TABLE 4.20 STUDENT TASK ENGAGEMENT

Teacher	Pupils age	Off-Task %	Number of observation
28 Year experienced Turkish teacher	9-10	3	345
19 Year experienced Turkish teacher	9-10	12	305
7-Year experienced Turkish teacher	7-8	13	401
1- Year experienced Turkish teacher	6-7	37	319
28 Year experienced English teacher	9	8	213
10 Year experienced English teacher	6-7	28	203
3 Year experienced English teacher	11	7	68
1 Year experienced English teacher	6-7	16	105
English PGCE student-1	11	13	145
English PGCE student-2	10	11	171
English PGCE student-3	8	24	113

As can be seen from Table 4.20, there were differences between the one year experienced Turkish teacher and other Turkish teachers. Both teachers' experience and pupils' age may affect the students' task engagement level. Almost all students were on-task for the majority of time in the 28 years experienced teacher's classroom.

A majority of students were on-task during observation in the English classroom in both the 3 and 28 year experienced teachers' classroom. In contrast, in 10 year experienced teacher's classroom the level off task engagement was quite low compared with others. Students' age may affect to what extent pupils concentrate on to any activities.

Although there is no clear cut pattern based on teachers' experience concerning pupils' task engagement, both Turkish and English younger pupils' task engagement seemed lower compared with older ones. However, except 1 year experienced Turkish teacher's students, the rest of the teachers' students were on-task at least more than 70% of their classroom time.

5. CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS OF INTERVIEW ANALYSIS; QUALITATIVE DATA

5.1. STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR

5.1.1. DETERMINANTS OF PUPILS' MISBEHAVIOUR,

Although poor teaching and learning strategies can often lead to managerial problems in the classroom, some types of misbehaviour are the result of external problems that pupils bring with them into the school. Students' emotional states, their home background, cultural difference, age, ability, cognitive and emotional development may lead to friction in the classroom. Students often bring with them habits from different social, economic and family cultures. To manage the teaching and learning process within this context can be difficult. How teachers attribute the causes of misbehaviour is one of the key questions in attempting to understand pupils' problem behaviour. The first stage of such an enquiry is to identify the kinds of attribution about causes of misbehaviour made by teachers and the second, to investigate how teachers describe and interpret misbehaviour. Accordingly, teachers were asked during interview how they classified misbehaviour and its determinants in their current practice, in order to find out the perceived causes of students' behavioural problems in the primary classroom.

The teachers interviewed gave two main reasons for pupil misbehaviour: problems related to pupils' home background and pupils' individual problems. The teachers' descriptions of students who appeared to cause them problems, showed certain similarities irrespective of whether the interviewee was English or Turkish. Both groups of teachers focused particularly on the family background of the pupils as a primary cause of misbehaviour. When teachers were asked how they described these pupils one of the English teachers said that:

"They are normal children. They appear to be very unhappy and the unhappiness seems to cause them to be disruptive or aggressive.... "why are they unhappy?" Home. I would say it is mostly their home background that causes them to be unhappy." (ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)*

In a similar way a Turkish teacher responded to same question by saying that

"...Student's behavioural problems are generally related to their social, economic and family structures. A pupil who is not happy at home is a more difficult student. Children of divorced parent's with alcoholic fathers usually have problems. Behaviour problems are less often seen in the students who have proper family relationships. Behaviour problems in classrooms are often caused by pupils from families with problem relationships."(TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

As can be seen from the above quotation, drunkenness was not seen as a primary cause, but the result of poor economic circumstances. Furthermore, economic problems were also reported as a major determinant of family characteristics and as such an important factor behind pupils behaviour in the classroom. On the same subject, another Turkish teacher commented that:

"...As they have economic problems, they also have problems in the home."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

According to another Turkish teacher, the social learning process within the home was also an important factor since pupils generally modelled their social behaviour on their parent's interaction style. For example:

---

* In referencing each of the quotations the codes set out in p.98 were used. Thus (ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2) refers to an English teacher (ET) No 13 in table 3.3 page 104 male, with 10 years experience at being teaching year 1 and 2 age classes.

"...When the pupil's father requests a glass of water from the child's mother, the father may use inappropriate language. This behaviour can set a role model for that pupil. Consequently, when the pupil requests a pencil from his or her friend s/he may also use the same language...."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

One English teacher made a similar point when suggesting that a pupils' behaviour is part of their everyday life rather than as a result of individual factors.

"...I would try not to label them because their behaviour is a result of that background and social part of everyday life...."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Adapting to a new classroom can also be the cause of some students' behaviour problems. Whereas the majority of pupils move from nursery to primary in the English system, in Turkey the majority of students enrol directly into primary school, without the benefit of any pre-school experience. Therefore, they are required to adapt quickly to the classroom processes that may give rise to inappropriate behaviour. As a Turkish teacher candidly admitted,

"...Pupils that enter the classroom without being socially skilled from home take a longer time to adapt. Therefore, it disrupts our system in the classroom and makes our job difficult."(TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

A Turkish teacher also expanded on the way that social aspects of everyday life varied depending on different social cultures. If pupils came from very different cultures, this might effect classroom and social interaction processes. Therefore, the presence of pupils from different cultural backgrounds can sometimes lead to friction in the classroom. This teacher further explained that:

"...As this area is multicultural, various cultures and different family origins affected pupils' adaptation into the classroom. This makes our job difficult...." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

139

In addition to a student's home background, some teachers also attribute behavioural problems to pupils' individual characteristics. Some of the teachers from both countries argued that a pupils' psychological state could determine the level of misbehaviour. One of the Turkish teachers explained that:

> "...One of my pupils seems not to pay attention in the class. He exhibits disruptive behaviour such as being distracted by irrelevant things. This behaviour disrupts his friends, and they also show inappropriate movement. However when I ask a spontaneous question, he can give a correct answer which is amazing. I call this type a hyperactive pupil." (TT-12/FM/Exp:2/Y:3)

> "There are pupils who want to receive extra attention, they do not receive from their family. As I cannot give all my attention to them, they eventually cause problems in the classroom." (TT-2/FM/Exp:1/Y:1)."

A comment from an English teacher expressed a similar view:

> "Generally the problem is between children, they tend to occur during break time activities, for example, one girl has been excluded from a group of friends. This causes her to be very distant and inaccessible, and results in her not concentrating on her work, and remaining moody. The worst thing is that you have to interrupt the lesson to deal with these social problems, that have taken place outside of the classroom...."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)

One Turkish teacher commented that although some pupils did not have specific psychological problems, they sometimes brought particular external problems into the classroom. One of the Turkish teachers reported that being the only child at home results in some behavioural problems in the classroom in the case of one of her pupils.

"I have a boy student who has got no brothers or sisters. He is clever and understands everything very well. Although he has not completed all the exercises, he learns easily and writes well. But, as he has not got any brothers or sisters, he seeks attention by pulling and pushing other pupils. Therefore, nobody wants to sit with him because of this behaviour."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

A wide age range in the classroom may also lead to certain behavioural problems, because there can be differences in pupils' cognitive development. Some teachers reported that such age differences caused behavioural problems in the classroom. In one instance a Turkish teacher reported that:

"Although the classroom age average was 9-10, there were a few pupils between the age of 13 and 14.... They tried to take something belonging to other pupils by force and beat another student and were seen by the teacher. I also had a student in another classroom who wanted to answer all my questions and did not like me asking other pupils for the answer. When I asked questions he would call out the answer immediately, and that was a problem for me." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

In a similar way an English teacher talked about:

"One particular boy from year four class who was not supposed to be in year three. Because he is disruptive, he cannot concentrate on the task. He is special needs. He wanders around the classroom. He is very aggressive towards the children. That is a problem...."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

As can be seen from all the above quotations, teachers claimed that pupils' behavioural problems were determined by two main factors. One of them was related to pupils' social and cultural background, and the other was related to pupils' personal characteristics.

Since pupils come to school with different social and cultural backgrounds and during their socialisation into the school, settling these differences may give rise to a diversity of

problems. Several teachers emphasised that a family's economic standards could lead to problems at home which in turn effected pupils' behaviour in class. A family's economic problems can affect the quality of relationships among members of that family. The way families interact with each other can also effect the pupil's socialisation process when they come to school, and behave in the way they regard as the norm. Multiculturalism was also reported to give rise to problems. If pupils came from several different ethnic and religious cultures, this could lead to a degree of friction in the classroom.

In addition to social problems, a pupil's personal characteristics were also seen as a natural cause of misbehaviour in the classroom. A pupil's cognitive and physical development was one such determinant of friction in the classroom, particularly where a classroom may contain a range of different ages. Furthermore, a pupil's psychological mood such as hyperactivity or attention seeking behaviour were also seen as likely causes of other types of misbehaviour.

Broadly speaking, most of the teachers shared a common viewpoint that key determinants of pupils' misbehaviour consisted of external factors such as pupils' home background, age range, pupils' cognitive and emotional development, and conflict due to differences in cultural norms in multicultural classrooms. Teachers did not express the view that their own behaviour and school could affect their pupils' behaviour in the classroom. Instead they attributed blame for misbehaviour mainly onto factors concerning their pupils rather than on themselves and schools. This teachers' reports that includes tendency to blame external factors may be effected by the nature of interview question since it was quite broad.

5.1.2. DEFINITIONS AND DESCRIPTIONS OF MISBEHAVIOUR

Definitions and descriptions of misbehaviour varied according to the school and classroom culture, teachers' judgement and expectations of the school and classroom behaviour policy. Although some behaviour was classified as 'misbehaviour' by certain teachers, it would not necessarily have been defined as 'misbehaviour' by others. Because of this

possibility teachers were asked to specify which behaviours they regarded as misbehaviour.

When teachers were asked to define misbehaviour in the context of their current classroom practice, they tended to emphasise two main aspects: instruction and expectation. One Turkish teacher said that misbehaviour is:

> "...Behaviour that may inhibit teaching and learning or harm other students' behaviour or disrupt them." (TT-3/ FM / Exp:19 / Y:4)

While an other said:

> "...Misbehaviour is behaviour that inhibits students who want to learn. In other words, behaviour which I do not want in my classroom."(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

In a similar manner an English teacher expressed the view that misbehaviour was:

> "Any behaviour that interrupts the flow of lessons and I have to stop and remind the children of the behavioural expectations...."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)

Any deviation from a teachers' expectations was also regarded as misbehaviour. For example a Turkish teacher suggested that:

> "Misbehaviour is when students have done something contrary to what you expect...."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

While for an English teacher misbehaviour:

> "...Depends on what I told them to do. Depending on what task I set them on to. Sometimes they are allowed to choose what they want to be doing next, so that is all right. But if they are talking about something that's not work, talking about something for the weekend, not getting on with the work. That could be misbehaviour...."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

143

However the majority of teachers choose to describe misbehaviour rather than to define it. These descriptions were grouped into two broad categories in terms of verbal and non-verbal misbehaviour.

In both cultures verbal misbehaviours were generally concerned with either speaking loudly and excessively, or using offensive behaviour in the classrooms. The Turkish teachers provide examples of excessive noise and shouting which included:

- Talking without permission, speaking loudly to pupils sitting at the back of the classroom.

- Disrupting other students sitting at the front or behind.

- Intervening to prevent peers when they were trying to speak.

- Speaking loudly.

- Speaking at the sametime as others in the classroom, when a question was directed at one particular student.

- Speaking with each other, on a subject not related to instruction and not involving the lesson.

- Showing disruptive behaviour during instruction that distracts pupils from the lesson. Especially by asking irrelevant questions.

- Speaking continuously with one's neighbour.

The English teachers' examples of excessive verbal misbehaviour included:

- Children who are loud, and distracting to other children.

- Children who shout out constantly or fidget or turn around, and communicate with other students when they should not be.

- Shouting out without being asked.

- Shouting out the answer. Even if it is relevant to the lesson. It is still very annoying.

- Chatting, not getting down to work.

- Not listening when teacher is talking

- Chatting too much, not always listening.

- Talking over the teacher.

In addition to excessive noise, there were other offensive behaviours involving forms of aggression. For example, Turkish teachers listed:

- Swearing at other students.

- Reprimanding friends.

While in a similar way English teachers said that misbehaviours could also include:

- Teasing children.

- Being rude and very aggressive towards each other.

In both countries, non-verbal misbehaviours were seen to consist of inappropriate movements, such as doing something unrelated to instruction, damaging materials and physical aggression towards friends in the classroom. Turkish teachers reported that inappropriate movements such as wandering around classroom without any purpose was the most common misbehaviour, also included were:

- leaving seats without asking so as to distract other students' attention during lessons.

- Wandering around the classroom without purpose.

145

- Standing in order to sharpen a pencil especially during a very critical and important point in the lesson to attract the attention of all students.

- Attempting to leave classroom without permission.

In a similar way English teachers complained of:

- Children breaking a pencil, or sharpening pencils and asking to go to the toilet too often.

- Lots of movement in the classroom.

In both countries it would seem that there were cases where pupils were off-task without disrupting others in the classroom. However, although they did not disrupt others, such pupils were not involved in their task as they should. In the Turkish case, signs of distraction included:

- Being busy with irrelevant activities during instruction.

- Playing with toys or other books and objects.

- Distracting a friend's attention during the lesson by being interested in irrelevant things.

The English teacher's experience of off-task behaviour included:

- Time wasting like looking for pencils, not being able to find their book, looking for a rubber to rub things out.

- Children who have not been listening, or who have not being paying attention to the instruction and not knowing what to do, later mess around. They do not know what to do.

One other common form of non-verbal misbehaviour was physical aggression towards other pupils. The Turkish teacher reported incidents involving:

- Physical aggression towards a friend such as hitting their face.

While in a similar manner, English teachers said that it involved:

- Problems with violent children shoving and pushing.

- Having to stop work to deal with an aggressive child.

- Somebody who hits or kicks.

- Delaying getting on with work and throwing things at other children.

In both countries an infrequent non-verbal misbehaviour was damaging materials in classrooms. The Turkish teachers reported that pupils

- Damaged school and classroom materials.

While English teachers reported some pupils:

- Being careless with property and school materials.

Descriptions of classroom misbehaviour, both the verbal and non-verbal, seems to be more or less similar in both countries.

In both Turkish and English classrooms the most common misbehaviour was shouting. Most of the teachers reported that speaking loudly without permission was the most frequent verbal misbehaviour. Furthermore, conversing loudly with peers sitting behind or in front was also a frequent form of disruption in Turkish classrooms. Another verbal specific misbehaviour was being rude to other peers by swearing. This was reported by teachers in both countries.

Several other kinds of non-verbal misbehaviour were also common to classrooms in both countries. The most common misbehaviour was wandering around without purpose or permission. There were no major differences in the teachers' experiences of this kind of misbehaviour in both countries. Being busy with irrelevant things was also a common

reported non-verbal misbehaviour. Although pupils exhibiting these misbehaviours did not disrupt other pupils, they did not concentrate on the teacher's instruction. Therefore, they were generally not aware of what they were supposed to be doing. Physical aggression towards other pupils and damaging materials were other types of less frequently seen misbehaviours.

It can be concluded from these findings that, although Turkish and English teachers may emphasise different aspects of similar misbehaviours, most of those reports appeared common to the classrooms of both countries.

5.1.3. VARIATIONS OF MISBEHAVIOUR DEPENDING ON GENDER, TIME OF DAY, SITTING ARRANGEMENT, ACTIVITY AND SUBJECT

In the previous chapter, based on observations, the frequency and type of misbehaviour also appeared to the dependent on various factors such as the student's gender, the time of day, different part of the lesson, the seating arrangement in the classroom, the type of learning activity and the subject matter. The teachers interviewed supported these findings.

5.1.3.1.GENDER

Although some teachers reported that misbehaviour did not vary with gender, most of them thought it was a significant factor. For example one Turkish teacher argued that:

> "Boys show more aggression than girls. But girls swear more than boys. Girls speak too much with each other rather than disrupt the class. Boys show more physical aggression."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

While an English teacher expressed the opinion that:

> "...Predominantly boys cause problems. Mostly by annoying distractions, stopping work, and having a chat. Pushing. Notice that boy being aggressive to other children again. We do not get a lot of girls pushing, they tend to rely on verbal methods...."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

148

"...The boys tend to get involved in fighting and you can get children coming in with broken teeth or crying because they have been kicked or bullied by older children. Generally, talking, gossiping, and discussing the television programmes, 'girls or boys?' they would tend to be both. They tend to talk about different programmes of course, but 1 would say both."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)

As can be seen from these quotations, teachers attribute to boys and girls different kinds of misbehaviour. Girls generally speak too much, while boys use non-verbal misbehaviour like kicking , pushing and rolling on the carpet.

5.1.3.2.TIME OF DAY

In addition to the differences in gender, the time of day was also seen as an important factor in explaining variations of misbehaviour. Most of the Turkish primary schools operated two shifts from 07.30 to 12.30 p.m. and from 13.00 p.m. to 18.30 p.m. Two different student groups attended school either in the morning or the afternoon. On the other hand, English pupils attended school for the whole day from 9.00 to 15.30. A majority of teachers mentioned that the frequency of misbehaviour depended on the time of day. In the Turkish teachers' responses, it was stated that:

> "If a school has one shift, it starts at 9 o'clock. On the other hand, it starts at 7.30 in the two shift system. Children are more interested in lessons during the morning, if school starts at 9 o'clock. If school starts at 7.30 a.m. they lack motivation especially in the first lesson...." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

> "...For example the first four hours are more productive. The last two hours are dead hours. You do something, but students pretend they are involved in the lesson. if you ask any question at the end of the lesson related to instruction, students will not answer anything...."(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

The English teachers were of the opinion that:

149

"It depends on the child. Some children will be the same throughout the day. But, most children will become more badly behaved towards the end of the day, especially after lunch. In the afternoon they can be quite difficult."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"...Around 2.30 p.m. is when you notice the worst behaviour because they are tired. They are sharper in the morning between 9 and 12. They are reasonably sharp in the afternoon when we start at 1 o'clock until 2.30 p.m...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

In addition to the time of the day, how far the time of lesson had progressed was also crucial. A majority of Turkish teachers mentioned that the frequency of misbehaviour fluctuated within the lesson. For example during the

"First minutes of the lesson children's attention seemed scattered and did not gather interest. However, during the middle of the lesson they were more attentive. Then, concentration is scattered again near the end of the lesson." (TT-3/ FM / Exp:19 / Y:4)

"When I start the lesson, I see the first five minutes as a dead time that is preparing time.... Then, 20 minutes is very satisfactory. After that, the other 15 minutes lack focus...." (TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)"

Both the time of the day and the progress of the lesson have similar characteristics. The frequency of misbehaviour increases depending on certain times of day. Most teachers from both countries reported that the frequency of misbehaviour rises at the end of the class. The last lessons of the day seem to be the low point with regard to time spent on-task. In addition to this, Turkish teachers specified that the beginning and end of 40 minute lessons were unproductive times.

5.1.3.3. SEATING ARRANGEMENT

Classroom seating arrangements were also an important issue, especially in traditional row and aisle classroom arrangements. There was a location problem in this kind of classroom. The majority of Turkish primary classrooms consisted of rows and aisles. On the other hand, there were some classrooms where pupils sat around tables, although this was preferred by only a few Turkish teacher. However, to rearrange classroom layout was difficult because two different teachers might use the same classroom in the course of a day either in the morning or the afternoon. Therefore, the majority of classrooms favoured a traditional layout. In contrast, the majority of English classrooms consisted of informal groups of children sitting around tables. Some of these arrangements were in closed classrooms and others were open plan. To compare the Turkish and English classroom layout, therefore, seems questionable because of these differences. Whenever teachers were asked about their practice, in order to explore the relationship between seating arrangement and misbehaviour, a majority of Turkish teachers felt that there was a relationship between the frequency of misbehaviour and whether a student was sitting at the front or the rear, or either the wall or window side of the classroom.

> "...Pupils who sit in the front of the classroom are quieter, as these pupils are easily in contact with me. Although I try to walk to the back of the classroom, generally my job is related to the blackboard. Pupils who sit at the front behave more quietly and calmly. In addition to this, the window side is also more quiet. In contrast, misbehaviour is much more frequently seen near the side walls." (TT-2/FM/Exp:1/Y:1)

> "...Pupils do not want to sit at the back of the classroom. We arrange the classroom based on pupils' height. However they feel cut off from the front and what is going on at the blackboard. They want to be in front. When they sit in the rear they start to speak with friends or move to the front. Students who prefer to sit at the window side want to look outside...." (TT-3/FM/Exp:19/Y:4)

151

"...Students who sit at the back of the classroom have less interest in the lesson. It is a serious problem in a crowded classroom. It affects how I teach. If a teacher's voice does not reach the back of the classroom, their interest wanders completely." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

One of the Turkish teachers argued that the traditional classroom has its own special language that determines pupils' self perception based on where they sit in the classroom.

"Students who sit by the window are interested in what is going on outside, because they can see outside. If they are bored in the classroom, they can look outside. Students who sit by the side wall are assumed to be lazy and those who sit by the window are successful, well organised and tidy students. If a student who has not got any behaviour problems sits by the side wall, they start to produce them. They feel that they have been put there for an ulterior motive. Even if they choose that seat, they feel a kind of stigma. This is caused by one of the old practices of teacher's labelling one row the successful row and another as a lazy row...." (TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

Furthermore, the movement of the teacher also affects the frequency of misbehaviour.

"...Let's say I am on the move in the classroom. I feel that when I approach a student, the behaviour of the pupil changes depending on their distance to me."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

On the other hand, English teachers mentioned different issues because of their different classroom arrangement. Some of the English primary classrooms were open plan. This could increase the frequency of misbehaviour.

"If I take them into the library which is an open plan space we also use it for drama or discussions and sometimes children think you take them into the open plan space so they can run and mess around. You have to control them wherever they sit." (ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

However, one of the English teachers said that there was no relationship between the seating arrangement and the frequency of misbehaviour.

"...The same children misbehave whether they sit at the rear or the front.... Like 'X' sitting beside me or sitting on the carpet. If he is on the carpet I can see what he is doing. If he is at his table sometimes he is good sometimes he is messing about. If they want to do their work, they get on. If they want to mess about, it does not matter where they sit. So I just keep him beside me. Or sit him on the carpet. They do not mess about on their own. They mess about with other pupils. So if they are on their own on the carpet they do not mess about. They just get on with it even if they do not like it."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

Although seating arrangements especially sitting location does not appear to be regarded as a major problem by English teachers, it has crucial effects in the Turkish classroom. As these are generally arranged as rows and aisle, where pupils sit affects the pupils' behaviour.

5.1.3.4.TYPE OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES and SUBJECT MATTER

The type of learning activities taking place may also cause misbehaviour in the classroom. There were some similarities between teachers from both countries. English teachers reported that:

"...There are certain activities where I allow talking in the lesson. Last week when it was drama, obviously by nature it was quite a loud activity. And sometimes some people get carried away with the high noise levels...."(ET-16/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

In a similar manner Turkish teachers stated that:

"...This is happening when there is a discussion about something.... They interrupt even if I do not permit to talk...." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"...Misbehaviour is not seen during writing practice when they need to concentrate. It is seen when communication and verbal interaction occurs in the classroom. In these circumstances pupils need to express themselves.... This type of behaviour occurs under these circumstances or during question-answers sessions of the class...."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

Teachers in both countries reported that practical activities lead to more misbehaviour.

Turkish teachers responded that:

"It can be seen during practical lessons. Especially during physical education and art lessons."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

While English teachers commented that:

"...We were doing art and craft the other day. They could be for instance be making a real mess playing around, throwing things, being untidy like messing around with the equipment."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"...In general terms if the activity what ever the subject is practical, which might involve getting up, moving around, finding and sharing a limited amount of equipment, that is probably when their behaviour gets worse. Sometimes certain children are not very good at sharing and they want to keep things to themselves. So I would say that it is more difficult to deal with, when they get involved in a practical activity."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

On the other hand, one of English teachers claimed that during such activity, pupils do not show any misbehaviour.

"If they are doing an activity, they are busy. They do not misbehave. They have to come in and sit on the carpet, and wait for me to mark the work or wait for everybody to sit on the carpet. Then, they misbehave or mess about when they come in the morning or after lunch... not during the activities. They do not mess about during working time."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

In addition to these activities, some English teachers mentioned that working in groups may cause misbehaviour.

"...So one of the problems, of course, with group work is keeping noise at a reasonable working level. When it becomes too high, children start to disagree with each other or disagree with who is going to write the information down on the piece of paper...."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)

Curriculum subjects were also regarded as an important indicator of frequency of misbehaviour. Most of the teachers mentioned that certain subjects could lead to a greater amount of misbehaviour. Subjects would be grouped under the 5 headings; mathematics, science, humanities and Turkish or English. The fifth heading included music and physical education or colouring.

Most of the teachers reported that music, physical education, and art classes were a common source of misbehaviour. For example a Turkish teacher reported that:

"...Misbehaviour is seen more when I leave them free in a particular lesson such as colouring, music or physical education. After mathematics and Turkish, they get bored. As a result they think music, PE, and colouring are the lessons in which they can relax and rest."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

Similarly an English teacher stated that:

"...I suppose I would have to say that perhaps it is hardest during physical education 'PE' on the whole. If I set different tasks for different groups in PE, quite often children are noisy and disruptive."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

Only Turkish teachers mentioned that teaching methods of reading Turkish can lead to misbehaviour on occasion. One teacher commented that:

> "...When a second year pupil reads a text to the whole class, s/he can not read it properly because of the level and cannot sustain other pupils' concentration which results in conversations among themselves...."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

Again, only Turkish teachers reported problems with humanities. They claimed that social subjects could lead to misbehaviour because of it's teaching methods.

> "Negative behaviours are seen especially in verbal lessons. When I prolong the class time in order to summarise the subject, I see students' interest wandering." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

In addition to humanities lessons, mathematics lessons were also only reported as problematic by the Turkish teachers. Teaching and learning methods and difficulties of curriculum activities may lead to misbehaviour. Two of the teachers reported that:

> "...If a student does not understand the mathematics because s/he is below a certain standard, they will not show any interest. Because of this s/he will concentrate on something else that attracts his or her attention...." (TT-3/FM/Exp:19/Y:4)

> "...Lots of movement is seen during mathematics class in order to solve problems as soon as possible...."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

On the other hand, one Turkish teacher suggested that as mathematics included more practical activities, students generally were kept busy solving mathematics problems.

> "...Students seem to like to show an interest in numerical lessons. However, this is not because they like maths, but, because they know their work will be checked."(TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

Very few teachers commented on science lessons. There were differences between Turkish and English teachers about frequency of misbehaviour in science lessons. For example one of the English teachers reported that:

> "...When they go to fetch something to use in the lesson, whether it is a magnifying glass in science, or putting soil in to their plant pots to grow runner beans, they are not very good at waiting for their turn, and they are not very good at sharing things and that is where incidence of misbehaviour can occur. So it is during more practical activities that they misbehave...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

In contrast, a Turkish teacher commented that:

> "...Generally some of students are interested in verbal lessons whereas others may be interested in numerical lessons such as mathematics and science. However, if any experiment is done during the science lesson, misbehaviour is seen very rarely. When I did an experiment and gave some relevant examples the amount of misbehaviour decreased."(TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

5.2. TEACHER'S BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

As mentioned in chapter 2, teachers' behaviour management can be examined under two main headings: preventive and reactive behaviour management strategies (Anderson, 1991; Emmer, 1994). According to these categories, interview transcripts relating to teachers' classroom management strategies were also analysed under two subsections: teachers' preventive and reactive behaviour management strategies.

5.2.1. TEACHER'S PREVENTIVE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES.

Jones and Jones (1998) mention that effective teachers can be distinguished from less effective teachers by the way they use anticipative, preventive and proactive managerial strategies rather than intervening, following misbehaviour. In order to prevent misbehaviour before it escalates, what teachers do at the beginning of the school year in order to develop a consensus with regard to expected behaviour in the classroom, appears to be crucial. At the beginning of the term and during the rest of the year, establishing classroom rules and expected norms of behaviour are important dimensions of effective proactive classroom behaviour management strategies. In addition to this, teachers must also have a particular strategy involving anticipative behaviour or finding the origin of the misbehaviour, and pacing curriculum activities. All of these were examined under the headings of teachers' preventive behaviour management strategies.

5.2.1.1. THE BEGINNING OF THE TERM

Unlike Turkish teachers, English teachers emphasised the importance of the beginning of each term. They explained the expected student behaviour usually at the beginning of the term.

> "...In the beginning of every term we usually go over the rules and remind them of the accepted behaviour. And constantly good behaviour is exhibited...."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"At the beginning, we set up an agreement of what is right behaviour and what is wrong.... we agree on what we should be doing, what we should not be doing at the beginning. So they know what we should be doing."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

The beginning of term is accepted as a crucial time to teach the desired behaviour. As can be seen, this is how teachers start the year and they regard these efforts as important in determining the success of behaviour management during the rest of the year.

5.2.1.2.CLASSROOM RULES

Classroom rules are also part of the teaching and learning processes. They are vital in order to manage the classroom smoothly. Teachers of both countries appear to operate quite similar style of rules in the classroom. For example, some of the Turkish teachers reported that:

"These are the rules I expect from my students. In terms of when they enter the classroom 'they should not speak among themselves', 'they should prepare the materials that are required for that particular class', 'they should not speak without asking permission' and 'they should not swear and fight with each other...." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

"...They should not wander around in the classroom, they should not speak among themselves, and they should not give their attention to irrelevant things...."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"...Students should enter and leave the classroom without pushing and pulling other students. When students enter the classroom, they must prepare their materials before instructions...."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

"...When another student speaks, listening to them without shouting. Keeping the classroom clean, looking after class materials, behaving respectfully to other students, and sharing classroom materials with others...."(TT-12/FM/Exp:2/Y:3)

Meanwhile English teachers commented that:

"We have a set of rules in the classroom. At the beginning of the year, I discuss with children what was not helpful for education. So we have various rules, such as 'moving around the classroom is a bad thing', 'shouting out is a bad thing', 'hitting, touching, annoying other children is also a bad thing'. These rules may seem negative but we do have a positive way of saying them. One must also ask permission to walk around in the classroom, they must also listen carefully to adults, and look after things carefully because they are often very careless with property and school materials...."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"...They must look after the books. They must look after toys, materials, pencils, and tidy up every day.... They must get on with their work quietly...."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

"You do not talk while I am talking, you stop work and listen to what I am saying. Also, they must sit back in their chairs, and not leave without permission...."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

"...Assertive discipline policy. That is the school rule."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

After describing their classroom rules, teachers were also asked about their methods of teaching these rules. One Turkish teacher stated that:

"I teach by way of explaining, and implementing rules."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

"...Rules are not taught by the way of explaining, I teach when it is required...."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"...I explained what I expected. After that I told them to obey these expectations....(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

In a similar manner two of the English teachers reported that:

"We discussed rules. What the rules were for, as in a game of soccer. And than we all got together and wrote down our own rules, we would like to see in the classroom. Then we spoke about all the rules children came up with. We decided which ones were appropriate for us in this room. And then we wrote them out and all agreed to keep these distinctive rules and we published the rules and put them on the classroom wall. They are all there to see and be reminded of constantly."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"That is already done in the school. At assembly, what the head teacher does in the assembly, we also follow through in the classroom. We talk about it everyday. As it is the whole school policy. We follow it through all the classes."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

Classroom rules have two sides: one for teachers and one for students. Teachers were asked whether classroom rules affected their behaviour.

English teachers said that:

"It makes the job easier if you have got rules. Especially if they obey them, it makes our job easier."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)."

"...To a certain extent they make my life a lot easier. Because I do not have to repeat myself. Children know the expectations and they can learn to a great extent."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)

161

"Yes it affects teaching style completely. They dominate teaching style as assertive discipline..."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

"No, Not really."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)."

In a similar manner two Turkish teachers responded that:

"Rules facilitate my job. If I do not set rules, I cannot do my job."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"Well, it also affects me. If the rules are implemented properly, I do my job better, and I am pleased after the lesson. At the same time, I also have to obey these rules with students. I also have to share the same thing."(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

As can be seen from these quotations, there are similarities between Turkish and English teachers with regard to setting similar rules. All of them, more or less, emphasise how pupils should speak, behave and walk in the room. Although Turkish and English teachers seem to teach classroom rules discussing them with pupils in the classroom, one of the English teachers emphasised the role of assembly in the setting of rules as a distinct characteristic of the English primary school.

5.2.1.3.TEACHING EXPECTED BEHAVIOUR

Teaching expected and correct behaviour in the classroom was assumed to help in maintaining a high level of task engagement in the classroom. When teachers were asked how they taught expected correct behaviour to their students, they gave various answers. Some of the Turkish teachers particularly emphasised a social learning approach, in terms of modelling on other well behaved pupils' behaviour.

"I teach expected behaviour through speaking and showing examples. For example, if any pupils demonstrate positive behaviour, I present that pupil to the whole class and hold them up as a model by telling their friends of their very good behaviour. Then, I make the rest of the class show their appreciation to that student." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

Some of the teachers said that they preferred negotiation with pupils about expected behaviour.

For example an English teacher reported that:

"By telling them that they are wasting their own time. And they are losing out on something they enjoy.... You have to threaten gently. Just a gentle threat."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"We try to make everything fair, they share everything. We always talk about sharing. We talk about doing our best. That's part of our school policy. We just tell them to be kind, and look after each other.... So lots of positive talking and reward as well as reminding them what is right and wrong."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

In a similar manner, a Turkish teacher stated that:

"I try to explain to the student what they should not do, and what is best for them is the expected behaviour." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

Thus, both Turkish and English teachers stressed the importance of teaching students how to behave in the classroom by negotiating with the pupils based on logical explanations about the purpose of the desired behaviour.

5.2.1.4.ANTICIPATIVE BEHAVIOUR

Anticipating misbehaviour before it occurs is one of the important characteristics of an effective classroom manager. Therefore, teachers were asked whether or not they tried to

anticipate misbehaviour. The responses of the majority of teachers from both countries are given in table 5.1

TABLE 5.1 TURKISH TEACHERS' ANTICIPATIVE BEHAVIOUR

EXPERI ENCE	TEACHERS' RESPONSES
28	It is obvious. (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4).
23	I may not anticipate the event, but I can estimate what each student will be able to do. (TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1).
19	Yes. (TT-3/FM/Exp:19/Y:4).
19	Well it is difficult to anticipate misbehaviour before it occurs. However, as I know what each student is likely to do, I warn these students who may show any misbehaviour. (TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2).
12	I can not tell, I anticipate too often. However, I anticipate sometimes. I can not say I anticipate every misbehaviour. But generally I try to anticipate during lessons. (TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3).
7	In my opinion, it is not possible. Therefore I don't take precautions. (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2).
6	Sometimes, but it is not frequent. (TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1).
5	Sometimes I understand. For example, I perceive a particular student may do something, obviously, I isolate that student. On the other hand, sometimes I do not understood or I do not realise. (TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3).
4	Yes I try to anticipate misbehaviour. (TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4).
2	Obviously all teachers anticipate misbehaviour. If a teacher knows his or her students very well, s/he guesses what particular student will be able to do. (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3).
2	Well sometimes. (TT-12/FM/Exp:2/Y:3).
1	If they are known students, I can anticipate misbehaviour. However, I do not take precautions. (TT-2/FM/Exp:1/Y:1)

TABLE 5.2 ENGLISH TEACHERS' ANTICIPATIVE BEHAVIOUR

EXPER IENCE	TEACHERS' RESPONSES
28	...I try to anticipate trouble....(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4).
10	Yes in the morning, I look at the children and I know if the lesson will be difficult and you can tell from their faces if you are going to have a good or bad day.... (ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2).
3	Yes. very much so.(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6).
1	Yes I know which children can't work together. So I do not let them work together. (ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2).
0	Yes. As a teacher I have to plan activities to minimise the disruptions, having a small group doing something more challenging. (ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5).
0	Yes. So you have to anticipate the behaviours because you do not want to waste your time in the classroom. Providing them with extra work. (ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4).
0	Yes. I think you know the students' characters and you can not put certain students together to work....(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3).

Some of the experienced Turkish teachers reported that they could anticipate misbehaviour. However, some of them emphasised that they tended to estimate what particular students could do rather than anticipating possible misbehaviour. On the other hand, some of the inexperienced Turkish teachers stated that they can anticipate misbehaviour sometimes. Unlike Turkish teachers, the majority of the English teachers all agreed that they could anticipate misbehaviour and take preventive action such as letting pupils work together or setting more collaborative work.

5.2.1.5.OTHER COMMON PREVENTIVE STRATEGIES

When teachers were asked how they prevented misbehaviour, they emphasised several strategies such as increasing the pace of the lesson or varying the content to make it more

interesting, investigating the origin of unacceptable behaviour or being careful to exhibit acceptable behaviour themselves, so that it serves as a model for the student.

One of the most common preventive strategies used by teachers in both countries was to increase the pace of curriculum activity. Two Turkish teachers reported that:

> "If students are not busy with the curriculum activities, they obviously may think of some inappropriate things. Therefore, I try to do something they enjoy and keep them busy with the task in order to keep them occupied."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

> "I try to attract their interest. I try to do different things in order to attract their interest. For example, I try to enrich the learning environment during the lesson."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

One of the English teachers emphasised that:

> "...Keep the lesson interesting, keep the children focused on what they are doing...."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

Teachers thought that their own behaviour was a model of behaviour for pupils. Therefore, they paid extra attention to their own behaviour.

English teachers for example explained that:

> "I try to stick to the rules myself. I try be polite and pleasant to them, and also we talk and discuss these rules...." (ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

> "I think mostly children behave well when they take as their example the way teachers behave. If their teacher behaves in a particular way at a particular time it is noted by the children...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

One Turkish teacher responded similarly by saying that:

166

"In my opinion, my behaviour, especially, must be a model for the student. I try to behave as a model. I pay attention to my speech and words. For example I try to not use slang words. I try to use proper sentences. If there is any paper on the ground, I pick it up and put it into the basket. If I permit any student to speak, I listen to him or her until s/he finish...."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

Another Turkish teacher said that he tried to investigate the origins of misbehaviour in order to prevent misbehaviour.

"I try to understand the origin of misbehaviour. For example, if a pupil suffers from personal problems, such as economic or psychological dissatisfaction, I try to get rid of this problem, so s/he can be successful as a result." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

Unlike the Turkish teachers, the importance of nursery experience was again commented upon English teachers. Two of them also mentioned the effects of school policy.

"Most of the children come here from nursery. They know what we expect as a school.... They usually came from the nursery so if they have got problems they usually sort them out in nursery before they get into school. They learn respect, and to do what the teacher tells them. Because we have got the nursery, they come to us already sorted out, so it is good."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

"Basically, as I said, we have them throughout the school from reception to year six, and the assertive discipline policy begins in reception where the policy is explained and constantly enforced. So children at this level should be very aware of what is expected of them. All the teachers across the age range try to keep up a consistency throughout the year. I think regular discussions about rules and why they are in place probably helps to gain positive reinforcement. Children are doing what they are supposed to be doing following the assertive discipline process."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Several preventive strategies such as stressing learning activities, taking care of their own behaviour and seeking the origins of the misbehaviour, were used effectively by both Turkish and English teachers. Unlike Turkish teachers, English teachers also emphasised the importance of nursery school in order to learn acceptable school behaviour and prevent misbehaviour at primary school.

5.2.2. TEACHERS' REACTIVE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Reactive behaviour management strategies involves active intervention in misbehaviour rather than preventing it. Various strategies were used by both Turkish and English teachers. In order to understand how teachers handled student misbehaviour, teachers in both countries were asked what methods they used. Their answers are summarised in Table 5.3

TABLE 5.3 TEACHER MANAGERIAL STRATEGIES.

EXPERIENCE	MANAGERIAL STRATEGIES
10-30 year experienced Turkish teacher	Verbal warning, facial expression, talking with pupils, discussing with pupils, talking with parents, keep naughty children busy through giving some routine work, giving advise, discussing and asking questions about what s/he was doing, and encouraging different activities away from current misbehaviour.
10-30 year experienced English teacher	Eye contact, using their name, calling their name, reminding them what they are doing, order to cease, or stop lesson, asking questions about why they are doing it, calling out, changing pupil's seat to another part of the classroom, sending students to the head teacher.
5-7 year experienced Turkish teacher	Discussing and talking about misbehaviour, if misbehaviour is very serious hitting his hand with ruler or keeping students away from what children enjoy more, talking with parents, telling head teacher.
1-4 year experienced Turkish teacher	Shouting out, asking questions about why they misbehaved, reprimanding, eye contact, touching student's shoulder, warning, if it is very serious, smacking very rarely, sometimes reprimanding, ridicule, stopping lesson and discussing misbehaviour.
1-3 year experienced English teacher	Stop misbehaviour straightaway, calling him or her to teacher, reminding what teacher expects, keep pupils busy with learning activities.
English PGCE student teachers	Encourage them to focus on expectation, talking with pupils about misbehaviour, reseating the child, moving pupils outside of the classroom in order to settle them down, stop pupils, sending to head teacher, stop the class, reminding them of the rules.

Table 5.3 confirms that there are slight difference between teachers, based on experience, with regards to using reactive managerial strategies. Experienced Turkish and English teachers with 10 and 30 year experience reported using quite similar strategies such as facial expression, asking questions, discussing and keeping pupils busy with learning activities. However, Turkish teachers with from 1 to 4 and from 5 to 7 years experience differed not only from their English equivalents but also PGCE student teachers. These Turkish teachers emphasised punishment as a strategy when dealing with serious misbehaviour, unlike both their counterparts.

If experienced and less experienced teachers are compared, there are several differences in the use of non-verbal managerial strategies, and also of solving managerial problems in a positive way, such as the use of question-answer techniques and discussion with pupils.

5.2.2.1.CONFRONTING STUDENTS' MISBEHAVIOUR

After clarifying a variety of teacher's reactive management strategies, some frequent misbehaviours that were used during the systematic observation in this research were used as probes during interview. Teacher's were asked to list their current behaviour management strategies in dealing with the three most frequent misbehaviours in the Turkish classroom (noisy or illicit talking '51.4%', inappropriate movement '27.1%' and interrupting another pupil '9.3%') and in English classrooms (noisy or illicit talking '48.5%', inappropriate movement '27%' and inappropriate use of materials '10.1%').

When teachers were asked 'what was their typical response when a student in their classroom was 'excessively noisy', a majority of teachers said that they warned such pupils and reminded them of what they were doing. In addition to this, some of them had particular strategies. For example three of the English teachers said that:

> "I use their name, and what I will say depends on the child. Some children annoy all the time so I get much firmer. Some children just do it occasionally so they just need to be reminded...."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

170

"Usual response depends on the child and there are things I would use on one child, but I would not with another. Sometimes I would make a joke of it and they can carry on. Sometimes I would just question it, and say you have been noisy, come on sit down and get on with work...."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

"To ask them to be quiet. If they are noisy again I would probably go over to them, and talk to them one to one. If they are noisy again I pull them out. I ask them to see me at end of the lesson."(ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

In a very open way, a Turkish teacher responded by saying,

"It depends on my psychological state at that moment. If I was angry, I shout out to the student. In contrast, if I was feeling alright, I would try to listen to the student...." (TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1).

"I get angry. It also depends on the importance of the subject. For example if student was noisy in art subjects, I might tolerate it. On the other hand, if it was a very important subject such as Turkish, mathematics, humanities and understanding was very difficult, I might shout out...."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

Some of the Turkish teachers emphasised that their psychological mood and the importance of subject matter is an important factor in determining their strategy. On the other hand, some of the English teachers stressed using various techniques on different pupils.

In addition to this, teachers were asked what their typical reactions would be when students were 'engaged in illicit talking'. Most of the teachers claimed that they did not permit students to engage in illicit talking during instruction. Nevertheless, some did use particular strategies.

"If a student speaks illicitly, as I am wandering around the classroom, I go and touch that student very quietly in order to not to disturb other students' concentration. I do not call the student's name. I touch very quietly. After that a student may understand and stop speaking." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"If there are two students that are speaking illicitly, I warn them through eye contact, facial expression, gesture or touching without making it noticable to other students...(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

These Turkish teachers' main aim was to avoid what Kounin (1970) termed the 'ripple effect' that is having confrontation with one student then, setting off a chain of disruption through the rest of the class. In contrast to these Turkish teachers' comments, English teachers, although, also attempting to deal with the problem without distracting other nearby students emphasise the value of humour.

"...Very swiftly I tell them not to do it, and really that is all I say, because at this age they know what doing wrong is.... I might say 'eeeeeee' and he knows what I am talking about.... I do find that sense of humour is important. If you can laugh with it and even make children laugh at me, it helps produce good behaviour, so I try to do it in a humorous way.... If it does not work and my humour has not had the desired effect and the child is still illicitly talking, then I do get angry, I get cross and I feel annoyed and I feel let down by the child...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"It depends. If they are working well and just have a quick chat and they are working fine. You allow it. If it is stopping them and disrupting them, you remind them what they should be doing. And ask them to go back to their work. If it carries on, you have to use further sanctions. They need reminding first."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

Teachers were also asked about strategies when dealing with the other common verbal misbehaviour, interrupting another pupil. Most teachers said that they told pupils to stop it

and warned them not to interrupt others. Some of them, however, mentioned specific strategies. For example, three of the Turkish teachers commented that:

"If s/he disrupts too much, I warn them and tell them not do it again. If s/he continues, I change their seats."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"I get very angry. If it is required, I send pupil outside the classroom...."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

"During the lesson I do not do anything. After the lesson, I speak to both students that caused the disruption...."(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

While English teachers reported that:

"If they are stopping someone working, I tend to get quite cross with them. Because they are distracting another child. And they should not do that, so I ask them not to do it. Please do not talk to them they are working really hard. And you should let them work hard. That is usually what I say."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"...Just remind them what they are doing really. By that one I mean usually looking at them and reminding them."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

"...Physically move them...."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

Interruption, therefore, was regarded as very serious misbehaviour by both English and Turkish teachers: some teachers were not prepared to tolerate it under any circumstances.

The findings of the observation study used in this research demonstrated that in both countries, the second most common misbehaviour was inappropriate movement in the classroom. Teachers were asked how they reacted when any student engaged in inappropriate movement during instruction. Some teachers said that they discussed such misbehaviour with pupils and reminded them what they were doing but other teachers introduced particular strategies. For example, some of the English teachers said that:

"Sometimes if I am feeling in a good mood and if the lesson is generally going well, I will be a bit mocking and try to use humour. Sarcasm works when children know you like them. Sarcasm is an appropriate formal punishment to certain children as long as they know that you like them. These kids know that I like them. My whole body language says that I like them...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"I remind them of the rules....Because they do wander around and chat with friends...."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"...Just stop and bring them to sit on the carpet...."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

Turkish teachers responded that:

"I remind them of classroom rules again. I want them to remember these rules." (TT-3/FM/Exp:19/Y:4)

"I do not permit this kind of behaviour. I immediately warn them when they wander. I tell them to sit in their chair." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

"As they are first grade (6-7 years old) students, I do not want to embarrass them. As they sit 5 hours in a chair, they are easily bored. If it happens without disrupting my lesson, they can wander. They can take their pencil or eraser from their friend. If they wander without any aim related to lesson, I warn them and also I get angry."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

Inappropriate movement is, therefore, not always regarded as serious misbehaviour by Turkish and English teachers. In most cases reminding pupils the rules was thought to be sufficient to deal with this problem.

Although not common in the Turkish classroom, in English classrooms the third most common misbehaviour was inappropriate use of materials. This was described by systematic observation in this research. Some of the teachers claimed that in such cases

they explained the genuine purpose of the materials that were being used inappropriately. Some teachers mentioned particular strategies. In the case of Turkish teachers:

> "Generally, this behaviour is not seen. One of our biggest problems is lack of classroom materials. I wish we had lots of materials so that we could use them...." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

> "We focus on the economic dimension of it. I tell them how to use materials. I remind them of our aims related to that lesson's materials...."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

> "...If it occurs several times consciously, I send them to the headteacher."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

The English teachers said that:

> "Depending on what they are working on. If it is a science experiment where there is potential danger, then it will be stopped. Everyone stops, everyone listens and you can explain why you have to do these things. And, why they must be careful. And you explain the dangers."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

> "Take them off the item."(ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

> "I think it depends on what they are doing. If I have been clear in my explanation about how I want the child to use a particular material I think I would them re-explain to them...."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Using classroom materials inappropriately is accepted as quite serious misbehaviour by teachers of both countries. One of the English teachers stressed careful use of materials in science lessons in particular, as some of the materials might be dangerous.

5.2.2.2. PUNISHMENTS

One of the teachers' most common behaviour management strategies involved using punishment despite the fact that it has sometimes been given a bad name. Teachers were asked whether or not they use punishments for the study in order to identify cultural differences in their use.

Some of Turkish teachers said that:

> "...If we do physical education, students who had misbehaved once are not allowed into PE. This is an example of a sanction. If they enjoy a particular activity we punish them by not letting them take part...." (TT-3/ FM / Exp:19 / Y:4)

> "I give them extra work as a punishment...."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

> "...Sanctions are changed depend on the type of misbehaviour. Sometimes I tell them in front of their friends what they did was shameful and not appropriate. Sometimes I reprimand them. If s/he was warned, but she did it again, I beat them."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

Meanwhile English teachers stated that:

> "...If they misbehave they miss play time."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

> "....Well I have never done that. I find the sanction of telling them off in class is usually enough. As well as do not do that again...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

> "...If somebody does something they write a letter to say they are sorry to another child or he misses lunch break. Usually missing play time or doing some extra jobs. Saying sorry, or writing a letter...."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)"

"...Because the school follows on assertive discipline policy, the original instruction is first repeated to the child to make sure s/he understood. Then, the child would be placed in quiet work area, and if that does not work, they get a warning, and after a certain amount of warning they get a one minute 'time out'. And after that five minute 'time out'. But if they persist, and if behaviour continues over a long period of time the parents generally are brought in to talk to the child with the teacher concerning the behaviour...."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Some teachers reported that punishments were not a very common occurrence in the classrooms of both countries. Only loss of privileges was commonly used. However, one of the Turkish teachers reported that if pupils persistently showed misbehaviour, then physical punishment might be used. Furthermore, one of the English teachers emphasised the role of a whole school policy in the choosing of technique to solve confrontations.

5.2.2.3. WHOLE SCHOOL POLICY

Although none of the Turkish teachers mentioned school policy as a method of behaviour management, the majority of the English teachers said that their school had a behaviour management policy that was followed by all teachers.

For example an English teacher reported that:

"...That is already done in the school. At assembly, what head teacher does in the assembly we follow through in the classroom.... We talk about it everyday. So it is whole school policy, that we follow through all the classes." (ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

"...Where the school has a positive behaviour discipline policy it was clearly written on the board. They go to another classroom and see the head teacher. They would get points or stars or sweets or treats or whole class treats as well as individual treats...."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"...They have an assertive discipline policy...." (ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"Basically as I said the school from reception to year six has an assertive discipline policy so it all begins in reception where the policy is explained and the rules are constantly inforced...."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Most of the English teachers stated the role of school wide behaviour policy. As school wide behaviour policy is implemented from infant school to primary school in most primary schools, it effects the whole management strategies of teachers.

5.2.2.4.PROGRESS IN MANAGEMENT QUALIFICATION

When teachers were asked whether or not they had changed their behaviour management methods since they began teaching, almost all of them said that they had changed, using more positive methods during the year. For example two English teachers commented that:

"....It is not a great change. I think mostly what changed is, as I said, the question and answer. In my early years perhaps, when I was not confident because I was young, I would tick children off.... Whereas in my early years I would say shut up and get on with the work and stop talking...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"Yes when I first started teaching, I was very much into making very simple statements, like you should, you should not do this. But now, I tend to negotiate a lot more talk with the children and try to find reasons why.... But I certainly feel much better teaching now than I did ten years ago." (ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

Similarly Turkish teachers gave the following answers:

"Well it changed, but changed positively. I used to be very angry. I lacked tolerance. On the other hand, now I behave more quiet and flexible to student."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"I can say that it always changed very positively. I became less angry as a teacher. I tried to communicate with children. I listen too much them. I give too much permission to speak."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

"...Last year was my first year. Frankly, I used to shout very loudly, and I left the classroom at least twice crying.... I try to not to shout this year. As I already get angry, I am more comfortable dealing with students....."(TT-12/FM/Exp:2/Y:3)

Both English and Turkish teachers reported that their management strategies were evolving and becoming more positive as they gained experiences.

The first week of school is seen an important component for setting classroom rules and procedures. Teachers were asked were there any differences between first week of school and the rest of time at the student behaviour? Most of them claimed that there were positive improvements during term time.

Turkish teachers said that:

"During the first week they were very relaxed, as they came from holiday and they were in the first grade. They felt very free. There was lots of noise, but now I have classroom that I expected." (TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

"When I looked at end of the year, they were better since they had become more used to it." (TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

"Their behaviour changed in a positive way. I get lots of benefits as I reminded them several times."(TT-12/FM/Exp:2/Y:3)

In a similar manner English teachers reported that:

"Well of course when the class is new to you in the first few weeks, they are frighteningly well behaved because they do not know what you are like. So the first three weeks they are terrifically well behaved.... They always seem scared in the first three weeks. Once they get to know that you are not really horrible, they are more comfortable. That creates a better learning environment frankly. Hopefully after so many weeks you have not got that atmosphere. You come to a happy medium where you have a comfortable atmosphere of the right to talk at right time and the right work at the right time. This process comes particularly in the first half of the term."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

Both English and Turkish teachers stated that the frequency of misbehaviour decreases through the whole year based on whether or not classroom rules are initiated at the beginning of the year.

5.2.2.5.TEACHERS' GOALS ABOUT DISCIPLINE

What a teacher's perspectives about discipline are and what their behavioural goals are helps to explain what they expect from pupils with regard to discipline and behaviour. It was hypothesised that there may be some differences between different cultures, introspectively this was in this case, Turkish teachers commented that:

"I want pupils to grow as a person to respect others, participative, in other words be involved in lessons, democratic and respecting each other's ideas, and caring about others...."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

"I am against too much discipline. You can not carry out too much discipline. Discipline can only be based on love and respect. I try to provide discipline based on love and respect rather than physical aggression...."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"I want disciplined children. I want adult behaviour from pupils who know very well how to behave, speak and be involved in lessons rather than their own simple behaviour. I want pupils who know how to get permission to speak gently."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

In a similar manner English teachers reported that:

"I would hope when they leave my class and go to a new teacher I would like that new teacher to come to me after a week and say what lovely kids you gave me.... If that happens then I think I have done good job...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"Politeness, consideration of others and good manners."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"I do not want strict classrooms in the world...."(ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"...Goals basically for instructions. My goals are to follow assertive discipline policy to keep it consistently."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Certain teachers in both countries reported that they did not want a strict classroom. Both of them emphasised respect and politeness. One Turkish teacher claimed that she expected pupils to behave as adults and not according to their age.

In addition to seeking information on the goals of discipline, teachers' points of view about ideal student behaviour was also asked. The responses did not appear to be differentiated according to culture. For example English teachers said that:

"Lively, I do not like very quite children because I think something is wrong if they are very quite. Too quite is a problem. Lively, humorous, polite, cheerful, caring and thoughtful."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"Ideal student behaviour would be responsive, responsible to their work other people and me, and keen and eager to learn. I do not mind a little bit of talking."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

"Someone who is not afraid to ask questions and does not feel intimated by the teacher. Interact well with other children. Follows instructions closely and who has a sense of humour, in a situation so it is not all serious."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

Turkish teachers reported that:

"In my opinion, ideal students are those who study their lessons... As a short cut, I want students who implement teacher's rules." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

"...First of all children are children. They are not expected to show adult behaviour. The ideal student is respectful, hard working and expresses what s/he thinks." (TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

"...If behaviour is taken into account, I want students who do not swear, are not aggressive, and are full of love."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

"An ideal student is one who asks questions whether he knows or he does not know, speaks about expected subjects, and who involves in the lessons actively...."(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

"...In my opinion, an ideal student is one who obeys preestablished rules. I do not believe that these rules should be very strict. My rules are flexible, and it is possible to ignore them in specific circumstance...." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

Thus, although Turkish teachers come from a Muslim background with idea of strong transmission model and English from a Christian one, their expectation of pupils were very similar. They expected students to be polite, involved in the instruction and eager to learn.

5.3. TEACHERS' CLASSROOM SETTING STRATEGIES

5.3.1. DESCRIPTION OF CLASSROOM LAYOUT

Classroom setting is one of the most important components of effective teaching. Most of the teachers arranged their classroom based on how they teach. There were some major differences between Turkish and English primary school classroom arrangements. Turkish teachers were only concerned with the organisation of the seating because none of the classrooms had the kind of equipment and all resources typically found in English classrooms. Table 5.3 summarises the information that was given by the majority of teachers and about how they can arrange student's seats in the classroom.

TABLE 5.4 TURKISH PUPILS' SEATING ARRANGEMENT.

Experi ence	Teacher responses
28	"Group based on achievement level." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)
23	"Row and aisle style."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)
19	"Sitting in group that is arranged based on interest to curriculum activities.(TT-3/FM/Exp:19/Y:4)
19	"Row and aisle style. Student seat changed each month based on curriculum unit."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)
12	"Row and aisle style."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)
7	"Row and aisle style based on pupil's achievement level." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)
6	"Row and aisle style."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)
5	"Row and aisle style, but sometime group working."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)
4	"Row and aisle style."(TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)
2	"Row and aisle style." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)
2	"Row and aisle style."(TT-12/FM/Exp:2/Y:3)
1	"Row and aisle style. " (TT-2/FM/Exp:1/Y:1)

TABLE 5.5 ENGLISH PUPILS' SEATING ARRANGEMENT.

Experience	Teacher responses
28	"Sit in groups based on friendship. "(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)
10	"Sit in groups."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)
3	"Sometime sit in groups sometime sit in traditional row and aisle style table and chair."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)
0	"Open plan classroom, sit in group around table."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)
0	"Open plan classroom, sit in group around table. In particular subject "student were sit based on ability of students."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)
0	"Open plan classroom. Sit in group."(ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)
0	"Open plan classroom, sit in group based on ability."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

As can be seen from table 5.4 the majority of the Turkish classrooms were set in a row and aisle arrangement. Very few classrooms were based on sitting around tables, in contrast to almost all of the English classrooms. Both Turkish and English teachers arranged classroom seating based on friendship, ability or mix-ability. Some of the teachers provided further explanations about their classroom layout. For example several Turkish teachers reported that:

"I rank row into three columns. I placed pupils based on their ability. I categorised children into three ability groups. Therefore, I think I will control and evaluate them very well. I can leave more time to low ability students and I can see all of them very easily." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

"Generally, we categorised student based on ability. As you can see there are 6 groups. Students were grouped into three group such as high, average and low ability. Sometimes students can be changed between groups in a particular subjects.... Students who is average in mathematics can not be average in Turkish...." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

In contrast English teachers reported that:

"Well basically the children are in groups of four tables and they sit in friendship groups rather than ability groups...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"...In a big group day with a big groups like a traditional sitting on the row, but on a smaller group days probably 6 maximum 8 put in a table."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

In arranging students' seats, teachers focused on a variety of factors such as pupils ability, friendship, interest, physical characteristics. Turkish teachers, especially, gave various explanations for their method. Most of them focused on the physical characteristics and achievement of the pupils.

"After dividing students into groups, each student was ranked again based on their height in order to see the front of the classroom. Then I grouped students again based on ability in terms of successful and unsuccessful groups...." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

"...I grouped pupils based on their ability level in different subjects such as high, average and low. ...If student is low in mathematics and high in Turkish, I group students who are good at Turkish into one group and others into different group because each subject such as mathematics, Turkish and humanities have unique teaching styles...."(TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

In contrast to these teachers, others did not classify pupils as high, average and low ability groups.

"I grouped students who had similar heights. For example tall students sit at the back of the classroom. Besides I arranged students by mix ability group. I grouped both high and low ability student into one group as a mix ability...."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

185

"...I do not group students as they may feel that they are segregated. I do not group them as high, average and low ability. On the other hand, during instruction I take into account difference of ability of student. I divide blackboard into two parts and I give two kinds of problem such as difficult and less difficult examples in order to consider ability difference of pupils."(TT-10/M/Exp:12/Y:3)

Furthermore some teachers emphasised pupils' behaviour and interest rather than ability and physical characteristics of pupils.

"...Pupil's friendship, interest and ability level effects their seating arrangement. Sometime I change their seat, if they show naughty behaviour."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"...Their behaviour effects seating arrangement. For example I sit students who misbehave at the front of the classroom as much as possible. I try to group successful students into one group...."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

There are two shifts in the majority of Turkish primary schools one being in the morning and the other in the afternoon. Therefore, each teacher's classroom organisation effects the other. Because of this it is not always possible to change the classroom according to individual preferences. When the morning group leaves the classroom at lunch, the afternoon group will enter the same classroom almost immediately.

"As we serve a two shift education, either morning or afternoon groups and the number of students also effect the classroom layout. Because of the other shift, you can not change everything because they will use the same classroom...." (TT-9/M/Exp:4/Y:4)

On the other hand, English classrooms show markedly different characteristics than the Turkish ones. Although a majority of the English classrooms were not arrange as traditional row and aisle, some teachers arranged groups based on either ability or friendships. Most of the teachers claimed that they arranged pupils based on their ability.

186

"...I like them in small groups. I like them generally in mixed ability groups because when we put them in ability groups the low ability ones have behaviour problems."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"The ability of children related to the task they are doing. So for English maths and science class they will be sitting in different groups."(ET-18/M/PGCE-Std./Y:4)

"Ability, and who works well with who. You can have two great children next to each other, and they will not like each other. There is no point siting them next to each other, as they will not do any work. Ability first, then friendship."(ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

In contrast to this, both of these teachers emphasised friendship of pupils.

"I think the biggest factor is friendship. So I personally do not look much beyond that...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

Both English and Turkish teachers reported more or less a similar characteristic with regards to seating arrangements. Sitting in mix ability or ability groups, and friendship groups are common strategies. However, one common problem in Turkish classrooms is sitting based on height of the pupils in row and aisle classrooms.

5.3.2. THE FREQUENCY OF CHANGING CLASSROOM LAYOUT

When teachers were asked how often they changed their classroom arrangements, they reported a variety of information. Particularly display and seating arrangement were changed in both Turkish and English classrooms. Because most Turkish teachers arranged student seats based on ability, they changed their seating arrangements frequently.

"...They always sit in the row. After evaluating their classroom performance, sometimes particular students may be moved into either high ability or low ability groups. This change is done every 20 days or each month." (TT-1/M/Exp:7/Y:2)

187

"I change their seats for each curriculum topic. I change their seat at the end of each topic. I do not change anything except seating arrangements. Sometimes they may choose to seat with their friends except those that behave inappropriately...."(TT-6/FM/Exp:19/Y:2)

In addition to this, the classroom display was also changed frequently and depended on curriculum activities. In one Turkish classroom:

"...When the curriculum topic finished, displays related to curriculum topics were changed in order to exhibit new work...." (TT-4/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

Some of the English teachers reported a similar approach to display.

"It depends on the work that I am doing. It is very flexible."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"We change books every week. We change displays every few weeks and depends on what we are doing. The rest of it changes probably every term. We move the reading box and finish work marks. But no big change is involved. We change books every week in the library."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

5.3.3. CLASSROOM LAYOUT and TEACHING STYLE

Broadly speaking, teachers usually changed classrooms to adapt to their teaching style. For example, if curriculum activities involve co-operative learning, teachers rearranged students' seats. For instance, students would sit around tables rather than in rows. Furthermore, there was also a relationship between classroom layout, teacher and student behaviour, and the frequency of misbehaviour.

Most of the Turkish classrooms were very crowded with 40 or more students. Turkish teachers said that a traditional classroom layout was suitable for crowded classrooms. On the other hand there are some disadvantages for pupils.

"There were concepts of seating of the front and back. It is not possible to get rid of this matter. Of course some of them will sit in the front and others will sit in back. In my opinion students who sit in the front of the classroom are more attentive to lessons and they are involved lessons more than others." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

"I placed students who speak too much very close to myself in order to control them....(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

"Seating arrangements affect teaching sometimes negatively sometimes positively. The size of the classroom also affects too much. If teachers explained subjects, student had to turn to teacher's side in order to listen to the teacher. When students get uncomfortable, s/he tries to move frequently. Because of this noise levels in the class go up. Therefore, this causes lessons to be distracted as a result of my warning."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

English teachers said that open plan schools have the same disadvantages effecting the teaching process.

"...Because it is open plan, we have got the other teacher right next to you. So I do less whole class teaching than I would like. Because it is difficult to get them together. And talk to them when they all spread out. When you have got other teachers teaching, I would do problems together to get them on the carpet not often. Well if it was a closed classroom you can stop everyone from working easily. So it does effect how much whole class teaching I would do."(ET-17/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

"Because it is such a big classroom and it is so open it is quite hard I have to make sure that I am heard and I have to make sure that children can hear my instructions so I have to concentrate my voice. And, then I can walk around mark the work and see who is doing what."(ET-19/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:5)

When teachers were asked how they adjusted their classroom in order to suit their teaching, Turkish teachers emphasised curriculum topics and ability of pupils.

"It is based on curriculum topics that we teach."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

"...If they work freely, I permit them to make groups with chairs. If they will study individually, I have them sit alone."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

"I change pupils depending on their interests. For example, I take low ability students from the front of the classroom. If student's success increase, I placed him or her at the back of the classroom. Sometimes I change their seat because of their conflict."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

Furthermore, some English teachers also emphasised subject and pupils comfort in the classroom.

"...The most important thing in the layout is that the child is comfortable. There are not too many children together in any one area of the class, and they can hear me well, and see me well, see my teaching aids well...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"You do it in the beginning and see what works, but if it does not work you change it around... It is just making it fit around what you have got. Some children have to work beside you. It can not be moved. You just do your best with it. It is all right. It works."(ET-15/FM/Exp:1/Y:1-2)

While the main concern of Turkish teachers was to place pupils in an appropriate position so that they were not distracted by other pupils or by looking out the window. English teachers had other concerns. For example one of the problem was whether or not noise levels disrupt other teachers in the same open plan classrooms.

5.3.4. CLASSROOM LAYOUT and STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

Because the Turkish classroom is based on a row and aisle arrangement it has certain effects on pupils behaviour.

> "...If pupils sit very close to teachers, it is possible to get rid of and decrease their misbehaviour. I may not see and control students' misbehaviour who sit in the back of the classroom...." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

> "Students behaviour is affected very negatively especially in group work. Students who sit very closely around the table may behave very relaxed and be easily distracted since they think that teacher can not see them. If we take into account row and aisle style seating arrangement, as chair are very neat students take more attention. Because they have eye and ear contact with teacher. They seem to be more attentive and interested."(TT-8/FM/Exp:5/Y:3)

Teachers focused not only on physical characteristics of classrooms but also the number of students in the classroom and their friendships.

> "Pupils are affected by where they sit, namely front, rear, sides and middle of the classroom, and with whom they sit with regard to their friends they do not like. For example they seem very happy when they sit with their friends. They also paid more attention. If they sit with student they do not like, they seem offended...."(TT-11/FM/Exp:23/Y:1)

On the other hand, English teachers also reflected their different kinds of problems related to their classroom culture.

"...If you ask children to sit behind to you, they won't respond so well because their backs are to you. So the way you put the classroom together will help or hinder you. If you put barriers up in a book corner for example they can hide behind it. Some children will hide behind them and they mess around. If you have tables facing the front they tend to be better behaved...."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"...Nowadays in primary schools teachers do not sit behind the desk. Because desks provide a barrier between you and the children. So we are not allowed to sit behind the desk as supposed I am to circulate around different groups. Forty years ago they had rows and anybody misbehaved and moved from the back to front. But nevertheless even now you still have that feeling that some how badly behaved children should come to the front. In my mind it is there and kids do mind. So I suppose generally well behaved child does not matter where they sit. As I told you before, that friendship groups are also important...."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

"Effects depending on who they sit with rather than where they sit. If they are with certain pupil they do not get on with or get on too well with, it will effect students' overall behaviour."(ET-16/M/Exp:3/Y:6)

We have already seen that, despite differences in culture, teachers overall perspectives on the goals of behaviour did not differ appreciably. However, this may not be true the way in which teachers choose to cope with the misbehaviour and this misbehaviour may in turn be related to a particular classroom layout. This issue is explained in the next section. For example Turkish teachers said that:

"Since students sit in a row and aisle, back to back, generally they result in boredom. As they listen to me from a long distance, students who sit at the back of the classroom may not be heard by me. Because they can not get eye contact with me, they establish friendships with his/her friends rather than concentrate on the lesson and that leads to misbehaviours."(TT-7/FM/Exp:6/Y:1)

"Since the classroom is crowded, it affects the system negatively. For example if they sit in three student in the same chair, it may cause disruption during writing." (TT-5/M/Exp:2/Y:3)

"...If students can not see because his/her height is small, s/he stands in order to see the blackboard." (TT-3/FM/Exp:19/Y:4)

On the other hand, English teachers reflected again that different kinds of problems were related to their own types of classrooms.

"As I just said allowing children to hide behind things can cause problems. Allowing them to sit on the sides anywhere will causes problems whether it is behind the display or just around the corner. They always need to be visible. You need to have a lots of separate areas to separate children because you need to separate individuals from each other. Because they can cause each other all sorts of problems. In this class three or four children do not work together at all. Because they lead to trouble. Having groups of tables they can go to work in separate groups really does help."(ET-13/M/Exp:10/Y:1-2)

"...When children sit all together in this quite small space in the quite room, it can cause friction. Because they are all so close. Tables does help. Because they have everything on the table so they do not need to go to tables to take things, but occasionally that happens. Also it is very difficult to walk around the classroom because tables are in such tight space so it is very difficult to circulate. Because it is open plan it is very noisy. You can not really differentiate who is making a noise."(ET-20/FM/PGCE-Std./Y:3)

In addition to this, one of them emphasised who sits with who rather than where s/he sits.

"...Sometime you can get one child that nobody likes, and nobody can relate to. May be that child can not relate to them.... That child is perhaps not very good at working in a group or may be they have no practice which can cause a lot of problems."(ET-14/M/Exp:28/Y:4)

Turkish teachers reported that when pupils sit very close to each other, they easily get distracted. Furthermore, if they sit in a row and aisle classroom, in a particular location, such as at the front or rear and sides this can have effects on pupils' behaviour and self esteem. On the other hand, English teachers imply that who pupils sit with is more important than where pupils sit, as English classrooms do not indicate a location problem.

Since the layout of the classroom and teaching style were differentiated in classrooms of both countries, they emphasised different points related to seating arrangement, student misbehaviour and the effects of classroom layout on teachers' and pupils' behaviour. First although, the majority of Turkish classrooms were based on row and aisle arrangement in contrast to English table arrangements, both groups of teachers took pupils ability and friendship into account during seating arrangement. Apart from this Turkish teachers also emphasised the height of pupils, since tall students may block the view of shorter students. On the other hand, the relationship between curriculum activities and classroom layout were not emphasised particularly there was less agreement in whether each curriculum activity might or might not require and arrangement based on either ability or friendship.

Several teachers also emphasised the effect of classroom layout on teacher and student behaviour. For example, since row and aisle classrooms lead to location problems such as front, rear and sides, it affected the type and frequency of teacher and student interactions. Furthermore, the open plan classroom also leads to different kinds of problems such as concern for the rights of the others teaching in the same base area.

6. CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present study was, as explained in chapter one, to examine classroom management in the Turkish and English primary school classroom context. Two components of general classroom management problems: classroom behaviour management and classroom setting, focusing mainly on seating arrangements, were studied using structured classroom observation and semi-structured in-depth interview techniques. This chapter includes discussion of the findings of the interview and observation results. The research results are compared with the findings of the literature related to classroom behaviour management and classroom setting. In addition to this Turkish and English data were also compared with each other.

At the beginning of the study (chapter 1), a general description and dimensions of the study were given. Then, in the methodology chapter the following objectives of the study were posed. The study aimed to:

1. Define and describe student misbehaviour in the primary classroom.

- Determine causes of student misbehaviour.

- Identify misbehaviour based on pupils' gender and age, time of day and lesson, learning activity, subject matter and seating location.

2. Describe how teachers deal with student misbehaviour.

- Describe teachers' preventive behaviour management strategies.

- Describe teachers' reactive behaviour management strategies.

- Describe teachers perspectives on goals of discipline and ideal student behaviour.

- Identify the place of the whole school policy in the teachers' behaviour management strategies.

196

3. Describe classroom setting considering seating arrangement and its basis in the Turkish and English classroom,

- Identify the effects of classroom layout on student and teacher behaviour during the lesson.

4. Compare Turkish and English teachers' behaviour management strategies, students' misbehaviour and classroom setting.

According to the objectives given above, all data will be discussed under several headings considering the comparison of Turkish and English teachers' cultural differences: students' misbehaviour in the primary school classroom, primary school teachers' behaviour management strategies and primary school teachers classroom setting strategies.

6.2.   STUDENTS' MISBEHAVIOUR IN THE PRIMARY CLASSROOM

DEFINITION OF MISBEHAVIOUR

In the literature, in chapter 2, a number of researchers have defined misbehaviour, highlighting effects of it on ongoing instruction (Burden, 1995; Lawrence and Steed, 1984; Pary-Jones and Gay, 1980; Doyle, 1986). As can be seen from teachers' reports, chapter 5, there was a high level of agreement between the interview findings and the literature. The main characteristic of interviewee reports was the importance of instruction. Most teachers claimed that any behaviour that inhibited initiation of instruction could be classified as misbehaviour. Since learning is a core expectation of classroom processes, behaviour that threatens this process can be defined as misbehaviour. In addition to this, a few teachers highlighted their expectation from pupils in the classroom, which justified whether or not any behaviour was misbehaviour. Although teachers' expectations could be seen as personal, they were generally related to task expectation from pupils.

When Turkish and English teachers were compared in order to identify cultural differences in the definition of misbehaviour in the classroom, as can be seen from chapter-5, there were similarities rather than differences between teachers of both countries. Both regarded instruction and learning as central to the classroom process in order to define deviant

behaviour. Although there are cultural differences with regards to the education system and classroom process between Turkish and English teachers, both highlighted similar points with regard to the definition of misbehaviour. These similarities made interesting findings in the context of different classroom processes.

TYPES OF MISBEHAVIOUR

Types of misbehaviour that occur in the primary school classroom have been investigated by a number of researchers. As discussed in the second chapter noisy or illicit talking, inappropriate movement and inappropriate use of materials (Wragg, 1993), and talking out of turn, hindering other pupils, making unnecessary noise and getting out of a seat without permission (DES, 1989) were stated as common misbehaviours in the primary school classroom.

The frequency of these misbehaviours as recorded in the literature was also confirmed by the present research results. It was found that the most common problem in the primary school classroom was noise, shouting out and talking without permission. This kind of misbehaviour was reported by both Turkish and English interviewees. Turkish teachers reported that frequent misbehaviours in the classroom were talking without permission, disrupting other pupils, leaving seats and wandering around without purpose. Similarly, English interviewees also reported that the most common two misbehaviours were shouting out and inappropriate movement. These results were also confirmed by the structured classroom observation. More than 75% of all misbehaviours comprised noisy or illicit talking (shouting out) and inappropriate movement and were observed in classrooms of both countries.

As can be seen from both the literature and the present research results, the majority of misbehaviours were mild. It appeared that teachers were kept more busy with mild misbehaviour rather than severe misbehaviour. Serious misbehaviours such as insulting other pupils, insulting the teacher, defiance of the teacher, physical aggression towards other pupils, taking something without permission and illicit eating and drinking were seen very rarely in either Turkish or English classrooms.

One of the essential differences between Turkish and English classroom was inappropriate use of materials. Although it was only recorded on 1,7% of occasions in the Turkish classroom, it was observed in 10,1% of the cases in the English classroom. It is assumed that the lack of learning materials accounts for the rare occurrence of this type of misbehaviour in Turkish classrooms.

The research findings of the study indicated that one of the most frequent misbehaviours in both the Turkish and English classroom was shouting out. Although it may not be regarded as severe misbehaviour, it was a serious cause of concern as teachers needed to spend considerable amounts of their time dealing with this problem. As Turkish classrooms were quite crowded, to engage all pupils in learning activities was quite a difficult task. Most Turkish students were supposed to sit at the same desk with one or two students for a 40 minutes lesson. To engage pupils in lessons for 40 minutes, in this kind of traditional classroom, was almost impossible. It was a particular problem at younger ages for example from 6 to 8. In this situation, students generally talked too much, interrupting each other, leaving their seats and wandering around without a purpose.

In contrast, the open plan classroom was perhaps one of the major problems in the English primary school, since several groups of students shared the same area. One of the other problems was the seating arrangement. Although English pupils sat around tables in a group, generally they did not do seatwork as group. This condition seemed perfect for pupils to disrupt each other and start to chat. This arrangement also encouraged pupils to wander around if they finished the assigned task before other pupils. Although, therefore, the misbehaviours were similar in both countries, there were different reasons for their occurrence, chiefly due to differences in classroom organisation and teaching style.

In the literature it was found that pupils' gender and age affected the frequency and type of misbehaviour (Wragg, 1993; Wheldall and Merrett, 1988; Borg and Falzon, 1990). These effects were also confirmed by the present research. There was also an agreement between interviewees with regard to a description of misbehaviour based on gender. In addition to this, the structured observation result showed that boys were more of an audience for managerial interaction than girls in the classrooms of both countries. When the whole of

individual boy/girl, boy/girl for class, boy/girl pair and boy/girl for group percentages were summed up boys were an audience of managerial interaction 2.6 times more than girls in the Turkish classroom and 4.1 times more than girls in the English classroom. Boys were not only differentiated from girls as showing a different type of misbehaviour but also in the frequency of their engagement in managerial confrontation with the teacher. Several factors such as role model, personality and physical characteristics of pupils tended to show different kinds of misbehaviour in the classroom with regard to gender.

It was also found that the frequency of some misbehaviours' changed according to pupils' age. There is a dilemma about frequency of these misbehaviours based on pupils' age. The difference between 6-8 and 9-11 year old pupils may be caused by cognitive development of pupils. When pupils grow, their misbehaviour changes from non-verbal misbehaviour to verbal misbehaviour. There are obvious contradictions between noisy or illicit talking and inappropriate movement based on the age of pupils as explained in chapter 4.

One of the other determinants of misbehaviour is time of day. It has been found that there is quite a difference in the percentage of misbehaviour with regard to time of day (Wragg, 1993). The same relationship was also confirmed by the current research results. According to observation results, the percentages of misbehaviour increased from morning to afternoon in the English classroom. This could be caused by pupils' being tired after spending the whole morning engaged in learning activities. Furthermore, misbehaviour in the afternoon could also be caused by subject matter as subjects such as music, physical education and colouring were generally taught afternoon.

The interview results confirmed that the final hours of the day seemed to be dead time with regard to learning. It could also be due to the fact that pupils' biological development and concentration could not support being busy for a long time in a pre-established schedule. This could lead to a reallocation of time of curriculum matter based on its difficulty.

This was an interesting finding in the context of the classroom as it highlighted the extent to which pupils' learning was affected by the time of day. Pupils' engagement on off-task behaviour increased in the afternoon in contrast to the morning.

CAUSES OF MISBEHAVIOUR

In the literature, several researchers highlighted socio-economic problems, financial difficulties, family relationships and personal problems as a cause of misbehaviour in the classroom (Gray and Richer, 1988; Maxwell, 1987; Lewin and Nolan, 1996; Açikgöz, 1996). Fewer researchers emphasised teachers' characteristics such as personality, teaching style and planning as being a cause and claimed that some pupils were more disruptive with some teachers' lessons than with others' (Gray and Richer, 1988; Colin, 1985).

Most of the causes of misbehaviour were also confirmed by present research results. As presented in chapter-5, the family was seen as a major source of problem behaviour by both English and Turkish teachers.

There was an agreement between the literature and interview results with regard to causes of misbehaviour. Home was accepted as one of the common distinguishing characteristics of disruptive students. Although open to question, teachers in both cultures attributed the causes of misbehaviour mainly to pupils' home background rather than to themselves and school. In addition to this, the economic standard of families was seen as one of the determinants of the problem family relationship. Teachers claimed that if a family had an economic problem, it might affect the relationship among family members which would influence pupils' classroom behaviour. Although the lack of poverty may result in problems at home in Turkey, divorce was most likely to affect the family relationship in England. For English teachers the circumstances facing single parents were thought to lead to problem behaviour rather than lack of economic resources per se.

Some teachers also reported that pupils' particular personal characteristics, such as being hyperactive, attention-seeking, moody and older than the rest of the class caused behavioural problems in the classroom. The interview findings highlighted the importance of pupils' mood difference that could result in disruption. Most of the pupils came to the classroom with a diversity of personal characteristics from normal to abnormal. If teachers did not take into account these characteristics, they could meet various difficulties during

instruction. One of the solutions to this problem is to have a better understanding of each pupils' psychological needs.

Having a different age range of pupils in the same classroom was also reported as a cause of misbehaviour. Having a different age of pupils, because of either s/he is disruptive or very engaged to task, also can be problem. In the primary school, age difference also leads to great differences in physical development and cognitive development compared with those that take place at secondary or upper level. Therefore, the existence of older pupils in the primary classroom can be a crucial problem even though they may not abuse classroom rules.

INSTRUCTION AND MISBEHAVIOUR

In the literature, two dimensions explicitly related to instruction and misbehaviour were highlighted: firstly whether or not the difficulties of learning activities were suitable for pupils' cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978; Levin and Nolan, 1996; Kyriacou, 1986); secondly, whether or not learning activities were perceived by pupils as exciting, interesting and challenging (Fontana, 1994; Charlton and David, 1993; Wheldall and Merrett, 1989; Merrett and Wheldall, 1990).

Most of the interviewees from both countries emphasised learning activities as a cause of misbehaviour. The research findings related to instruction and misbehaviour were quite complicated. First of all, the difficulty of learning activities was an important issue for particular subjects, such as mathematics and science. If pupils did not understand an activity, they could easily distracted by irrelevant things. The second issue was whether or not pupils were interested in the activity. This was related to whether pupils understood the teacher's expectation with regard to doing the activity. If they did not understand, misbehaviour could result particularly during practical activities.

Teachers of both countries also claimed that some subject matter also facilitated the emergence of misbehaviour. Music, physical education and art lessons were accepted as the worst lessons with regard to the frequency of misbehaviour.

There was agreement between Turkish and English teachers about these three subjects: music, art and physical education. They were common subjects that were, in general, initiated after the core subjects such as science, mathematics, Turkish/English and humanities. Pupils perhaps felt that they were able to relax after the more formal lessons. In addition to this, teacher toleration was also greater in these three subjects than in the core subjects. These effects could facilitate the emergence of misbehaviour.

There were also differences between Turkish and English teachers' points of view with regard to science lessons. This difference could have been caused by a lack of practical activities in the Turkish classroom. Since instruction was initiated based on whole class teaching in the Turkish classroom, lack of practical activity could have excited pupils and attracted their interest. If a science lesson were taught using a chalkboard rather than experiments, opportunity for misbehaviour might occur less frequently than in English classrooms, since pupils would not be sharing and using equipment .

As there were differences in the layout of Turkish and English classrooms and in teachers' teaching style, the percentage of a particular misbehaviour varied. For example, in Turkey, in mathematics lessons noisy or illicit talking was greater than in English classrooms. However, in England, inappropriate use of materials and inappropriate movement was more frequent than in Turkish classrooms. As few such practical activities took place in Turkish classrooms, inappropriate use of materials was rarely seen.

It was interesting to find clear differences in social lessons or humanities between English and Turkish classrooms. Traditional classroom layout and mostly teacher initiated whole class teaching style were the main source of these differences. Most of the Turkish teachers, generally, taught subjects to the whole class. They coordinated initiation of the activities using the chalkboard with question and answer methods. Because of this, the pupils' role was to take notes and listen to the teacher carefully rather than being busy with seatwork. Apart from this, English teachers spent little time on whole class teaching. After teaching each activity for a short time they moved on to seatwork. Because of this the, emergence of misbehaviour was more likely to take place in English classrooms than Turkish ones.

6.3. TEACHERS'BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

TEACHER'S PREVENTIVE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

In the literature, a number of researchers highlighted that the successful classroom manager was successful, because s/he prevented misbehaviour before it arose (Kounin, 1970; Brophy and Evertson, 1976; Brophy, 1983). There was a high level of agreement between the interview findings and the literature.

As can be seen from Table 5.1 when teachers were asked whether or not they could anticipate misbehaviour, unlike less experienced Turkish teachers, experienced Turkish teachers reported positively. However, this contrast did not occur in the English classroom, since less experienced teachers took courses related to classroom management in the initial teacher training program. In fact, experienced teachers reported that "Yes I try to anticipate trouble; yes very much so; yes". Experienced teachers responded quickly to disruption. They attempted to anticipate trouble.

The difference in opinion regarding anticipation of misbehaviour could be due to experience. Teachers were able to anticipate possible situations based on reflective teaching experience. However, these special techniques could in part be taught in the initial teacher training course. PGCE student teachers' positive reports could be accepted as evidence of the initial teacher training course's attention to classroom management.

In addition to anticipation, teachers also reported how they prevented misbehaviour. A number of strategies were proposed by teachers on how to prevent misbehaviour, such as pacing the curriculum and being a model to pupils. One strategy, frequently used by both Turkish and English teachers, was pacing curriculum activities. As discussed in chapter 5, teachers from both countries paced curriculum activities in order to prevent misbehaviour. The importance of pacing the curriculum was that it encouraged students to be involved in instruction. Making pupils aware of what they were doing could also reduce disruption. Instead of reminding pupils of their inappropriate behaviour, involving them in instruction also avoided problematic confrontation and interaction with other pupils.

Teacher behaviours were also common models for pupils in order to present them with examples of expected behaviour. Teachers from both countries reported that their own behaviour was model behaviour for pupils. Therefore, they paid more attention to their behaviour in order to present a good model. Teachers tried to behave in a particular way in order to legitimate the expected behaviour and classroom rules as a precaution against misbehaviour.

The structured observation gave quite complicated results with regard to teachers' preventive strategies. Approximately 7% of all teacher responses were preventive. As can be seen from Table 4.10, generally less experienced teachers used preventive strategies more than experienced teachers. This appeared to be a conflict with the literature. This may be due to the fact that experienced teachers already had set rules and expected behaviour and they paid attention to concrete misbehaviour rather than preventing possible misbehaviour before it emerged.

Two dimensions, the beginning of the term and classroom rules, were considered in the second chapter to be important factors in preventing misbehaviour. Their importance was also confirmed by the interview results.

THE BEGINNING OF TERM

There was a general agreement in the literature that the beginning of a term has a great effect on the rest of the year with regard to the prevention of misbehaviour (Emmer, Evertson and Anderson, 1980; Emmer and Evertson,1981; Evertson, 1989). There was a high level of agreement between the interview findings and the literature. The beginning of term was important, as teachers set a general agreement about classroom rules and expected behaviour. Unlike English teachers, Turkish teachers did not emphasise this point as shown in chapter-5. The difference between Turkish and English teachers could be caused by a lack of awareness of the importance of classroom management and implementation of related research results. After the Elton Report (DES, 1989) the majority of English schools put greater emphasis on discipline aspects of school processes.

This initiative was successful because of teachers' willingness to develop their managerial skills.

CLASSROOM RULES

The interview study clearly showed a variety of rules in operation in the primary school classroom in Turkish and English schools. There was a general agreement between Turkish and English teachers with regard to classroom rules, in spite of the cultural difference. As can be seen from chapter-5 both Turkish and English teachers highlighted the importance of how to speak, behave and care for classroom materials. Most of the teachers reported that classroom rules not only helped students' learning, but also teachers.

Again there was a high level of agreement between English and Turkish teachers with regard to the role of classroom rules. Classroom rules were an inevitable part of not only pupils' learning processes, but also the teachers' job. The majority of teachers from both countries reported that they tried to teach classroom rules.

Although there was agreement between English and Turkish teachers, about the definition and role of the classroom rules there were clear differences in setting rules in the classroom. Unlike Turkish teachers, English teachers highlighted the role of school management policy and assembly meetings. This was an interesting finding in the context of the tradition of a whole school behaviour management policy implementation process advised in Elton Report (DES, 1989).

TEACHERS' REACTIVE BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

When the prevention of misbehaviour fails managerial confrontation is inevitable. In this circumstance the teacher employs various behaviour, from mild to severe, in order to deal with actual misbehaviour. In the literature, a number of researchers reported that a common intervention from teachers was a verbal response, such as statement of rules, reprimand, order to cease or naming of pupil. Then, non-verbal managerial strategies such as proximity, touch, facial expression and gesture were used. The least used teacher managerial strategy was punishment (Wragg and Dooley, 1984; Wragg, 1993).

There was a high level of agreement between the structured observation findings and the literature. As can be seen from Table 4.11 the most common teacher responses were verbal, such as statement of rules and order to cease followed by non-verbal responses. The least seen response was punishment. During observation, both Turkish and English primary school teachers rarely used punishment. However, there were some dilemmas with verbal and non-verbal managerial strategies.

As Kounin (1970) argued verbal intervention has a ripple effect, in that it also interrupts other students as well as those who exhibited misbehaviour in the first place. Wenstein and Mignano (1997) pointed out that sometimes verbal intervention could be more disruptive than misbehaviour. There appears to be conflict between the present research's findings and the literature. Unlike Turkish teachers, English teachers often used non-verbal intervention such as facial expression and gesture. If all teachers' responses were taken into account 71,4% of responses were verbal, 27,8% non-verbal and only .8 % of punishment. However, there were differences between Turkish and English responses. Approximately 77% of Turkish teachers' responses were verbal in contrast to 64% of English teacher responses. Turkish teachers' tendency to use verbal strategies may have been due to the facts that most Turkish classrooms were crowded and that teachers did not take any courses related to classroom management. In addition to this there was no whole school policy in schools that were observed. All these factors affected teachers' skills, efficacy and style of management in the classroom.

On the whole, although English teachers seemed to be better than their Turkish counterparts regarding the use of non-verbal strategies, both English and Turkish teachers used verbal strategies more than non-verbal strategies which could have side effects on the classroom process.

In order to understand teachers' views on their strategies when they came into confrontation with misbehaviour, four common misbehaviours, that were taken from Table 4.4, were presented to the teachers. Teachers' were asked to say what they did when they met the five common student misbehaviours: noise, illicit talking, inappropriate movement, interrupting other pupils, and inappropriate use of materials.

For the purpose of this exercise noise and illicit talking were separated, since teachers may respond differently. As can be seen from Table 6.1 both Turkish and English teachers' responses to noise were always verbal rather than non-verbal. On the other hand, only English teachers reported using humour and questioning in order to deal with noise.

Teachers' responses were, conversely, quite different when they had to confront illicit talking. Illicit talking seemed to be dealt with using mainly non-verbal managerial strategies. In addition to this, there was agreement with Kounin's (1970) and Weinstein's and Mignano's (1997) view about non-verbal strategies. Turkish teachers highlighted the importance of non-verbal strategies with regard to the ripple effect.

TABLE 6.1 TEACHERS' MANAGERIAL STRATEGIES IN PARTICULAR MISBEHAVIOUR.

Misbehaviour	Turkish teachers strategies	English teachers strategies
Noise	I shout out to the student; depends on the importance of the subject matter; if student was noisy in an art subject, I may tolerate it.	I use their name; they just need to be reminded; I would make a joke of it; question it; to ask them to be quiet; I pull them out. I ask them to see me at end of the lesson.
Illicit talking	I go and touch that student very quietly in order to not disturb other students' concentration; I warn them through eye contact, facial expression, gesture or touching without making it aware to other students.	I might say 'eeeeee' and he knows what I am talking about; remind them what they should be doing. And ask them to go back to their work.
Inappropriate movement	remind of rules and immediately warn pupils; tell them to sit in their chair.	trying use of humour, and sarcasm; reminding of rules and just stop.
Interrupting other pupils	I get angry too much; I send the pupil outside of the classroom; after the lesson, I speak to both students that disrupted; I warn them and tell them not do it again. If s/he continues, I change their seats.	I tend to get quite cross with them... I ask them not do it; physically move them; Just remind them what they are doing really; usually looking at them and reminding them.
Inappropriate use of materials	I send them to the head teacher; I focus on the economic dimension of it; I remind them of our aims related to that lesson's materials	take them off the students, stop and explain dangers, re-explain how to use them.

In the classrooms of both countries, inappropriate movement was not seen to be serious misbehaviour. Therefore, teacher responses consisted of reminding pupils of the rules and of stopping calmly.

When pupils interrupted other pupils, teachers' strategies became severe. Both Turkish and English teachers' responses included punishment when they came across students interrupting others. Interrupting another pupil was seen as more severe misbehaviour since the student affected not only his/her own situation but also that of others. The findings of this exercise were interesting compared with the observation and interview results. Although punishment was rarely seen as a managerial strategy during observation, teachers claimed that they used punishment in certain circumstances such as these interruptions.

Both Turkish and English teachers paid great attention to dealing with inappropriate use of materials. An English teacher stressed that using material inappropriately had serious consequences especially in science lessons. Meanwhile, Turkish teachers highlighted the economic dimension of classroom materials. Although, both teachers paid great attention to this misbehaviour, their perception with regard to using materials inappropriately varied, since both classrooms had different characteristics.

Although punishment was not seen during observation, teachers were asked what kind of sanction they used to deal with misbehaviour. Both Turkish and English teachers mentioned quite similar strategies as can be seen from chapter-5. Detention was a common type of punishment in both Turkish and English classrooms. Merrett and Jones (1994) claimed that it was not productive punishment. However, it was generally used when teachers could not handle managerial confrontation smoothly. Its use could result from a lack of managerial skills. In addition to detention, one Turkish teacher reported that s/he used physical punishment in extreme circumstances. This was an unsuccessful confrontation when the teacher felt that s/he could not solve the problem in a proper way.

THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER EXPERIENCE ON THEIR BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Teachers' management strategies are greatly affected by their length of teaching experience, since most of them develop their strategies as a result of past encounters rather than following any pre-established behaviour management policy. This was quite obvious from some of the Turkish teachers, as there have been no courses in the initial teacher training course directly related to classroom management, until the academic year 1998-1999 (as explained extensively in the first chapter).

As can be seen from Table 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14, there was quite a difference between experienced and less experienced Turkish teachers. Generally, punishment was almost non-existent during observation. However, there were differences in selecting either verbal or non-verbal strategies. Less experienced teachers tended to use verbal strategies such as an order to cease, reprimand, statement of rules, a pupil named, more than experienced teachers. However, experienced teachers used humour, gesture, facial expression, proximity, touch and dramatic pause more than less experienced teachers. The difference between using verbal or non-verbal strategies may be caused by the development of an ability to focus on each individual's requirements and a depth of understanding of classroom processes. Less experienced teachers may focus on protecting themselves which could lead to a direct verbal response to the whole class indicating the disruptive pupils. Such a response could include some preventive characteristics, since it could also be a warning to the rest of the class. On the other hand, teacher responses had side effects in that they distracted other pupils' engagement on task.

The interview results confirmed the observations findings. As can be seen from Table 5.3, there were some differences between experienced and less experienced Turkish teachers' reports. Experienced teachers listed talking with pupils and parents, discussing, questioning, encouragement and facial expression as managerial strategies. Less experienced teachers mentioned similar strategies. However, less experienced Turkish teachers also listed some kinds of punishments such as loss of privileges, reprimanding, smacking and ridicule. These were not mentioned by experienced teachers. Neither

experienced nor less experienced teachers listed non-verbal strategies. These findings were slightly different from the observation findings. There were few little punishments recorded in the observation results. However, when teachers were asked to give their strategies, less experienced teachers expressed particular punishment strategies. This was an interesting finding in the context of the comparison of classroom observation and interview, as research methods. In addition to this, it was perhaps more interesting since the differences between less experienced and experienced teachers were again confirmed.

It was difficult to make the same generalisation with English teachers. As can be seen from Table 4.14, there were no clear differences among PGCE student teachers, less experienced and experienced teachers. Three teacher groups had similar characteristics. However, if teachers were examined individually seven teachers showed quite a fluctuating degree in their use of different strategies in the observation results. Less experienced and PGCE student teachers were differentiated from experienced teacher in using verbal strategies. However, this was not as clear as with the Turkish teachers. If the interview findings in the Table 5.3 are examined, there were almost no differences between experienced, less experienced and PGCE student teachers with regard to classroom behaviour management strategies. Most of the strategies were expressed in a similar way by all of them. This could be caused by the fact that the majority of English primary schools focused on classroom management issues after the Elton Report (DES, 1989). Therefore, most primary schools had a whole school policy so that teachers were required to show strategies parallel to the school's policy. In addition to this, the majority of initial teacher training courses provided courses related to classroom management and these could be expected to have a positive effect on teachers' efficacy and managerial skills.

Although there were similarities between experienced English and Turkish teachers' managerial strategies, less experienced Turkish teachers' strategies were differentiated not only from experienced teachers but also from less experienced English and PGCE student teachers' strategies. The present research findings related to teacher management strategies confirm the importance both of classroom management courses in initial and in-service teacher training courses and of the whole school policy.

WHOLE SCHOOL POLICY

After the Elton Report (DES,1989) most English primary schools prepared a whole school behaviour management policy as a part of the school's management. English teacher interviewee reports also confirmed the expectations of Elton Report.

As can be seen from chapter-5, unlike Turkish primary schools, a whole school behaviour management policy was a common management strategy in the English classroom. The interview studies clearly showed the effects of a whole school policy on the teachers' behaviour and classroom interaction. The interview results confirmed that English primary schools gave priority to implementing the expectations of Elton Report (1989) with regard to a whole school behaviour management policy.

Since a whole school behaviour management policy was implemented from nursery to primary school, the policy promoted pupils' positive school behaviour. This also helped teachers to maintain smooth instruction, as one of the policy's effects was the prevention of misbehaviour.

6.4.   CLASSROOM SETTING

The organisation of the classroom is an important dimension of the teaching and learning processes. The organisation of the classroom is changes depending on how teachers want to teach curriculum activities. As the majority of Turkish classrooms are in a traditional row and aisle style and the classroom is used by two different teachers: morning and afternoon, it is difficult to reorganise frequently the classroom. Almost all teachers consider the other teacher when s/he decides to change the classroom layout. Therefore, they only change students' seats within the pre-established row and aisle classroom, and classroom display. On the other hand, English classrooms do not have the same kind of problems.

In comparing English and Turkish primary classrooms, clear differences emerged in the layout and seating arrangements. These differences can be seen in Table 5.4 and 5.5. The majority of the Turkish classroom were arranged in rows and aisles; in contrast, English pupils sat around tables.

There were different approaches to the seating arrangement for pupils in the Turkish primary classroom. Teachers arranged pupils' seats either according to ability or mixed ability. However, some teachers also ranked pupils based on their height, but they did not categorise pupils based on ability.

One of the negative affects of the traditional row and aisle classroom is that tall pupils always need to sit to the rear of the classroom since they may affect others' ability to see. This biological characteristic can affect the whole school life of certain pupils, since seating location in the traditional classroom might affect pupils' achievement, attention and interaction with the teacher.

THE EFFECTS OF CLASSROOM LAYOUT ON TEACHER AND STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

Teachers from both countries claimed different problems relating to classroom layout. English teachers criticised the open plan classroom, since they had to consider other teachers during instruction. One of the important disadvantages of an open plan school was the several teacher and student groups shared the same area. Although it had advantages, such as the potential for sharing various materials, it had also disadvantages because of the amount of noise and teachers needed to take into account other teachers and student groups. Because of this, some teachers reduce the amount of time for whole class teaching. The Turkish teachers reported that the traditional row and aisle classroom had some negative effects on student behaviour. Student behaviour also varied according to where they sat.

In the literature, a number of writers highlighted the effects of classroom layout on students classroom experience in that seating location may affect students' attention, interaction with the teacher, frequency of misbehaviour and achievement (Weinstein, 1979; Schewel and Cherlin, 1972; Lambert, 1994).

The interview results confirmed that there were agreements between the literature and the problems of traditional row and aisle classrooms in Turkey. Since the English classroom layout was different from the row and aisle classroom, their problems were caused by other

things. In the traditional classroom, in Turkey, the chalkboard was fixed on to the wall which indicated the front and rear of the room. Since teachers used the chalkboard frequently, pupils attention and frequency of misbehaviour and involvement in the lesson could be affected by where s/he sat in the classroom. As can be seen from the chapter-5, Turkish teachers, reported several factors that directly affect pupils' learning. In a similar manner, when students sat in a group they did not work as a group. Because of this sitting in a group could facilitate disruption. One teacher claimed that "students who sit very closely around the table may behave in a very relaxed manner and be easily distracted since they think that teacher can not see them...."

The problem with sitting around a table was the lack of appropriate activities to engage the whole group in co-operative or collaborative work. Sitting around a table could be the worst seating style, if not supported by enough activity and by a suitable teaching style.

6.5.   IMPLICATIONS

The present research was done as a comparative study in the English and Turkish primary school classroom, in order to understand what was going on related to classroom management. Interesting results were found since two different school cultures and education systems were compared regarding classroom management. Although there were differences between Turkish and English teachers' classroom management practice, there were also similarities in the causes of misbehaviour and in certain teachers' managerial strategies. As a result of this research some suggestions can be made especially for the Turkish education system.

Initial and in-service teacher training courses have significant effects on teachers' management skills and styles. In addition to this, the local and national advice of policy makers is generally taken into account during the organisation of courses, and school and classroom practice. Since these courses and policy makers have extensive influence on the student teacher and teacher, these courses can be rearranged to give general consideration to classroom management problems.

Because of this, some of the key issues of such courses focusing detail on components of classroom management, especially for initial and in-service teacher training courses for Turkey, can be suggested.

Whole school behaviour management policy is one of the distinguished components of classroom management issue. The implementation of a whole school policy would help all school staff, families and students since it would provide agreement about what was expected with regard to classroom management. The whole school policy also has a significant influences on the development of school culture with regard to positive classroom and school behaviour. The agreement of family and all school staff such as teachers, headteacher and pupils would facilitate an improvement in school behaviour. As was explained in chapter five, most of the differences between Turkish and English teachers were caused by one of the distinctive characteristics of English school: whole school behaviour management policy.

The organisation of a school behaviour management policy that is unique to each individual school is one of the priorities for Turkish primary schools. This issue can be also advised by policy makers in order to encourage positive expectation as a local and nation-wide.

One of the other priorities in developing teachers' managerial skills and styles is initial and in-service teacher training courses. The initial teacher training courses appear to have enormous effects on teachers' managerial strategies. As already mentioned in chapters four and five, there were great similarities regarding managerial strategies between experienced English teachers and PGCE student teachers. Although most of the experienced teachers developed their skills based on their reflective practice, student teachers learnt positive strategies directly from the course without experience. As is explained in the first chapter, until 1998-99 academic year there was no course under the name of 'classroom management' in Turkey. The issue of classroom management was stressed within other courses such as educational psychology but was only given limited time and importance. Because of this, the arrangement of such a course is one of the priorities for Turkish initial and in-service teacher training courses. In addition to arranging the course, the content of

the course should be designed based on the experience of western countries particularly Britain and USA and on the results of research carried out in Turkey and other countries.

In addition to initial teacher training courses, in-service teacher training courses should also be given priority on Turkey since the course was added to initial teacher training courses in the 1998-1999 academic year nation-wide. There is a need to train teachers who already work in schools since there was no such course during their initial teacher training. They, therefore, need extra support regarding classroom management skills and strategies.

Within initial and in-service teacher training courses the following content areas should be stressed as important aspects of classroom management skills:

- preventive classroom management,

- what can be done at the beginning of the term in order to set classroom rules and expected school behaviour,

- conflict resolution,

- communication skills,

- how to deal with managerial confrontation,

- training pupils about how to behave in the school and classroom,

- how to organise classroom and pupils' seats considering curriculum activities and pupils' individual characteristics, friendships and cognitive development.

As was stressed in chapter five, pupils' families are crucially important in relation to behaviour not only in the home but also on the school and classroom. The majority of teachers reported that pupils' home background had an effect on pupils' school and classroom behaviour. Teachers emphasised the importance of the family as a part of overall positive behaviour. Because of this, the family should not only be involved in the development of school and classroom management policy but also, they should be trained

how to behave and communicate with pupils in order to reinforce positive school behaviour and academic achievement.

One of the other important points regarding future aspirations for classroom management is the organisation of curriculum matter. As already emphasised in chapter 5, the bridge between pupils' cognitive development and interests and the difficulties of learning activities is one of the key issues. Several teachers in the interview emphasised this aspect of curriculum organisation and allocation. Each segment of learning activities and overall subject matter should be reexamined considering possible classroom management problems in order to ensure a more engaged and studious classroom. Teacher should take into account the level of mixed ability in the classroom and the difficulties of learning activities and should also consider pupils' interests.

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT MODEL FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL CLASSROOM

In conclusion, therefore, thought needs to be given to developing a comprehensive program of training aimed at achieving whole school policy for the management of pupil misbehaviour policy which involve co-operation with parents. The model given in Table 6.2 suggests possible method for achieving these objectives. The modification of model is focused from bottom to top rather than top to bottom. Therefore, the agreement and participation of teachers, pupils, headteachers, pupils' families and, if necessary, others were essential key elements of the model.

The classroom management model could be developed by all staff and also implemented by all of them. Pupils' families are one of the important elements here. As has already been explained in the literature review and interview results, some pupils' misbehaviour was caused by family circumstances. Because of this, the involvement of the family during the development and implementation processes of the plan is inevitable.

The classroom management policy could be laid down at the beginning of the term and implemented in the school and in all classrooms by discussing it with pupils and informing pupils' families. The first and second week of school, the teacher should pay particular

attention to the implementation of the policy in order to have an appropriate learning environment.

TABLE 6.2 WHOLE SCHOOL BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT MODEL FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL.

1. Development of a classroom management plan by all school staff such as teacher, pupil and family. The classroom management plan must include the management of individual pupils and whole class.

2. At the beginning of the term, the management policy must be laid down and continuously repeated discussing it with pupils in the classroom.

3. Each assembly, the week's rules related to expected school and classroom behaviour must be presented by the head teacher, and each teacher has to implement these expectation in that week discussing it with pupils.

4. Teacher's individual behaviour management strategies in the classroom:

• Preventive behaviour management strategies: the teacher has to try to anticipate misbehaviour before it occurs and prevent it.

• Reactive behaviour management strategies: verbal and non-verbal intervention. The teacher should focus on non-verbal intervention in order to inhibit the ripple effect rather than reactive ones.

5. If it is required, implementation of individual behaviour management programs for special needs students.

6. A continuous review of the school and classroom behaviour management policy.

Each week, various parts of the policy and several classroom and school rules and expected behaviour should be presented by the headteacher in the assembly meeting. Then, all

218

teachers should implement these rules and expected behaviours through discussion with pupils in the classroom.

The confrontation of pupils misbehaviour inside and outside of the classroom is inevitable. How misbehaviour dealt with by the teacher is part of the expected dimension of the teaching and learning environment. Focusing on preventive and non-verbal reactive behaviour management strategies policy should be implemented by the teacher in order to lead instruction smoothly without any disruption.

The issue of special needs students is part of the whole education system. Instead of excluding these students from the education system, the teacher should develop a plan for individual students and implement it without excluding the students from the classroom.

Teachers should review the behaviour management policy and their managerial interaction with pupils and renew their practice as a part of reflective teaching practice.

In order to contribute literature that related to classroom management new questions can be asked, and detail interest can be maintained. In the next, some limitation of the current research and possible research area that researchable will be introduced as a final aspects of the study.

FUTURE RESEARCH

The present research had particular limitations. Since it was carried out in two different countries in a limited time, the selection of cases and number of them was limited. In addition, the research was carried out in a foreign country. Most of the teachers were not willing to be involved in the research because of the observation factor. However, in spite of their reservations the observation was carried out in both countries. Apart from these disadvantages, there were also great advantages with this research since it served as a comparison of two different countries' education practice related to classroom management. If the research could be carried out again, the selection of cases should be considered as an important issue. Furthermore, the number of cases and amount of observation should be increased.

219

In addition to this, in order to understand what has been going on in the classroom structured observation and interviews with the teacher are not sufficient as research techniques. Since the items of structured observation can restrict observation, natural observation should be used in order to support structured observation. Furthermore, a survey should be done in order to understand the general characteristics of a wide population to provide information in order to select cases more appropriately. Doing research that only involves teachers is not enough in order to understand teacher-pupil managerial interaction. Pupils should also be involved in the research.

In addition to these research considerations the following subjects should be investigated as a part of comprehensive series of classroom management studies:

- The effects of family on student behaviour in the school and classroom.

- Teachers' management strategies considering their gender and experience.

- Teachers' response difference based on pupils' gender and age.

- Teachers' thinking style and attribution with regard to causes of student misbehaviour and their managerial strategies.

- Pupils' thinking style and perception of their misbehaviour and teacher behaviour.

- The relationship between pupils' misbehaviour and academic achievement.

- The perception of a whole school policy and the level of agreement among all the staff in the school.

- The effects of a whole school behaviour management policy on the entire school staff.

All that has been said above and previously is intended to contribute pupils' learning. Just as we cannot eliminate traffic accidents on the street, we cannot get rid of all managerial problems in the classroom and school. However, it is possible to decrease the number of incidents that happen in the school context in order to keep teachers and pupils busy with learning activities. Although some differences were found between Turkish and English

classrooms regarding classroom management issues, it should be possible to promote similar classroom and school processes locally and nationwide in Turkey. Several concepts are being discussed nowadays in the Turkish education system, that have already been discussed in the literature of Western countries particularly Britain and America. There is no other way than to develop the Turkish education system regarding positive school behaviour and the engagement of students in learning activities rather than trivial things. To change the system nationwide may be difficult. Furthermore, finding short term solutions may be difficult. However, in the long term it should be possible to see well-behaved students and adults who spend most of their school time on learning activities rather than irrelevant things that can be described as misbehaviour.

7. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Açikgöz, K. Ü. (1996). Etkili ogrenme ve ogretme. Izmir: Kan Yilmaz Matbaasi.

Adler, A.P. and Adler, P. (1994). Observational techniques. In K.N., Denzin, and S.Y., Lincoln, (Eds.). Handbook of qualitative research (pp. 377-392). London: Sage Pub.

Anastasi, A. (1976). Psychological testing (4th ed.). New York: MacMillian Publishing Co., Inc.

Anderson, L. W. (1991). Increasing teacher effectiveness. Paris: UNESCO.

Anderson, L. W., & Burns, R. B. (1989). Research in classroom: The study of teachers, teaching and instruction. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Axelrod, S., Hall, R. V., & Tams, A. (1979). Comparison of two common classroom seating arrangements. Academic Therapy, 15 (1), 29-36.

Babbie, E. (1990). Survey research methods (2nd ed.). California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Bakeman, R., and Gottman, J. M. (1986). Observing interaction: introduction to sequential analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bakeman, R., and Gottman, J. M. (1997). Observing interaction: introduction to sequential analysis.(2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Becker, F. D., Sommer, R., Bee, J. & Oxley, B. (1973). College classroom ecology. Sociometry, 36 (4), 514-525.

Bennett, N. & Blundell, D. (1983). Quantity and quality of work in rows and classroom groups. Educational Psychology, 3 (2), 93-105.

Boostrom, R. (1991). The nature and functions of classroom rules. Curriculum Inquiry, 21 (2), 193-216.

Borg, G. M. & Falzon, M. J. (1990). Teaches' perception of primary school children's undesirable behaviours: the effects of teaching experience, pupil's age, sex and ability stream. Br. J. Educ. Psychology, 60, 220-226.

Borg, R. W. & Gall, D. M. (1989). Educational research: an introduction (5th ed.). NewYork: Longman

Brophy, J. & Evertson, C. M. (1976). Learning from teaching : A developmental perspective. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Brophy, J. (1983). Classroom organisation and management. Elementary School Journal, 83 (4), 265-286.

Brophy, J. (1983). Improving instruction: effective classroom management. The School Administrator, 40 (7), 32-36.

Brophy, J. (1988). Educating teachers about managing classrooms and students. Teaching and Teacher Education, 4 (1), 1-18.

Bryman, A. (1988). Quantity and quality in social research. London: Routledge.

Bryman, A. (1992). Quantitative and qualitative research: further reflections on their integration. In J. Brannen (Ed.). Mixing methods: qualitative and quantitative research (pp. 57-78). Avebury:Aldershot.

Bullock, R., Little, M. & Millham, S. (1992). The relationships between quantitative and qualitative approaches in social policy research. In J. Brannen (Ed.). Mixing methods: qualitative and quantitative research (pp:81-99). Avebury:Aldershot.

Burden, P. R. (1995). Classroom management and discipline: methods to facilitate co-operation and instruction. London: Longman.

Cangelosi, J. (1993). Classroom management strategies: gaining and maintaining student's co-operation (2nd ed.). NewYork: Longman.

Charles, C., M. (1996). Building classroom discipline (5th edit.). USA: Longman.

Charlton, T. & David, K. (1993). Managing misbehaviours in schools (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Cohen, L. & Cohen, A. (1987). Disruptive behaviour: a source book for teachers. London: Harper and Row Publishers.

Cohen, L. & Manion, L. (1994). Research methods in education (4th ed.). London: Routlenge.

Colin, L. (1985). Preventive approaches to disruption. Maladjustment and Therapeutic Education, 3 (2), 47-52.

Colvin, G., Kameenui, E. J. and Sugai, G. (1993). Reconceptualizing behaviour management and school wide discipline in general education. Education and Treatment of Children, 16 (4), 361-381.

Creswell, J. (1994). Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. London: Sage.

Crocker, L. & Algina, J. (1986). Introduction to classical and modern test theory. Newyork: Halt Renehart & Winston, Inc.

Croll, P. (1986). Systematic classroom observation. London: The Farmer Press.

Cronbach, L. J. (1971). Test validation. In R. L. Thorndike (Ed.). Educational measurement (2nd ed.) (pp. 443-507). Washington: American council on education.

Cullingford, C. (1988). School rules and children's attitudes to discipline. Educational Research, 30 (1), 3-8.

Delamont, S. & Hamilton, D. (1993). Revisiting classroom research: a continuing cautionary tale. In M. Hammersley, (Ed.). Controversies in classroom research (2nd ed.) (pp.25-43). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Denzin, K. N. (1989). The research act: a theoretical introduction to sociological methods (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Denzin, K., N. (1994). Triangulation in educational research. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite, (Ed.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 6461-6466). Pergamon.

Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Introduction: entering the field of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Ed.). Handbook of qualitative research (pp.1-17). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication.

DES (1989). Discipline in schools (The Elton Report). London: HMSO.

DfEE (1993). The initial training of primary school teachers: new criteria for courses (circular number: 14/93). London.

DfEE (1997). Requirements for courses of initial training (circular number: 10/97). London.

DfEE (1998). Teaching: high status, high standards: requirements for courses of initial teacher training (circular number: 4/98). London.

Docking, J. (1993). The management of behaviour in primary schools. In V. P. Varma (Ed.) . Management of behaviour in schools (pp.167-186). London: Longman.

Docking, J. (1996). Managing behaviour in the primary school (2nd ed.). London: David Fulton Publishers.

Doyle W. (1985). Recent research on classroom management: Implications for teacher preparations. Journal of Teacher Education, May-June, 31-35.

Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom organisation and management. In M. Wittrock (Ed.) Third handbook of research on teaching (pp. 392-431). Macmillan: New York.

Doyle, W. (1990). Classroom management techniques. In O. C. Moles (Ed.). Student discipline strategies: research and practice (pp. 113-127). State University of New York Press.

Drever, E. (1995). Using semi-structured interviews in small-scale research. Glasgow: SCRE Pub.

Dunkin, M. J. & Biddle, B. J. (1974). The study of teaching. NewYork: Holt Renehart and Winston INC.

Emmer, E. & Evertson, C. & Anderson, L. (1980). Effective classroom management at the beginning of the school year. Elementary School Journal, 80 (5), 219-231.

Emmer, E. & Evertson, C. (1981). Synthesis of research on classroom management. Educational Leadership, 38 (4), 342-347.

Emmer, E. T. (1994). Teacher managerial behaviours. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite (Eds.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 6026-6031). London: Pergamon.

Evertson, C. M. (1989). Improving elementary classroom management: A school based training program for beginning the year. Journal of Educational Research, 83 (2), 82-90.

Evertson, C. M. (1994). Classroom rules and routines. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite (Eds.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 816-820). Pergamon.

Evertson, C. M., Emmer, E. T., Clements, B. S., & Worsham, M. E. (1997). Classroom management in primary classroom (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Firestone, W. A. (1987). Meaning in method: The rhetoric of quantitative and qualitative research. Educational Researcher, 16 (7), 16-21.

Flanders, N. A. (1968). The problems of observer training and reliability. In E. Amidon and J. B. Hough (Ed.). Interaction analysis: theory, research and application (pp.158-175). Reading: Addison-Wesley publishing company.

Fontana, D. (1994). Managing classroom behaviour. BPS Books

Frick, T. & Semmel, M. I. (1978). Observer agreement and reliabilities of classroom observational measures. Review of Educational Research, 48 (1), 157-184.

Fuller, F., F. (1969). Concerns of teachers: a developmental conceptualisation. American Educational Research Journal, 6 (2), 207-226.

Gall, M.D., Borg, W.R. & Gall, J.P. (1996). Educational research: an introduction. USA: Longman.

Galton, M. & Williamson, J. (1992). Group work in the primary classroom. London: Routledge.

Galton, M. (1994). Classroom observation. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite (Eds.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 811-816). Pergamon.

Galton, M., Hargreaves, L., Comber, C., Wall, D., Pell, A. (1999). Inside the primary classroom: 20 years on. London: Routledge.

Gettinger, M. (1988) Methods of proactive classroom management. School Psychology Review, 17 (2), 227-242.

Getzels, J. V. (1974). Images of the classroom and visions of the learner. School review, August, 527-530.

Gilberts, H. G. & Lingnugaris-kraft, B. (1997). Classroom management and instruction competencies for preparing elementary and special education teachers. Teaching and Teacher Education, 13 (6), 597-610.

Glaser, B., G., and Strauss, A., L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research: New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Glesne, C. & Peshkin, A. (1992). Becoming qualitative researchers: an introduction. London: Longman.

Gordon, T., and Burch, N. (1974). Teacher effectiveness Training. New York: Peter H. Wyden / publishers.

Gray, J. & Richer, J. (1988). Classroom responses to disruptive behaviour. London: Routledge.

Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquires. Educational communication and technology journal, 29, 75-91.

Hammersley, M. (1995). Opening up the quantitative- qualitative divide. Education Section Review, 19 (1), 2-5.

Hammersly, M. (1992). Deconstructing the qualitative-quantitative divide. In J. Brannen (Ed.). Mixing methods: qualitative and quantitative research (pp. 39-55). Avebury:Aldershot.

Hargreaves, D., Hester, S. K., & Mellar, F. J. (1975). Deviance in classrooms. London:Routledge and Kegan.

Harrop, A., & Williams, T. (1992). Rewards and punishments in the primary school: pupils' perceptions and teachers' usage. Educational Psychology in Practice, 7 (4) 211-215.

Hastings, N., Schwieso, J., & Wheldall, K. (1996). A place for learning. In P. Croll, P. & N. Hastings (Ed.). Effective primary teaching: Research based classroom strategies (pp.19-43). London: David Fulton publishers

Hitchcock, G. & Hughes, D. (1989). Research and the teacher: A qualitative introduction to school based research. London: Routledge.

Howe, K. R. (1988). Against the quantitative-qualitative incompatibility thesis or dogmas die hard. Educational Researcher, 17 (8), 10-16.

Husen, T. (1994). Research paradigms in education. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite (Eds.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 5051-5056). London: Pergamon.

Johnson, M. and Brooks, H. (1979). Conceptualising classroom management. In D. L. Duke (Ed.). Classroom management: the seventy eight yearbook of the National Society for the study of education (pp.1-41). The university of Chicago press: Chicago, Illinois.

Jones, F. V. & Jones, S. L. (1998). Comprehensive classroom management: creating communities of support and solving problems (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Keats, D.M. (1994). Interviewing for selection and clinical research. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite (Eds.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 3003-3007). Pergamon.

Koneya, M. (1976). Location and interaction in row and column seating arrangements. Environment and Behaviour, 8 (2), 265-282.

Kounin, J. S. (1970). Discipline and group management in classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Kvale, s. (1995).Social construction of validity. Qualitative Inquiry, 1 (1), 19-40.

Kvale, S. (1996). InterViews: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing. Thousand oaks: sage.

Kyriacou, C. (1986). Effective teaching in schools. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Kyriacou, C. (1997). Effective teaching in schools: theory and Practice (2nd ed.). UK: Stanley Thornes LTD.

Lambert, N. M. (1994)Seating arrangements in classrooms. In T. Husen, & N. Postlethwaite (Eds.). The international encyclopaedia of education (pp. 5355-5359). London: Pergamon.

Latz , M. (1992). Preservice teachers' perceptions and concerns about classroom management and discipline: a qualitative investigation. Journal of Science Teacher Education, 3 (1), 1-4.

Lawrence, J. & Steed, D. M. (1984). European voices on disruptive behaviour in schools: definitions concern, and types of behaviour. British Journal of Educational Studies, XXXII (1), 4-17.

Lemke, E. & Wiersma, W. (1976). Principles of psychological measurement. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Levin, J. & Nolan, F. J. (1996). Principles of classroom management: professional decision making model (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Lund, R. (1996). A whole school behaviour policy: a practical guide. London: Kogan Page.

McNamara, S. & Moreton, G. (1995). Changing behaviour: teaching children with emotional and behavioural difficulties in primary and secondary classrooms. London: David Fulton Publishers.

Martin, J., and Sugarman, J. (1993). Models of classroom management: principles, applications and critical perspectives. Washington: Detselig enterprises ltd.

Martin, M. (1992). The application of research on classroom management to an in service programme. Irish Educational Studies, 11, 207-223.

Mastropieri, M. A. & Thomas, E. S. (1987). Effective instruction for special education. Boston: a college-hill company.

Maxwell, J. A. (1992). Understanding and validity in Qualitative research. Harward Educational, 62 (3), 279-300.

Maxwell, W. S. (1987). Teachers' attitudes towards disruptive behaviour in secondary schools. Educational Review, 39 (3), 203-216.

McGinnis, C., Frederic, P. B. & Edwards, R. (1995). Enhancing classroom management through proactive rules and procedures. Psychology in the Schools, 32, july, 220-224.

McIntyre, D. I. & Macleod, G. (1993). The characteristics and uses of systematic observation. In M. Hammersley, (Ed.). Controversies in classroom research (2nd ed.) (pp.10-24). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Merrett, F. & Wheldall, K. (1990). Positive teaching in the primary school. London: P.C.P.

Merrett, F., Jones, L. (1994). Rules, sanctions and rewards in primary schools. Educational Studies, 20 (3), 345-356.

Merriam, S.B. (1988). Case study research in education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, B., M. & Huberman, A., M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis (2nd ed.). London: Sage Pub.

Milli egitimle ilgili bilgiler (1996). Milli Egitim Bakanligi arastirma, planlama ve koordinasyon kurulu baskanligi. Ankara.

Oppenheim, A. N. (1992). Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement (2nd ed.). London: Printer pub. Ltd.

Parry-Jones, W. L. & Gay, B. M. (1980). The anatomy of disruption: a preliminary consideration of interaction sequences within disruptive incidents. Oxford Review of Education, 6 (3), 213-220.

Patton, Q., M. (1987). How to use qualitative methods in evaluation . London: Sage Pub.

Patton, Q., M. (1990). Qualitative evaluation an research methods (2nd ed.). London: Sage Pub.

Pellegrini,, A. D. (1996). Observing Children in Their Natural Worlds: A Methodological Primer. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Pollard, A. (1997). Reflective teaching in the primary school: A handbook for the classroom (3rd ed.). London: Cassell.

Robson, C. (1993). Real world research. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

Rosen, S. G., Taylor, S. A., O'leary, S. G. & Sanderson, W. (1990). A survey of classroom management practices. Journal of School Psychology, 28, 257-269.

Rosenfield, P., Lambert, N. M. & Black. A. (1985). Desk arrangement effects on pupil classroom behaviour. Journal of Educational Psychology, 77 (1), 101-108.

Saglam, M. (1996). Milli Egitim Bakanligi TBMM 1997 yili butce raporu. Ankara.

Sanford, J. P. & Emmer, E. T. (1988). Understanding classroom management: An observation guide. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Sanford, J. P., Emmmer, E. T. & Clements, B. S. (1983). Improving classroom management. Educational Leadership, 40, 56-61.

Saur, R. E., Popp, M. J. & Isaacs, M. (1984). Action zone theory and the hearing-impaired student in the mainstreamed classroom. Journal of Classroom Interaction, 19 (2), 21-25.

Schewel, A. I. & Cherlin, D. L. (1972). Physical and social distancing in teacher-pupil relationships. Journal of Educational Psychology, 63 (6), 543-550.

Seidman, I., E. (1991). Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences. New York: Teachers College Press.

Senemoglu, N. (1991). A study of initial primary teacher training in England with implications for the system in Türkiye. Unpublished research report. Leicester university.

Sinclair, J., Hanks, P., Fox, G., Moon, R. & Stock, P. (1987). Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary. London: Harper Collins Publishers.

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Tattum, P. D. (1989). Violent, aggressive and disruptive behaviour. In N. Jones (Ed.). Special educational needs review (pp.130-156). London: The Falmer Press.

Thompson, D., Sharp, S., Rose, D., and Ellis, M. (1994). Improving schools: establishing and integrating a whole school behaviour policies. London: David Fulton Publishers.

Topping, K. (1987). School sanction systems: myth and reality. In N. Hastings and J. Schwieso (Eds.). New directions in educational psychology: behaviour and motivation in the classroom (pp. 137-166). London: the Falmer Press.

Upon, G. (1992). Emotional and behavioural difficulties. In R. Guilliford, G. Upton (Eds.). Special educational needs (pp.93-110). London: Routledge.

Utwin, S., M. (1995). How to measure survey reliability and validity. London: Sage Pub.

Van Der Sijde, C. P. & Tomic, W. (1992). The influence of a teacher training program on student perception of classroom climate. Journal of Education for Teaching, 18 (3), 287-295.

Varley, H. M. & Busher, H. (1989). 'Just a minute...' - managing interruptions in the junior school classroom. Educational Studies, 15 (1), 53-66.

Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. Review of educational research, 54 (2), 143-178.

Vygotsky, S. L. (1978). Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes . Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Weinstein, C. (1979). The physical environment of the school. Review of Educational Research, 49, 577-610.

Weinstein, C. S., and Mignano, A. J. (1997). Elementary classroom management: lessons from research and practice (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill Companies, INC.

Wheldal, K. & Lam, Y. Y. (1987). Row versus tables: II. The effects of two classroom seating arrangements on classroom disruptive rate, on-task behaviour and teacher in three special school classes. Educational Psychology, 7 (4), 303-312.

Wheldal, K. & Merrett, F. (1988). Which classroom behaviour do primary school teachers say they find most troublesome? Educational Review, 40 (1), 13-27.

Wheldall, K. & Merrett, F. 1989). Positive teaching in the secondary school. London: P.C.P.

Wheldall, K., Bevan, K. & Shortall, K. (1986). A touch of reinforcement: the effects of contingent teacher touch on the classroom behaviour of young children. Educational Review, 38 (3), 207-216.

Wheldall, K., Morris, M., Vaughan, P. & Ng, Y. Y. (1981). Row versus tables: an example of the use of behavioural ecology in two classes of eleven year old children. Educational Psychology, 1 (2), 171-184.

Wilks, R. (1996). Classroom management in primary schools a review of the literature. Behaviour Change, 13 (1), 20-32.

Wolfgang, C., H. (1995). Solving discipline problems: methods and models for today's teachers. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Wood, D. (1996). How children think and learn. Oxford: Blackwell.

Wragg, E. C. (1993). Primary teaching skills London: Routledge.

Wragg, E. C., and Dooley, P. A. (1984). Class management during teaching practice. In E. C. Wragg (Ed.). Classroom teaching skills: the research findings of the teacher education project (pp.21-46). London: Croom Help.

Wragg, E. C., and Wood, E.K. (1984). Pupil appraisal of teaching. In E. C. Wragg (Ed.). Classroom teaching skills: the research findings of the teacher education project (pp.79-96). London: Croom Help.

Wragg, E. C., Kerry, T., Dooley, P. and McLintock, J. (1979). Nottingham class management observation schedule. Nottingham University School of Education.

Yüksek ogretim kurulu baskanligi (1998). Egitim fakultesi ogretmen yetistirme lisans programlari. Ankara.

APPENDIX I: BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRUCTURED OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Date:	School:		Teacher:		Sex:
Age:	Lesson:	Time of day:	N of Pupils: M:	FM:	Subjects:

TEACHER RESPONSE		**STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR**		**OUTCOME OF INTERACTION**	
Teacher verbal behaviour	1. Order to cease 2. Reprimand 3. Statement of rules 4. Pupil named 5. Humour 6. Involves pupil (s) in work 7. Encouragement 8. Calling out	Student verbal behaviour	1. Noisy or illicit talking 2. Interrupting pupil 3. Insulting pupil 4. Insulting teacher	A1. Pupil(s) silent A2. Pupil accept teacher's action A3. Pupil altercate or protest	
		Student non-verbal behaviour	5 Illicit eating or drinking 6. Taking something without Permission 7 Inappropriate use of materials 8 Inappropriate movement 9.Day dreaming/mind wandering	B1. Misbehaviour ends B2. Misbehaviour lessens B3. Misbehaviour is sustained B4. Misbehaviour is increased C1. Teacher is calm C2. Teacher is agitated C3. Teacher is angry	
Teacher non-verbal behaviour	9. Gesture 10.Facial expression 11.Proximity 12.Touch 13.Dramatic pause	Misc.	10.Defiance of teacher 11. Physical aggression towards other pupil 12. Unsettling 13. Damaging materials	**AUDIENCE** 1.Individual boy 7.Group 2.Individual girl 8.Boy for class 3.Boy pair 9. Boy for group 4.Girl pair 10.Girl for class 5.Mix pair 11. Girl for group 6. whole class 12.Group for class	
Teacher punishment	14.Pupil moved 15.Physical 16.Ridicule		14. Others		
	17. Others				

		STUDENT TASK ENGAGEMENT OBSERVATION	TIME	Loc	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9
Teacher preventive behaviour	1. Telling expectations 2. Request and explanations 3. Threat or warning 4. Remind rules 5. Involves pupil (s) in work 6. Encouragement 7. Proximity 8. Gesture 9. Others													

SIT		ACTIVITIES	
1. Alone **4.** Pair 2. Group 3. Class		1. Individual seat work 2. Whole class teaching 3. Group working	

| | TIME | S | PREVENTIVE BEHAVIOUR | | | | TEACHER RESPONSE | | | STUDENT BEHAVIOUR | | | AUD | OUTCOMES | | | | | |
			PB	AUD	SIT	ACT	1	2	3	1	2	3		A	B	C	SIT	ACT	HELP
1																			
2																			
3																			
4																			
5																			
6																			
7																			
8																			
9																			
10																			
11																			
12																			
13																			
14																			

APPENDIX II: THE DEFINITION OF BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT SYSTEMATIC OBSERVATION SCHEDULE'S ITEMS

1. TEACHER PREVENTIVE BEHAVIOUR

1.**Telling expectation:** Teacher tell pupils his or her expectations about pupils performance and behaviour. For example, the teacher puts clear expectation to the pupils that they will not talk.

2.**Request and explanation:** Teacher requests a pupil to do something and gives an explanation for the request.

3.**Threat and warning:** Teacher makes student aware that if they not do what the teacher want them to do they will be upset.

4.**Remind rules:** Although there is no any misbehaviour, teacher may repeat, clarify or justify a rule or appropriate behaviour in order to decrease existence of misbehaviours.

5.**Involve pupil (s) in work:** The teacher involves the pupil(s) in the task. E.g. asking questions to prevent emergence of misbehaviour.

6.**Encouragement:** The teacher encourage pupils to behave properly on that day.

7.**Proximity:** The teacher moves near the pupil to within one yard of him/hers or goes over to the pupil to prevent misbehaviour without intervention.

8.**Gesture:** The teacher draws attention of student expressing the meaningless voice in terms of shhhhhhhh although there was no misbehaviour in order to prevent possible misbehaviour.

2. TEACHER RESPONSE TO STUDENT MISBEHAVIOUR.

a) Teachers' verbal behaviour:

1.**Order to cease:**Telling the student immediately to stop what they are doing in terms of misbehaviour.

2.**Reprimand:** Using strong negative languages against student. Criticise somebody harshly.

3.**Statement of rules:** "The teacher may repeat, clarify or justify classroom rule or describe required expected behaviour." (Wragg et al. 1979; p.11).

4.**Pupil named:** Make the individual student aware through calling his/her name.

5.**Humour:** "A deliberate attempt by the teacher to make a humorous response." (Wragg et al. 1979; p.11). Making fun of somebody in a gentle tone.

6.**Involve pupil (s) in work:** The teacher immediately involves the pupil(s) in classroom activities when s/he met any pupil (s) misbehaviour.

7.**Encouragement:** It is given by the teacher in the context of deviance in order to encourage pupils' positive behaviour.

8.**Calling out:** Call students near teacher.

b) Teacher non-verbal behaviour:

1.**Gesture:** Teacher attract pupil(s) attention by movement of hands or head or express meaningless voice such as shhhhhhhh when s/he met any misbehaviour.

2.**Facial expression:** This includes eye contact with audience pupil (Wragg et al. 1979).

3.**Proximity:** Teacher immediately moves near the student or goes over to pupil in order to intervene present misbehaviour (Wragg et al. 1979).

4.Touch: Teacher may tap student on shoulder or turn them around. "Gentle restraint or a tap; it is distinguished from punishment- physical." (Wragg et al. 1979; p,11).

5.Dramatic pause: "A break in the teacher's speech used as an attention-catcher." (Wragg et al. 1979; p,11). Teacher stops deliberately and waits for student to stop misbehaviour.

c) Teacher punishment:

1. Pupil moved: Pupil is moved away from his/her friends or objects of distraction or moved nearer to the teacher (Wragg et al. 1979).

2. Physical Punishment: Pushing someone into a place or tapping them sharply on the shoulder or actual physical punishment.

3. Ridicule: "Heavy sarcasm by the teacher." (Wragg et al. 1979; p.12). Other students' laugh is a good indicator of ridicule. It is seen as making fun of somebody strongly.

3. STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR:

a) Student verbal behaviour:

1.Noisy or licit talking: Calling out, making remarks, talking back, whispering, verbal clowning.

2.Interrupting another pupil: Verbally or physically stopping, or irritating friends during lesson.

3.Insulting another pupil: Behaving rudely and saying rude words to friends. Offensive, insulting, insolent remarks. Verbal abuse towards other pupils. Teasing somebody.

4.Insulting the teacher: Behaving rudely and saying rude words to the teacher. Offensive, insulting, insolent or threatening remarks.

c) Student non-verbal behaviour:

1.**Illicit eating or drinking:** Illegally eating or drinking something. For example, chewing gum or eating sweet in the classroom etc.

2.**Taking something without permission:** Taking something that belongs to another pupil without permission this causes conflict between students.

3.**Inappropriate use of materials:** Twanging something or banging objects on the table, scraping chairs or making unnecessary noise with materials.

4.**Inappropriate movement:** Leaving a seat without permission. Being late to school / lesson, late in from play time / break or wandering around of an appropriate time.

5.**Day dreaming or mind wandering:** Disengagement of learning activities through daydreaming or mind wandering.

c) Miscellaneous:

1.**Defiance of teacher:** Refusing / failing to carry out instructions or to keep class or school rules.

2.**Physical aggression:** Physical aggression towards other pupils, for example, pushing, punching, striking other pupils or throwing things.

3.**Unsettling:** Not being ready for the lesson.

4.**Damage to materials:** Breaking objects, carving on desks, damaging furniture and fabric.

4. OUTCOMES OF STUDENT - TEACHER INTERACTION:

In this section, the names of items were again taken from Wragg's classifications (Wragg, 1979; p.14 and Wragg, 1993; p.65) but the content of the items were mostly rewritten by the author.

OUTCOME OF STUDENT BEHAVIOUR

1. **Pupil (s) silent:** Student does not show any verbal reaction to teacher's response

2. **Pupil (s) accept(s) teacher's action:** Student accepts his/her misbehaviour. After misbehaviour occurs, student gives acceptance response to teacher's questions like do you understand your fault?

3. **Pupil (s) altercates or protest(s):** Pupils get noisy argue or disagree with teacher. Pupil object s or against to what the teacher did or intends to do.

OUTCOME OF MISBEHAVIOUR

1. **Misbehaviour ends:** Misbehaviour finishes.

2. **Misbehaviour lessens:** The amount and seriousness of the misbehaviour begin to decrease.

3. **Misbehaviour is sustained:** Similar amount and seriousness of misbehaviour keeps it going for a period of time (Wragg et al. 1979).

4. **Misbehaviour is increased:** The amount and seriousness of the misbehaviour begins to rise.

OUTCOME OF TEACHER BEHAVIOUR

1. **Teacher is calm:** Teacher is unaffected or hardly affected by the student's misbehaviour (Wragg et al. 1979).

2. **Teacher is agitated:** Teacher appears 'thrown' or annoyed by the deviant behaviours (Wragg et al. 1979). Teacher is so worried about misbehaviour that s/he is unable to think clearly or calmly.

3. **Teacher is angry:** "Teacher shows anger which may be real or 'faked'." (Wragg et al. 1979; p.13). Teacher feels or shows strong emotion about student misbehaviour.

5. AUDIENCE:

The fifth section is related to teacher response's audience. This section is constructed originally by the researcher. It contains twelve different audience.

1. **To an individual boy:** Teacher's responses addressed to only one individual boy.

2. **To an individual girl:** Teacher's responses addressed to only one individual girl.

3. **To a boy pair:** Teacher's responses addressed to only boy pair.

4. **To a girl pair:** Teacher's responses addressed to only girl pair.

5. **To a mixed pair:** Teacher's responses addressed to only a boy and girl pair.

6. **To the whole class:** Teacher's responses addressed the class as a whole.

7. **To a group:** Teacher's responses addressed to more than two pupils.

8. **To a boy for the class:** Although teacher's responses seem to be addressed only to one individual boy the whole class share the teacher's response.

9. **To a boy for a group:** Although teacher's responses seem to be addressed to only one individual boy, the group share the teacher's response.

10. **To a girl for the class:** Although teacher's responses seem to be addressed to only one individual girl the whole class share the teacher's response.

11.**To a girl for a group:** Although teacher's responses seem to be addressed to only one individual girl, the group shares the teacher's response.

12.**To a group for the class:** Although teacher's responses seem to addressed the group the whole class share the teacher's response.

6. ACTIVITIES:

In Britain, generally primary students sit in groups but they do not work as a group. How students sit and work is not straightforward. Therefore every possible organisational arrangement is given separately. Both sections have been constructed originally by the researcher.

1. **Individual seat work:** Pupil work alone at his/her desk. The pupil may be reading or writing, or working on a mathematics problem. Whatever it is that s/he is doing it on his or her own.

2. **Whole class teaching:** Whole class teaching appears to place the emphasis on questioning or giving statements to the whole class. Much of the learning is teacher managed. It is concerned with the transmission of factual information or asking open or closed questions.

3. **Group work:** Usually 4 to 6 student together for seating or learning purposes. This is predominantly used for co-operative learning studies. Students are assigned separate or the same task.

7. SIT

1. **Alone:** Students sit on any chair or table alone.

2. **Group:** Students sit around a table with more than two other students.

3. **Class:** Whole class.

4. **Pair:** Students sit on a chair or around a table with only one more student.

8. STUDENT TASK ENGAGEMENT OBSERVATION:

To be rated on-task and off-task the pupil must be do these following:

ON-TASK BEHAVIOUR:

1. Listening to the teacher.

2. Listening to another child asked by the teacher to speak or following instructions.

3. Eye contact with the teacher when requested.

4. Eye contact with the text book and materials when asked to get on.

5. Following instructions.

6. Helping other children or looking at their own work.

7. Attending or interacting with the teacher.

8. Collecting resources.

OFF-TASK BEHAVIOUR:

1. Being out of seat without permission and moving around.

2. Distracting and interrupting other children.

3. Queuing.

4. Turning around in seat.

5. Making unnecessary noise .

6. Hindering other children.

7. Looking away from their work and not attending to the teacher.

8. Engaging in talk unrelated to the task set.

9. Not maintaining eye contact with the teacher when s/he was explaining set tasks to the whole class.

10. Preventing other children from working by taking their apparatus (pencils or rulers).

11. Not maintaining eye contact with the book, the blackboard or the apparatus with which they are working.

APPENDIX III: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT RESEARCH'S INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

PERSONAL QUESTIONS

1. How old are you?

2. How many years have you been teaching?

3. What is you bachelor degree?

4. What is the age range of your students?

5. What is the current number of your students? Girls? And boys?

6. What is the socio-economic standards of your school area?

7. Did you take any course related with classroom management and organisation?

CLASSROOM SETTING

1. Could you describe your actual classroom layout?

2. Has your classroom been arranged this way since the beginning of the year?

   - If not what other arrangements have you used?

   - When did you last change?

3. Which factors determine your seating arrangements?

   - Student characteristics,

   - Classroom's physical characteristics

   - Others

4. How often do you change your classroom?

- Seating arrangements?

- Other aspects of classroom?

- On what basis do you change your classroom arrangements?

5. In what ways does the layout of the classroom influence your teaching?

6. How can you adjust the layout of the classroom to suit your teaching?

BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

1. What would you regard as misbehaviour in your present class?

- Can you give me some examples?

- when did they last occur?

2. What kind of student behaviour causes most problems in your classroom?

- How often do they occur?

3. What types of misbehaviour are presently occurring in your classroom?

- Depending on sex of the pupils?

- During certain type of activities?

- During certain type of lessons?

- During certain type of seating location?

- Depending on the time of day?

- Are there any particular situations involving a combination of these above ?

- How would you describe students who appear to be causing problems?

4. How do you deal with misbehaviours when it occurs?

    - Can you give me an actual example?

    - Do you try to anticipate misbehaviour? In what ways?

    - Do you use sanctions or rewards, when they occur? If so when?

5. What kind of methods do you use to prevent misbehaviour?

    - Have these methods changed over the time that you have been teaching?

    - How do your children learn what is the expected correct behaviour in your classroom?

6. What is your typical responses when a student in your classroom is

    - excessively noisy

    - engaged an illicit talk

    - Interrupting another pupil

    - Insulting another pupil

    - Insulting the teacher

    - showing physical aggression towards other pupil

    - engaged in illicit eating or drinking

    - showing defiance to the teacher

    - taking something without permission

- is unsettled

- engaging in inappropriate movement

- using materials inappropriately

- damaging materials

7. How did you teach your students to behave properly in the classroom?

    - How did you teach your students acceptable and unacceptable behaviour?

8. Have you change your behaviour management methods since

    - you began teaching? If so why? In what ways?

    - you have had this class? If so why? In what ways?

9. What did you do at the beginning of the school year to teach classroom rules and procedures?

10. How has student behaviour changed since the first weeks of school?

11. Does student behaviour ever influence your teaching ?

    - In what ways does student misbehaviour influence your teaching?

12. In what ways does the classroom layout effect student behaviour?

13. In what ways do some classroom layouts lead to greater misbehaviour?

    - Can you give me some examples?

14. Are there any classroom behaviour rules or standards in your classroom? If so what?

    - Do they affect what you do in your classroom? In what ways?

15. What are your goals for student behaviour or discipline in the classroom?

16.How would you define ideal student behaviour?

TURKISH TRANSLATION OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT RESEARCH'S INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

SINIF YONETIMI ARASTIRMASI GORUSME (INTERVIEW) SORULARI

KISISEL BILGILER

1. Kac yasindasiniz

2. Kac yildir ogretmenlik yapiyorsunuz?

3. Universiteden mezun oldugunuz bransiniz nedir?

4. Hangi yas grubunu ogretiyorsunuz?

5. Kac ogrenciniz var? Kaci kiz, kaci erkek?

6. Okulunuzun bulundugu semtin sosyo ekenomik duzeyi nedir?

7. Sinif yonetimi ve organizasyonu ile iliskili herhangi bir kursa katildiniz veya ders aldinizmi?

SINIF ORGANIZASYONU

8. Sinifinizin fiziksel duzenini ve oturma bicimini tarif edermisiniz?

9. Sinifiniz donem basindan beri bu sekildemi duzenlend?

   - eger boyle degilse ne gibi baska duzenlemeler yaptiniz?

   - en son ne zaman degistirdiniz?

10. Sinifinizin oturma duzenini hangi faktorler belirler?

   - ogrencilerin ozellikleri?

- sinifin fiziki ozellikleri?

- diger etkenler?

11.Ne siklikla sinifinizin fiziksel gorunumunu degistiriyorsunuz?

- oturma duzeni?

- sinifinizin diger gorunumu?

- neye dayali olarak sinifinizin duzenini degistirirsiniz?

12.Sinifinizin fiziksel duzeni (oturma duzeni) ogretiminizi ne sekilde etkiliyor?

13.Sinifinizin genel fiziksel duzenini ogretim biciminize uydurmak icin ne sekilde degistiriyorsunuz?

DAVRANIS YONETIMI

1. Sinifinizda istenmeyen ve sinif ortamina uygun olmayan davranis denildiginde ne anliyorsunuz?

- ornek verebilirsiniz?

- en son ne zaman goruldu?

2. Sinifinizda ne tur ogrenci davranislari problem olusturmaktadir?

- ne siklikta gorulmekte?

3. Sinifinzda, ne tur sinifin yapisina uygun olmayan ve istenmeyen davranislar gorulmektedir?

- ogrencilerin cinsiyetine bagli olarak,

- belirli aktiviteler sirasinda,

- belirli dersler sirasinda

- sinifin oturma duzeninin belirli taraflarinda,

- gunun belirli saatlerinde,

- yukaridaki verilen davranislarin bir kacinin birarada goruldugu durumlar varmi?

- sinifinizda problem olusturan ogrencileri nasil tarif edermisiniz?

4. Sinifinizda istenmeyen, uygunsuz davranislar oldugunda bunlarin ustesinden nasil geliyorsunuz?

   - basinizda gecen ornekler verebilirmisiz?

   - istenmeyen ve uygunsuz davranislari ortaya cikmalarindan once tahmin etmeye calisiyormusunuz? Ne sekilde?

   - istenmeyen davranislar goruldugunde ceza veya odul kullaniyormusunuz? Kullaniyorsaniz ne zamanlari?

5. Sinif ortaminiza uygun olmayan ve Istenmeyen davranislari onlemek icin ne tur methodlar kullaniyorsunuz?

   - bu methodlar ogretmenliginiz suresince degistimi?

   - sinifinizda ogrenciler istenilen, uygun davranislari nasil ogreniyor?

6. Sinifnizda her hangi bir ogrenci asagidaki davranislari gosterdiginde genellikle ne tur tepki veriyorsunuz?

   - cok gurultu cikardiginda,

   - gizlice konusmaya angaje oldugunda,

   - diger bir ogrenciyi rahatsiz ediyor veya engelliyorsa,

- diger bir ogrenciye karsi kotu soz kullandiginda,

- ogretmene (size) karsi kotu soz kullandiginda,

- diger bir ogrenciye yonelik fiziksel saldiri gosterdiginde (satastiginda),

- istenmeyen bir zamanda yeyip iciyorsa

- sizin istemlerinize karsi koydugunda,

- izinsiz herhangi birsey aldiginda,

- ders baslamasina ragmen henuz yerlesmediginde,

- uygun olmayan hareket veya eylemlerde bulundugunda,

- ders materyellerini amaci disinda kullandiginda,

- ders veya okul arac ve gereclerine zarar verdiginde.

7. Ogrencilerinize sinifta uygun davranis gostermeyi nasil ogrettiniz?

- ogrencilerinize istenilen ve istenilmeyen davranislari nasil ogretiyorsunuz?

8. Davranislari yonetme metotlarinizi ogretmenlige basladiginizdan beri degistirdinizmi? Degistirdiyseniz nicin? Hangi yonlerden?

- Davranislari yonetme metotlarinizi su anki sinifinizi aldiginizdan beri degistirdinizmi? Eger degistirdiyseniz nicin? Hangi yonlerden?

9. Ogretim yilinin basinda, sinif kural ve prosedurunu ogrencilerinize ogretmek icin neler yaptiniz?

10.Ogrenci davranislari donemin ilk haftasindan beri ne sekilde degisti?

11.Ogrencilerinizin davranislari ogretiminizi etkiliyormu?

- ogrenci problemleri ogretiminizi ne sekilde etkiliyor?

12.Sinifin genel fiziksel duzeni ogrenci davranislarini ne sekilde etkiliyor?

13.Sinifinizin fiziksel duzeni, istenmeyen ve uygunsuz davranislarin ortaya cikmasina ne sekilde yol aciyor? Bir kac ornek verebilirmisiniz?

14.Sinifinizda, sinif ici davranis kurallari veya standartlari varmi? Varsa nelerdir?

- bunlar sizin ne yaptiginizi etkiliyormu? Ne sekilde?

15.Sinifdaki ogrenci disiplini ve davranisina iliskin hedefleriniz nelerdir?

16.Ideal ogrenci davranislarini tanimlarmisiniz?

PGCE STUDENTS' CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT RESEARCH INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

PERSONAL QUESTIONS

1. How old are you?

2. What is you bachelor degree?

3. What is the age range of your students?

4. What is the current number of your students? Girls? And boys?

5. What is the socio-economic standards of your school area?

6. Did you take any course related with classroom management and organisation?

CLASSROOM SETTING

1. Could you describe your actual classroom layout?

2. Has your classroom been arranged this way since the beginning of the your school practice?

    - If not what other arrangements have you used?

    - When did you last change?

3. Which factors determine your seating arrangements?

    - Student characteristics,

    - Classroom's physical characteristics

    - Others

4. In what ways does the layout of the classroom influence your teaching?

5. How can you adjust the layout of the classroom to suit your teaching?

BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

1. What would you as misbehaviour in your present class?

   - Can you give me some examples?

   - when did they last occur?

2. What kind of student behaviour causes most problems in your classroom?

   - How often do they occur?

3. What types of misbehaviour are presently occurring in your classroom?

   - Depending on sex of the pupils?

   - During certain type of activities?

   - During certain type of lessons?

   - During certain type of seating location?

   - Depending on time of day?

   - Are there any particular situations involving a combination of these above?

   - How would you describe students who appear to be causing problems?

4. How do you deal with misbehaviours when it occurs?

   - Can you give me an actual example?

   - Do you try to anticipate misbehaviour? In what ways?

   - Do you use sanctions or rewards, when they occur? If so when?

5. What kind of methods do you use to prevent misbehaviour?

- Have these methods changed over the time that you have been teaching?

- How do your children learn what is the expected correct behaviour in your classroom?

6. What is your typical responses when a student in your classroom is

- excessively noisy

- engaged an illicit talk

- Interrupting another pupil

- Insulting another pupil

- Insulting the teacher

- showing physical aggression towards other pupil

- engaged in illicit eating or drinking

- showing defiance to the teacher

- taking something without permission

- is unsettled

- engaging in inappropriate movement

- using materials inappropriately

- damaging materials

7. How did you teach your students to behave properly in the classroom?

- How did you teach your students acceptable and unacceptable behaviour?

8. Does student behaviour ever influence your teaching ?

  - In what ways does student misbehaviour influence your teaching?

9. In what ways does the classroom layout effect student behaviour?

10. In what ways do some classroom layouts lead to greater misbehaviour?

  - Can you give me some examples? ·

11. Are there any classroom behaviour rules or standards in your classroom? If so what?

  - Do they affect what you do in your classroom? In what ways?

12. What are your goals for student behaviour or discipline in the classroom?

13. How would you define ideal student behaviour?