Students’ Indiscipline in the Classroom

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Abstract: The overview study is based on 121 foreign research papers dated 1986–2018. It focuses on studies conducted in the Euro-American sociocultural environment. The overview study is concerned with the manifestations of students’ indiscipline especially in primary and secondary schools. The study is divided into five parts. The first part shows why it is difficult to define student indiscipline and how varied the terminology is. In addition, different types of students’ indiscipline are characterized. The second part summarizes factors influencing student’s indiscipline. They include: special characteristics of the students themselves, their classmates, teachers, the entire class, interactions between the teacher and the class; special characteristics of the respective school, school district, students’ family background, educational system of the respective country and its school policies. The third part of the study offers an overview of methods used to identify students’ indiscipline (examples of qualitative, quantitative and mixed approach). The fourth part discusses the consequences of students’ indiscipline, namely the impact of classroom misbehavior on teachers, classmates and their learning, the overall instruction and its results, classroom climate, school climate and the entire country. The fifth and final part presents three conceptual approaches aimed at helping solve classroom misbehavior: the historically oldest approach is based on the teacher, i.e. the system of punishments and rewards; the second approach centers around the student, his or her self-control and self-regulation and auto-regulation; and the final approach is built on a group of students, communication between the students and their teachers regarding appropriate classroom behavior, group decision-making and peer pressure on misbehaving classmates. The study points out that mere repression or elimination of classroom misbehavior is not enough, as it is necessary to, at the same time, develop also positive classroom behavior.

Keywords: students, teachers, classroom indiscipline, influencing factors, indiscipline diagnostics, indiscipline consequences, indiscipline solutions

The overview study is focused on the topic of indiscipline in the classroom, i.e. the negative manifestation of students’ behavior during instruction, whereas the positive manifestation of students’ behavior, i.e. discipline, is mentioned only to the extent necessary.

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Koutsellini (2002) distinguishes three basic assumptions forming the basis of the existing disciplinary practices in education: (1) “rules of discipline”, rationally defined and accepted without a thorough discussion, applied in everyday life and in all interpersonal relations; (2) teachers’ insistence on similar behavior from their students, and teachers’ tendency to categorize students according to their common external behavior (the bright ones, the lazy, etc.); (3) discipline based on a thought-through system of punishments and rewards. These three assumptions need to be reconsidered, as they are historically conditioned and tend to oversimplify the issue.

Sugai and Horner (2002, p. 25) aptly argue that: „In the long term, reactive and punishment-based responses create a false sense of security. ... Antisocial behavior events are inadvertently reinforced. Most importantly, the school’s primary function to provide opportunities for teaching and academic engagement is decreased”. Worldwide experience shows that negative student behavior cannot be simply reduced by the effort of individual teachers but must become a schoolwide and nationwide matter. Moreover, it is not just a matter of reducing negative manifestations of student behavior, but these efforts must be accompanied by the parallel introduction of programs that make the instruction more interesting and provide both students and teachers with the opportunity to develop a positive student behavior.

Therefore, the issue of school indiscipline and student misbehavior should be subjected to a closer examination.

This review study has 5 objectives: (1) define the term student indiscipline in the classroom and characterize different types of indiscipline; (2) summarize factors that influence student indiscipline; (3) name methods used to study student indiscipline; (4) characterize the consequences of school indiscipline; (5) describe the latest conceptual approaches that should help address classroom indiscipline.

This review study covers mainly the period 1986–2017 and used the following 8 criteria to select the relevant literature: (1) key words: (indiscipline OR misbehavior) AND student AND school AND classroom AND teacher; (2) database Science Direct (1 176 results); (3) focus mainly on works from the Euro-American sociocultural environment (i.e. studies concerning manifestations of student misbehavior in, for instance, African countries, the Caribbean or the Middle East etc. were not included); (4) selection of studies concerning indiscipline in primary and secondary schools, in very
few cases also universities; (5) focus only on school indiscipline, namely in the classroom during instruction; (6) focus on indiscipline during “scientific” classes (i.e. subjects like physical education, musical or art lessons were not included); (7) focus on mutual misbehavior among students themselves, classroom indiscipline during instruction, misbehavior towards the teacher, school rules violations; (8) focus on real, personal and interpersonal interaction among students themselves or students and teachers. The area of inappropriate behavior in electronic communication, e.g. online class involving also a teacher (see Li, 2012), was not included. The review study includes the total of 121 foreign publications.

1 Definition of Indiscipline and Types of Indiscipline

Defining indiscipline is not an easy task. Simple negation, i.e. the lack of discipline or a discipline problem (Lochan, 2010, p. 17), would not be sufficiently accurate. Finding a definition of indiscipline is complicated for at least 5 reasons.

Firstly, the term can be viewed from the point of view of different scientific fields, e.g. pedagogy, psychology, sociology (Silva, Negreiros, & Albano, 2017), but also religion (Ratto, 2002; Ackerman, 2008), law (Rubel, Ames, & Zax, 1986), history (Goodrich, 2009), or health care (Simons-Morton et al., 1999).

Secondly, it can be viewed from the point of view of various actors: student as an individual, groups of students, school class (Lewis, 2001; Bru, Stephens, & Torsheim, 2002); teacher as an individual, groups of teachers, teaching staff (Johnson et al., 2017; Silva et al., 2017), principal (Hartzell & Petrie, 1992; Sterrett & JohnBull, 2009); administrator (Nelson, 2002), behavioral coordinator (Trotman, Tucker, & Martyn, 2015), school psychologist (Morrison & Skiba, 2001); inspection authorities; school authority, but also teachers (Miller et al., 2002) or researchers studying students’ indiscipline. Each of the above stakeholders looks at indiscipline through a slightly different perspective.

Thirdly, the term can be viewed differently with regard to its scope: indiscipline at the classroom level, indiscipline at the school level (e.g. Dalgıç & Bayhan, 2014) and indiscipline at higher levels, e.g. at town or region levels. A special category is the definition and study of indiscipline at the national level (Sugai et al., 2000).
Fourthly, the term can be viewed from different conceptual standpoints: indiscipline can be understood as a dichotomy (Fig. 1) or as a continuum (Fig. 2), but also as a multi-level phenomenon, graded according to its seriousness (Fig. 3), or as a cluster (Fig. 4).

Figure 1. Dichotomic view of discipline.

The dichotomic approach assumes that it is possible to draw a firm dividing line between discipline and indiscipline and clearly distinguish between various types of student behavior and place each behavioral manifestation into one of the two basic groups regardless of the actors, causes of indiscipline, situational context or the recipient of the misbehavior; and do so regardless of the frequency with which these incidents occur (single manifestation of indiscipline or repeated incidents), regardless of potential consequences for both the teacher and the students, for teaching or students’ learning.

Figure 2. Continuous approach to discipline-indiscipline.
The continuous approach to discipline-indiscipline takes a more cautious approach. It assumes different degrees of seriousness of students’ indiscipline from relatively mild manifestations of indiscipline (idling, playing with personal things, using the mobile phone for texting during class, listening to music) to more serious ones (harassing classmates, chasing inside the classroom, behaving disobediently, destroying school property, engaging in miscreant behavior). Some authors consider even very serious forms of misbehavior as manifestations of indiscipline even though these would be classified as school crimes (Rubel et al., 1986), e.g. sexual delicts, carrying of weapons in school, threatening the school with a bomb attack, provable bodily harm etc. Therefore, Ruiz (1998) for instance asks an eligible question: Is this truly just indiscipline or violence? Golarte (2010) points out that it is necessary to take the nature of school events into consideration and distinguish especially between indiscipline and physical violence or bullying.

Experts answered these questions through a multilevel indiscipline approach clearly distinguishing between different levels of misbehavior according to the gravity of negative student behavior (Fig. 3).

Figure 3. Multi-level indiscipline approach.

One example for all. B. Charlot distinguishes four levels of misbehavior: the first level comprises an ostentatious indifference of students towards learning. The second level consists of breaches of good manners, e.g. slamming the door in the face of another student or even a teacher. The third level is represented by a disrespect for school rules, unruliness, rudeness, while the forth level comprises real violence, involving physical attacks or serious injury which should be punished by law (quoted according to Kurtz, 2000).
Apart from multi-level approach to indiscipline, literature also works with “cluster” approach, which characterizes various forms of undisciplined student behavior as clusters based on different aspects rather than on the gravity of misbehavior (Fig. 4).

Here is an example of three clusters defined by their topic. According to Freire and Amado (2009), the first group includes cases where undisciplined conduct interferes with classroom instruction. The second group is represented by mutual conflicts among the students. Conflicts between a student/students and the teacher fall into the third group.

And, finally, here is the fifth reason why it is difficult to define indiscipline, and that is the changing terminology. Indiscipline and misbehavior are the two terms most frequently found in literature. Apart from them, terms like misconduct, school disorder, behavioral difficulties in school, poor behavior, troublesome behavior, unacceptable behavior appear, each of these terms being described by slightly different prevailing signs.

Student deviant behavior is another term found in literature.\(^1\) Blegur et al. (2017, p. 37) characterize this term as follows:

\(^1\) It is important to note that deviant behavior is usually understood either neutrally, or negatively. The neutral concept is known in sociology where deviant behavior is defined as deviation from normal behavior, where the deviation may be positive or negative. In pedagogy and psychology, this term is usually reserved for negative behavior only.
Deviant behavior delineates an action which contravenes with both formal and informal applicable regulations in social communities (family, community, and school). A scientific research conducted has elaborated the behavior of individual indiscipline in which susceptible to teenagers. For example: (1) drug abuse, (2) wicked behavior, (3) physical abuse, (4) vandalism, (5) intimidation, (6) do not listen to the given instruction, (7) alcoholic drinks consumption, (8) absent, (9) inability or unwillingness to perform a task or homework, (10) mendacious habit, (11) stealing, (12) disrespect to the teachers, (13) plagiarism, (14) disrupting friend, (15) break the regulations despite repeatedly warned, (16) against the authority, (17) combustion, (18) attacking or fighting, (19) deceitfulness, and (20) disobedience.

After these general considerations, here are a few examples of some definitions formulated by researchers:

Koutselini (2002, p. 354) defines student indiscipline as “any student behavior that deviates from school expectations”.

According to Magwa and Ngara (2014, p. 89), indiscipline is “misbehavior in any or all of the following areas; respect for school authority, obedience of rules and regulations, and maintenance of established standards of behavior”.

Johnson et al. (2017, p. 55) states that misbehavior means “behaviors that disrupt learning, student misbehaviors have consistently proven to be a detriment to classrooms across grade levels and contexts”.

In some studies, teachers define indiscipline the same way as researchers. They generally describe it as “students’ behaviors, like disobeying school rules and norms of living standards with their teachers and peers” (Silva, 2017, p. 7).

It must be noted, however, that any definition of indiscipline has more than just one “objective” side, i.e. negative behavior of a student or students which can be observed and proved. From psychology perspective, it also includes students’ behavior as it is subjectively perceived, experienced and evaluated by an individual. For example, among teachers, the same student behavior in the classroom can be evaluated by one teacher as inappropriate behavior (misbehavior), while another teacher will not perceive it as inappropriate and will tolerate it. Gokmenoglu, Eret and Kirazb (2010) proved this in an article entitled Single Problem – Multiple Responses. As part of qualitative research, they presented nine different types of inappropriate student behavior to
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They asked them how they would evaluate such behavior, and how they would react. For example, in the situation where a student is noisy during class, some teachers said they would ignore such behavior; others would punish the student immediately. Similar differences can be discovered in other actors who evaluate student behavior. Specific issues related to perception of student behavior arise when teachers and students come from a different culture. The core of the problem is best illustrated by this question: is this a misbehavior or misinterpretation? (Monroe, 2006).

So far, this text has described individual types of student misbehavior as separate and, in fact, static phenomena. However, it is evident that misbehavior is manifested dynamically, i.e. it changes in time. It may lose intensity following efficient measures; if it is left without an appropriate response, it may repeat itself, or even grow. Research by Ratcliff et al. (2011) identified the following cycle in its observations: (1) student’s misbehavior, (2) teacher’s attempt to control the misbehavior, (3) student persistence in continued misbehavior, (4) teacher retreating in frustration, and (5) an increase in student misbehavior. It also happens that student misbehavior gradually transforms and escalates into graver forms of violent behavior. For this reason, misbehavior must be followed carefully to predict possible school violence and look for the most reliable prediction models (Morrison & Skiba, 2001; McIntosh, Frank, & Spaulding, 2010) for timely prevention.

It must be added that certain forms of student indiscipline are not a permanent feature of certain students – they are linked to a certain stage of human development and manifest in most students. In other words: minor misbehavior is developmentally normal for children and adolescents (Bear, Cavalier, & Manning, 2005).

2 Factors Influencing Student Indiscipline

These may be investigated from the point of view of researchers, teachers, students (Lambert & Miller, 2010) and parents. This overview offers predominantly a researcher view. The initial reflection of the factors influencing student behavior goes as follows: student indiscipline in class has more than one reason; it is usually influenced by many reasons each impacting the resulting behavior to a different degree with different students.
Factors which have an influence on manifestations of indiscipline in students in school environment can be arranged in the following ascending order according to their degree of generality.

**Student-specific factors.** The list of student-specific factors begins with sociocultural factors. Undisciplined student behavior may be influenced by the fact that the student is a member of a lower social group; this can be the reason why the student is different and, sometimes, why the student tries to attract attention (Ruiz, 1998). Classmates may display inappropriate behavior towards a student of different ethnicity (Ruiz, 1998) or an immigrant (Peguero, 2015).

**Health-related factors are a separate group.** A student suffering from vision or hearing impairment may appear disruptive because mild visual or hearing disabilities may not be readily apparent to a teacher (Kuhlenschmidt & Layne, 1999). Handicapped students started to appear in classrooms as the result of inclusion policy. Students with disabilities demonstrate a new pattern of problematic behavior potentially leading to suspension. Unlike their nondisabled classmates, they may, in some cases, have difficulty demonstrating socially appropriate behaviors (Dwyer, 2009). Students with disabilities may also be exposed to contempt or bullying by their healthy classmates (Carter & Spencer, 2006). Chronic diseases of students, such as diabetes, chronic pain, arthritis, can produce increased irritability (Kuhlenschmidt & Layne, 1999). In the upper grades, risks related to using prescription drugs, recreational drugs and other psychotropic substances arise. All the above agents modify students’ behavior in general, and they may appear in schools. Students whose behavior has gone to extremes (overly active, drowsy) from their typical behavior may be reacting to or recovering from some substance (Kuhlenschmidt & Layne, 1999).

Gender has also been linked to student misbehavior. In many studies, male students have been found to have greater rates of misbehavior than do female students (Giancola-Poland, 1998).

Another group which can influence manifestations of indiscipline in students are the psychological factors. Those include, for instance, student’s self-esteem, student’s academic self-concept, student’s school commitment and attachment (Giancola-Poland, 1998), behavioral syndrome of students’ indiscipline in teaching and learning process (Blegur et al., 2017).
Finally, there is the group of academic factors. Student’s school achievement and grades come first. Literature does not clarify whether students’ poor achievement affects poor behavior or whether poor behavior influences poor achievement or whether the relationship is mutually reciprocating (Giancola-Poland, 1998). In some classes, students with excellent academic performance have a difficult position. Being different from the rest, they often become the target of bullying (Ruiz, 1998). Student’s involvement or participation in school also plays a part. The higher the degree of involvement, the lower is the probability of misbehavior.

Specific factors of classmates and peers at school. As their age increases, students find their classmates’ and peers’ opinions more and more relevant; they do not want to be different. They try to be noticed, accepted in the group, admired. Therefore, it makes a difference whether most classmates adopt a positive or a negative approach to school and studying. This means that classmates and peers may have both positive and negative impact. Research by Giancola-Poland (1998, p. 87) found that “…influence an adolescent’s peers can have on his or her misbehavior cannot be underestimated and should not be ignored, as it was found to explain student behavior better than any other variable”.

Teacher-related specifics. Teacher’s extraversion, teacher’s efficacy in handling student misbehavior as a domain-specific type of teacher efficacy are personality-related specifics (Tsouloupas et al., 2014). Negative pedagogical and psychological features of a teacher include: impatience, grouchiness, moodiness, irritability, irateness, pessimism, easy frustration (Linsin, 2011). Important professional specifics include, for example, teaching experience (Tsouloupas et al., 2014), quality of teaching (Gazmuri, Manzi, & Paredes, 2015), discipline management styles and their effectiveness (Lewis, 2001; Gazmuri et al., 2015)

Class-related specifics. These are determined by class composition and classroom climate: Students’ acceptance of problem behavior tends to vary depending on the class-wide behavior. To the extent that students in classroom behaving aggressively tend to be rated by their peers more favorably when enrolled in classrooms where aggressive behavior is the norm (Stormshak et al., 1999).
Research shows that the presence of more than one undisciplined and disruptive student in a class has double negative impact: both on social adaptation of other children, and on the teacher. The teacher experiences higher levels of stress and often delivers negative reaction not only to disruptive students but to the class as a whole, to all students. This has a destructive impact on teacher-student relationship (Buyse et al., 2008).

Specifics related to teacher-student interaction. Specifics related to teacher-student interaction may arise from intercultural differences between the teacher and his/her students. This statement can be illustrated by the British experiment staged in Bohunt School in Hampshire (Jing, 2016). This experiment, which lasted for one month, was documented by BBC. In this experiment, five Chinese teachers took over a British classroom with 50 teenagers aged 13 and 14. Neither the teachers nor the students expected that cultural differences between the teachers’ and the students’ custom ways would be so substantial. Chinese teachers worked the way they were used to: no talking, no questions, wearing a special uniform and experiencing the harsh classroom discipline within an extended school-hour from 7am to 7pm. Towards the end of the program, some of the British students declared that they found it very difficult to adjust to the Chinese style of instruction. They described their Chinese teachers as “rude” and “unreasonable”. The view of the Chinese teachers was different: they believed that the classroom was always “chaotic” and that the British students were “unmannerly” and “lacking respect to others”.

Specifics of interaction between the teacher and the students may also be determined by inappropriateness of the teacher’s behavior towards the students. Hyman and Perone summarized this in the following concise statement: “Victimization of students by school staff, most often in the name of discipline, is seldom recognized as a problem that may contribute to student alienation and aggression” (1998, p. 7). In such cases, this is not so much about physical punishment applied to students as about much more sophisticated approaches which could be jointly called psychological maltreatment. These include, for instance, sarcasm, name calling, ridicule, denigrating statements, mental cruelty. Researchers have identified even graver cases: providing negative and destructive role models, exposing children to systematic bias and prejudice (Hart & Brassard, 1987). What impact can this have? Empiric research by Lewis (2001) found statistically
significant correlation ($r = 0.29$) between undisciplined behavior of students and aggressive behavior of the teacher. Lewis offers three possible interpretations: it could be that coercive teachers promote misbehavior, or student misbehavior promotes an aggressive response from teachers, or both. The author of this text believes that such influence may be reciprocal.

However, this is not only about the teacher’s aggressive behavior. Another type of teacher’s behavior, one that also provokes students’ negative response, can be called teacher’s favoritism. It is based on the fact that some teachers have their favorites – their pets – among students, whom they prefer, undeservedly, from the point of view of other students. They give them better grades than they deserve, overlook their errors and tolerate their misbehavior. This irritates other students who often protest by displaying undisciplined behavior. Research of this phenomenon has a long-standing tradition (see e.g. Ripple, 1935) and has continued to the present day (Aydogan, 2008).

School-related specifics. School structural characteristics predictive of disorder included size (large school), staffing (high student/teacher ratio), and resources (low operating budgets for learning materials) (Welsh, Greene, & Jenkins, 1999). However, school climate is much more important than these administrative parameters. This term includes characteristics and conditions in schools that may promote or reduce school delinquency (Stewart, 2003). The climate of the school as a whole is the determining factor because it can influence to a significant degree how teachers perceive their students’ behavior (O’Brennan, Bradshaw, & Furlong, 2014). Research shows (e.g. Welsh et al., 1999) that school social bonds² play a substantial role in reducing school misbehavior. Simons-Morton et al. (1999) identified school bonding as a potential mediator of problem behavior. If schools compete successfully for students’ affiliation, students may remain more committed to academic achievement, and be less likely to engage in problem behaviors in and out of school. On the other hand, which variables of school climate allow prediction of, for example, victimization among students? According to Welsh et al. (1999) there are a total of four: respect for students, planning and action, fairness of rules, and clarity of rules.

² Social bond theory (Hirschi, 1969) is defined as follows: Elements of social bonding include attachment to families, commitment to social norms and institutions (school, employment), involvement in activities and belief that things are important.
Improving the climate in school is neither a simple task, nor can it be completed within a short period. For instance, transformation of an inner-city, low-achieving school with antisocial behavior among its students is possible but only under certain conditions: “Change in the demand level must be accompanied by a change in student opportunities for success, along with changes in the relational system in which expectations for behaviors are communicated and reinforced” (McEvoy & Welker, 2000, p. 136). Norms for conduct embodied in the school rules are important for students, teachers and parents. “… is very important for establishing expectations for appropriate and inappropriate behavior and for demonstrations of the seriousness of the rules” (Kuhlenschmidt & Layne, 1999, p. 52).

Specifics related to school districts. Usually, schools exist in a given geographic and social environment which has its own social problems. From an administrative point of view, this area belongs to a certain school district. Students from each catchment area usually go to a certain school which creates its specifics for the given school. Different context, in which schools work, is usually emphasized, because each community has its own cultural norms: urban schools (Monroe, 2006), inner-city schools (Mateu-Gelabert & Lune, 2007), schools in a small city (Free, 2014), rural schools (Funnell, 2009). In large cities, even “street codes” may be found (Mateu-Gelabert & Lune, 2007).

This can be illustrated using the example of two different contexts. A sociological survey was conducted to analyze work of inner-city schools in the U.S. (Mateu-Gelabert & Lune, 2007). The results revealed worrisome findings which are still linked to a specific location, and the question remains whether they can be generalized:

1. Students know the school codes – the norms and values they wish the school was run by – as well as the street codes. Many students hope that educational attainment will free them from the poverty and codes of conduct regulated by violence that they commonly refer to as “the street”. [...] the school is not only ill-equipped to control the presence of street codes, but it often does not even provide an alternative model of values or behavior.

2. In the students’ perceptions, the school does not see them as allies in education or as victims of the disruptive environment. [...] students in the most troubled schools who face consistent negative expectations do not receive much of either education or encouragement to learn. (Mateu-Gelabert & Lune, 2007, p. 187–188)
A socio-psychological survey (Funnell, 2009) analyzed the work of a rural school in Australia. It revealed two major findings: 1) It explained students’ problem behavior derived from conditions outside of a school and the influence on relations within it. The majority of relations (teacher-to-student, student-to-teacher, student-to-student and student and teacher to the curriculum) emanate from it. 2) The rural school population might be seen as homogenous. However, hierarchy can be found even within the municipality and its residues are contained in family histories, social alliances and divisions, which is reflected in teacher-student interaction.

Specifics related to students’ family background. The findings in literature confirm parental factors in relation to students’ misbehavior. Family conflicts and poor relationships among family members are associated with higher levels of substance use and association with deviant peers (Ary et al., 1999). Low parental involvement and inconsistent or inappropriate parent discipline, stressful family environment, parents exhibiting non-interest in their child’s education have equally negative impact (Giancola-Poland, 1998). Children from families where parents are not interested in seeing their children climb the social ladder or socialize lack social skills when they come to school. They often display hostility towards their classmates. Due to this, they are rejected by their classmates – as a result, students from such families experience disappointment. This, in turn, enforces their negative behavior towards other people (Patterson, 1997).

Parental involvement may prove to be one of the many ways of minimizing students’ misbehavior and relationship between school and family. Bringing this concept into practice though may be difficult. For instance, McCormick et al. (2013) identified three dimensions of this issue: home-based learning activities (e.g., helping with homework, maintaining study routines), home-school communication (e.g., attending parent-teacher conferences, writing notes to teacher) and school-based involvement (e.g., volunteering at school events, fundraising). However, a change in the relationship between the family and school clearly does not necessarily translate into universal improvement for the student. An American longitudinal study of parent involvement across a nationally representative sample at elementary schools found that while involvement did not predict increases in academic achievement, it did predict declines in problem behaviors (El Nokali, Bachman, & Votruba-Drzal, 2010).
Specifics related to the national system of education. Sun and Shek (2012) warn that indiscipline also depends on socio-cultural specifics of each country and, especially, its education system. Koutsellini (2002) suggests: Indiscipline of students manifested in the form of rule-breaking might be the students’ form of protesting against the world, in which there is no personal meaning of what the student is required to learn; it is a protest against the school climate, perceived by the students as negative. It is not based on quality human relationships and mutual communication – rather, it is based on impersonal rules and stereotypes.

The author of this text believes that the above is true especially for high school and university students who are no longer afraid to make their discontent with the system heard.

Specifics of overall national education policy. This can be illustrated by the following two examples. Dissatisfaction with the education system led to reforms in the second half of 1980s in England. Discipline and concerns about discipline were the key concepts for understanding those reforms (Turner, 1998).

Argentina tested a system of warning students against misbehavior at school. The system was based on a set of clearly defined rules of conduct and a corresponding number of penalty points recorded in a “warning report”. If a student reached 25 warning points, he or she was suspended from school, and had to take a comprehensive examination before being readmitted as a student (Narodowski, 1998).

Socio-cultural specifics of the given country as a whole. Sun and Shek (2012) emphasize that indiscipline depends on socio-cultural specifics of each country. For example, in the traditional Chinese culture, students who strictly followed teachers’ orders were regarded as excellent students, but students who kept on asking questions were regarded as “troublesome”.

Very fragile situations happen when the nation’s population is multicultural by nature; when students of different ethnicity meet in one school or in one classroom. In such situation, any deviation (even a small one!) in the teacher’s behavior towards students of a different ethnicity is perceived and experienced by both students and their parents as something inappropriate and discriminating. Such things are usually not one-sided; students of different ethnicity have a different family background; their parents have
a different approach to child rearing, and there are different criteria of conduct exercised by the community. This is usually reflected in the conduct of students in the classroom. For example, there is a debate in the U.S. whether indiscipline evaluation criteria are identical for all students, or whether students of some minorities receive warning and punishment more often than majority students. Results of research have not provided a clear answer.

The American National Center for Education Statistics (2016) published the following data on suspension and expulsion: 36% of Black students, 21% of Hispanic students, 14% of White students, and 6% of Asian students have been suspended or expelled from school. Of course, there are differences between the states. For example, research conducted in 2013–2016 in Texas revealed much less significant differences (Barnes et al., 2017).

The Educational Longitudinal Study 2002 (Lauff, Ingels, & Christopher, 2014) reported that students – immigrants of the second and third plus generation of African Americans and the third plus generation of Latin Americans in the U.S. will receive a warning and punishment at school with a higher probability, although their level of undisciplined conduct resembles that of their Caucasian classmates (Peguero et al., 2015).

One of the possible solutions to this problem could be what is known in literature as Culturally Responsive Classroom Management (Weinstein, Tomlinson-Clarke, & Curran, 2003, 2004).

This is the end of the first part of the study describing a set of factors having various degree of impact on classroom misbehavior. These factors were presented in the ascending order of generality.

Factors influencing student misbehavior can be also viewed by how researchers are trying to theoretically explain problematic behavior. For instance, Hyman (1997) put forward five conceptual models of behavior problems: psychodynamic, biophysical, cognitive-behavioral, humanistic, and ecological. The psychodynamic theory, based on Freud's works, attributes problem behavior to inadequate personality development from birth to age seven. The biophysical approach is based on the belief that behavioral problems are caused by a genetic defect, a disease, an injury, or a disorder. The cognitive-behavioral model postulates that behaviors are learned responses and can be changed through reinforcements (including verbal reinforcements) and punishments. The humanistic model is based
on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Children are believed to be innately good, and their misbehavior is the result of their needs being unmet or sense of freedom compromised. The ecological model hypothesizes that students’ behaviors are the result of a complex interaction of many forces acting between an individual and his or her environment.

3 Identification of Students’ Indiscipline

At the beginning, it is important to note that the level of indiscipline in any school or classroom is difficult to evaluate as a result of the absence of any statistically reliable definitions of „indiscipline” (Watt & Higgins, 1999). In order to assess indiscipline and be able to intervene in a targeted manner, it is crucial to understand the key root causes of misbehavior. There are several important questions that need to be asked:

- Is the misbehavior unintentional or intentional?
- If it is intentional, is it reactive or proactive?
- If the misbehavior is reactive, is it a reaction to threats, to feelings of self-determination, competence, or relatedness?
- If it is proactive, are there other interests that might successfully compete with satisfaction derived from deviant behavior? (Center for Mental Health, 2014)

Three basic methodological approaches can be distinguished to assess manifestations of students’ indiscipline: qualitative, quantitative and mixed. Each approached can be illustrated by several examples.

3.1 Qualitative approach

The following three examples were selected from the many qualitative studies: structured interview, semi-structured interview and multiple case studies.

The structured interview guide with 16 open-ended questions was used for each individual interview (Nelson, 2002). School level: elementary, intermediate, and middle schools, focusing on grades 5 through 8. Centre of analysis: predominantly school. Informants: 21 administrators, 22 tenured
students, and 20 parents. All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Data were analyzed by inductive analysis (according to Nelson and Guba).

Examples of questions for administrators:

To what extent do you think student misbehavior creates a problem for you, as well as teachers, parents and students? And how? Would you please give an example?

To what extent do you, as an administrator, have a say in determining discipline practices?

What types of communication concerning rules and discipline practices do you think would be beneficial?

Examples of questions for teachers:

What is your opinion about discipline practices in school and how do they affect teacher’s attitudes to school?

To what extent do you, as a teacher, have a say in determining discipline practices?

What types of communication concerning rules and discipline practices do you think would be beneficial?

Examples of questions for parents:

To what extent do you think student misbehavior creates a problem for schools, teachers, and administrators? How?

To what extent, if any, should you, as a parent, have a say in determining discipline practices?

What types of communication between school and parents concerning rules do you think would be beneficial?

The semi-structured interview guide was used for each individual interview (Sun & Shek, 2012). School level: junior secondary school. Centre of analysis: Classroom instruction. Informants: 18 students, nine boys and nine girls, with a mean age of 13.9 years old (range = 12–17 years old). The interviewees were asked to define “problem behaviors” based on their own understanding and interpretation. They were invited to use real-life examples to further illustrate their views. The interviews were audio-taped with informants’
prior consent and transcribed in verbatim after the interview. Data related to the following questions were analyzed:

In the classroom, what student problem behaviors are there? Please list out as many as possible and describe them.

Among these problem behaviors, which are the most common?

Among these problem behaviors, which are the most disruptive to teaching and learning?

Among these problem behaviors, which are the most unacceptable? Please illustrate.

The multiple case study was used for this research (Freire & Amado, 2009). School level: primary school, middle school. Centre of analysis: connections between school climate, student indiscipline and students' achievement. Eight case studies within schools situated in central Portugal. The following research methods were used: semi-structured interview (with principals, teachers, lesson representatives or class coordinators); direct observation, ethnographic observation, analysis of school documentation, questionnaire for students.

3.2 Quantitative approach

This section will present three examples of quantitative approaches: registers, standardized observation and questionnaires.

It is a known fact that collection of high quality and undistorted data is a sine qua non for a quantitative analysis and subsequent interpretation of the collected data. In most cases, it is up to the researchers themselves to collect relevant data.

Some countries try to prepare reviews and implement registers consisting of various forms concerning students' indiscipline in schools. Such forms are filled in by the teachers. The data obtained should help improve the recording and statistical processing of data on the prevalence and incidence of these negative phenomena. The data is collected through a single structured form used to record information on occurrence and individual characteristics of student misbehavior in the classroom. The records are then stored in a relevant database for further use.
The first form this study will mention is the Behavior Incident Report (BIR) from Georgetown University, U.S., aimed at facilitating individualized interventions to address challenging children behavior. The BIR is a one-page form divided into 6 sections: problem behavior, activity, others involved, possible motivation, strategy/response, comments (Blair & Fox, 2011, p. 10).

A more interesting and frequently used forms are the Office Discipline Referrals (ODRs). These are standardized records of events of problem behavior that occur in schools. The ODRs have been useful in identifying abnormally high patterns of indiscipline among minority students, identifying discipline patterns of students with and without disabilities, identifying improvements in school-wide systems, and staff training needs (Sugai et al., 2000). Standardized ODRs have also been tested as an efficient screening measure and a secondary measure that can be analyzed for student response to interventions within a multi-measure approach to assess individual student behavior (McIntosh et al., 2010).

*Standardized observation* (Ratcliff et al., 2010): The observers recorded the number and type of teacher and student interactions in classroom as well as the time-on-task. Data were collected during 40-minute observational segments in each classroom. Teacher behavior management interactions were coded as one of the following four categories: *teacher normative control* (teacher asked students to change their behavior); *teacher remunerative control* (teacher manipulated a reward system to control student behavior); *teacher coercion* (teacher used physical force, took away property or freedom, or threatened to do either); *teacher retreatism* (teacher failed to react when students violated previously written or stated rules of conduct).

*Questionnaires* are designed for various groups of respondents. They identify the context of indiscipline, manifestations of students’ indiscipline or the consequences of such behavior.
### Table 1

**Selected students’ indiscipline questionnaires**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title and author</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Response type</th>
<th>Questionnaire contents structure</th>
<th>Statistics</th>
<th>Researched sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pupils’ causal attributions for difficult classroom behavior (Miller et al., 2000)</td>
<td>students</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>four-point scale</td>
<td>fairness of teacher’s actions, pupil vulnerability, adverse family circumstances, strictness of classroom regime</td>
<td>exploratory factor analysis</td>
<td>105 British students secondary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ perceptions of their own misbehavior (Bru et al., 2002)</td>
<td>students</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>four-point scale</td>
<td>bullying of other students, off-task orientation, opposition toward teachers</td>
<td>combination of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis</td>
<td>3,834 Norwegian students from 227 school classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents causal attributions for difficult pupil behavior (Miller et al., 2002)</td>
<td>parents</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>four-point scale</td>
<td>fairness of teachers’ actions, pupil vulnerability to peer influences and adverse family circumstances, differentiation of classroom demands and expectations</td>
<td>exploratory factor analysis</td>
<td>114 British families and 144 completed questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School misbehavior scale (Stewart, 2003)</td>
<td>students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>three-point scale (0-2)</td>
<td>Got in trouble for not following school rules, put on an in-school suspension, suspended or put on probation from school, got into a physical fight at school</td>
<td>Principal components analysis was used to generate factor scores. Each indicator was weighted by its individual factor score to ensure proper weighting and was summed to form an observed composite index of school misbehavior. The range for school misbehavior is from 0 to 8, with higher values representing higher levels of misbehavior.</td>
<td>10,578 American students nested within 528 schools high schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title and author</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Response type</th>
<th>Questionnaire contents structure</th>
<th>Statistics</th>
<th>Researched sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers classroom discipline strategies (Lewis et al., 2005)</td>
<td>students</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>six-point</td>
<td>punishment, discussion, recondition and rewards, aggression, involvement, hinting</td>
<td>Systematically compare national differences in the extent of usage of different discipline strategies, a 5-way MANOVA was performed where country, level of student misbehavior in class, gender of the student, the gender of the teacher and year level.</td>
<td>5,521 students attending years 7–12 at coeducational Schools: 4,183 Australian; 836 Israeli; 502 Chinese secondary and high schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic dishonesty (Bisping et al., 2008)</td>
<td>university students</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>two-point</td>
<td>31 types of misconduct and its determinants</td>
<td>Authors modeled misconduct econometrically (probit model for each of the 31 types of behaviors).</td>
<td>262 American students of introductory economics courses midsize public university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Observation Classroom Adaptation-Checklist – TOCA-C (Koth et al., 2009)</td>
<td>teachers</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>six-point</td>
<td>concentration problem, disruptive behavior, prosocial behavior</td>
<td>exploratory factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses</td>
<td>329 American teachers from 16 schools on 6,204 students in grades K–5 from general education classrooms</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title and author</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Response type</th>
<th>Questionnaire contents structure</th>
<th>Statistics</th>
<th>Researched sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students’ misbehavior</strong></td>
<td>teachers</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>five-point scales</td>
<td>forms of misbehavior incidents teachers’ emotions parental responsibility teachers’ responsibility addressing misbehavior frequency of misbehavior rules and punishment warnings lesson quality students’ expulsion teachers’ experience students’ number</td>
<td>factor analysis (PCA)</td>
<td>869 Greek teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Kotrouba, 2013)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>junior high school and upper high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School security</strong></td>
<td>school principals</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>yes/no</td>
<td>21 school security measures Security score was obtained by means of Rasch scaling. Comparing between high- and low-security schools (odds ratio)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Representative of the U.S. 504 public school 10th grade student population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Servoss, 2017)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Mixed approach

The mixed approach was taken for instance in a study conducted by Chang (2013). The study explores how disruptive classroom behavior in various situations effects teachers’ appraisals of the gravity of the situation, what emotions they feel and which coping strategies they use, and to what extent it all contributes to potential teacher burnout).

In the first step, the study used the qualitative approach to assess a specific and emotionally challenging situation. Teachers were asked to recall one recent classroom incident or one memorable disruptive classroom behavior that took place in the classroom which made them feel emotionally challenged. They were asked to describe the incident in as much detail as possible.

Further steps involved the quantitative approach. The teachers were asked to:

- rate on a scale 1 to 6 how emotionally challenged they felt by the incident when it happened;
- identify and rate on a scale 1 to 6 the unpleasant emotions that accompanied the incident;
- rate the intensity of the unpleasant emotions including the extent to which the teachers felt challenged by the incident, and the intensity of anger and frustration they felt about the incident;
- rate on a scale 1 to 6 how they felt while they were experiencing this incident;
- think about the respective incident and indicate their actual response to the incident.

After answering these questions about specific experiences, the teachers were asked to fill in a second part of the survey comprising “standard” measurement tools: emotion regulation scale, proactive coping scale, modified Maslach Burnout Inventory Educator Survey.

The study results represent a model which provides evidence supporting a pathway between teachers’ antecedent judgments and their experience of emotion, as well as providing evidence for how the consequent emotions contribute to teachers’ feelings of burnout.
3.4 Methodological approaches

When studying student indiscipline, three methodological approaches can be distinguished: transversal studies, repeated studies and longitudinal studies. Transversal studies are clearly dominant in this overview study.

Repeated studies are rarer. In the case of repeated studies, researchers return to the respective school after a certain period of time with the same survey and monitor whether there has been a change in their perception of classroom indiscipline over time (naturally, the students concerned are different), such as a Scottish comparative study (Munn, Johnstone, & Sharp, 1998) of students’ indiscipline in 1990 and 1996. According to the findings of this study misbehaviors which were most common in secondary schools in 1990 remained the most common in 1996. Violence against teachers was rare both in 1990 and 1996.

Longitudinal studies are very rare. Researchers conducting a longitudinal study monitor the same students over an extended period of time. (Le Blanc et al., 2007).

4 Consequences of Students’ Indiscipline

The main consequence of students’ indiscipline was articulated by Heston (1991) clearly and concisely: in many classes, teachers spend more time disciplining students than teaching. What do we actually know about the consequences of classroom indiscipline? The answer is surprising: most studies are concerned with the consequences for or impacts on the students themselves, in particular negative consequences including various types of punishments (making a threat, student sent to the principal's office, calling the parents, corporal punishment, detention, in-school suspension, out-of-school suspension, expulsion). This study, on the other hand, will set students the recipients of adult persons reactions – aside.

As regards teachers, Santos and Rosso (2014) analyzed their notions of indiscipline dividing them into two groups. The first group's notions of indiscipline were more prevalent, consisting of negative aspects of students' indiscipline resulting in feelings of chaos, concerns, fear, exhaustion, despair, frustration and powerlessness associated with great suffering. The second group's notions of indiscipline were less prevalent, in fact rather marginal, including expectations, hope, resolve, future direction and perseverance in their attempts at preventing or handling classroom indiscipline.
Students’ Indiscipline in the Classroom

Scientific literature takes into consideration not only negative, but also positive consequences of students’ indiscipline. Apart from valency, consequences can be categorized also according to their “weight” as mild, moderate and severe consequences. Consequences can be also classified based on who is affected by the misbehavior, e.g. behaviors/misbehaviors that impact only the student; behaviors/misbehaviors that impact the learning of other students; behaviors/misbehaviors that affect an orderly environment; behaviors/misbehaviors that affect an entire school (Milwaukee Public Schools, 2014).

Impact on teachers. The classroom environment and discipline/indiscipline have been identified as a critical factor in teachers’ work satisfaction (Gazmuri et al., 2015). Student misbehavior (in milder forms) is quite frequent in teachers’ workplace causing teachers to be under occupational stress, in particular young and beginning teachers (Pyżalski, 2008). Teacher-rated student misbehavior was associated with increased emotional exhaustion, and decreased enthusiasm. Student-rated misbehavior was correlated with teacher well-being to a lesser extent. Furthermore, the teacher-student relationship was positively associated with teacher well-being and mediated the link between teacher-perceived misbehavior and enthusiasm (Aldrup et al., 2018). Student misbehaviors are among the reasons why some teachers leave their profession. Stress from students’ misbehavior was significantly greater than stress from poor working conditions and poor staff relations for both rural and urban school teachers. For urban school teachers, student misbehavior and poor working conditions are predictive of burnout (Abel & Sewell, 1999). One model (Chang, 2013) provides evidence supporting a pathway between teachers’ antecedent judgments and their experience of emotion, as well as providing evidence for how the consequent emotions contribute to teachers’ feelings of burnout.

Frequent problems with student misbehavior can also have positive consequences. It forces teachers, school management and school authorities to address the issue systematically and look for ways to help teachers. Experienced teachers help their younger colleagues and provide them with social support (Pyżalski, 2008). However, support provided by entire teams is even more significant. It was described by A. Bandura and called collective efficacy. One of its definitions says that in case of teacher staff, “collective teacher efficacy refers to educators’ shared beliefs that through their combined efforts they can positively influence student outcomes,
including those who are disengaged, unmotivated, and/or disadvantaged” (Donohoo, 2018, p. 324). Research points to the following positive changes in schools where collective efficacy was present: increased productive teaching behaviors, more positive affective states of teachers; reduction of exclusion as a way of solving problem student misbehavior; beginning teachers less likely to leave the teaching profession (Donohoo, 2018).

As early as 1998, Hyman and Perone pointed out cases which are seldom spoken of: victimization of students by teachers, administrators, and other school staff, most often in the name of discipline, is seldom recognized for its potential to contribute to student misbehavior, alienation, and aggression. Polirstok and Gottlieb (2006) state that too often, teachers fail to recognize how their own behaviors contribute to students’ misbehaviors and how this impacts negatively on student learning. This issue might be solved by organizing positive behavior intervention training for teachers within teachers’ professional development program. Techniques taught in this program include: identifying classroom rules, using contingent, “high approval” teaching, structuring hierarchies of no-cost or low-cost tangible reinforcers, and selective ignoring (Polirstok & Gottlieb, 2006).

Impact on student’s classmates and their learning. Misbehaving students distract their classmates, prevent them from focusing and complicate their learning (by for instance clowning, making noise, singing, pulling classmate’s braid). Situations during recess are usually even more serious. Some classmates become targets of verbal aggression, including attacking, quarrelling, teasing. Others have to face invasion of privacy, intimate physical contact (Sun & Shek, 2012) or deal with physical conflicts among students. Classmates with disabilities (visible and non-visible) experience bullying more than their non-disabled general education peers (Carter & Spencer, 2006).

Impact on instruction. Problem students distract not only their classmates, but their disruptive behavior also interferes with the teaching process. Student indiscipline during the instruction makes it difficult for teachers to explain the subject matter, do exercises or test students. Student misbehavior cannot be ignored. The teacher must interrupt his or her teaching or a discussion with the class and try to stop the misbehavior. As a result, the logic of the lecture is lost, there is less productive time and the teacher is not able to explain the complete subject matter as planned. If a student or even students
Students’ Indiscipline in the Classroom

misbehave directly towards the teacher, they threaten the teacher’s authority and cause tensions in the classroom. The teaching is then overshadowed by the emerging conflict between the teacher and the respective students; in some cases, this can escalate into a conflict between the teacher and the entire class.

Why do students disrupt the class? According to McManus (1995), there are two main reasons: a) students test the teacher, i.e. testing how far they can go with their indiscipline and how the teacher is able to handle such situations, b) adolescent students might engage in disruptive behaviors as means of developing and defending their personal identity against the adults. Moreover, disruptive behavior of some students might be an occasional attempt to break the tedium of boring lesson. However, more serious situations arise when the entire class is systematically misbehaving towards the teacher. It can be a form of revolt against an unfair teacher or – which is worse – a form of bullying a teacher who is incompetent or too permissive.

Impact on instruction results. Some misbehaving students tend to affect the school results of their classmates. In principle, these cases can be divided into two groups: 1) Misbehaving students in mainstream classrooms, who differ from their classmates mainly in certain personality traits; 2) Misbehaving students with various disadvantages and disabilities included in mainstream classrooms.

The former was to a degree studied by Hwung (2016) with the conclusion that there is a strong initial relationship between the level of misbehavior in a given classroom and performance on a mathematics evaluation. The bulk of peer misbehavior effects stem more from the academic performance of other students than from their behavior.

The latter is more complicated. Developed countries tend to integrate children with various disadvantages and disabilities in mainstream classes. The problem is that there is insufficient scientific evidence of the effects on their classmates. Research done by Kristoffersen et al. (2015) is one of few exceptions concluding that placing a potentially disruptive student in Danish schools has negative consequences for the learning environment in the receiving classroom. It in fact lowers classmates’ academic achievement in reading, with a robust but relatively moderate effect size. Authors believe that the similarity of the results provides a strong, if not completely conclusive,
argument that we are identifying the effects of interest. The effect seems to be strongest and most robust for classmates in school-cohorts that receive a child with a psychiatric diagnosis. Children who receive a new classmate with parents who have been convicted of a non-traffic crime seem also to be negatively affected in terms of their reading scores. Children with divorced parents have little effect on their classmates.

Impact on classroom climate. The psychosocial classroom climate is created jointly by students and their respective teacher. It is therefore nothing unusual if the same class behaves differently with different teachers. Students might misbehave with one teacher but would not dare act the same way with another. Research conducted by Ratcliff et al. (2011), indicates that teachers play an important role in creating classroom climate. One group of teachers used predominantly normative control, i.e. orders, bans, reprimands, threats. In this classroom climate, students paid only little attention to the instruction, their active learning time was minimal and disruptive behavior frequent. The second group of teachers was more forthcoming, encouraged their students to learn, provided a continuous feedback, praised them. In this climate, students spent most of the class studying, with high degree of active learning time. Students asked the teacher questions regarding the subject matter, discussed it and only very rarely misbehaved.

Study conducted by O’Brennan et al. (2014) concludes that the average behavior in the classroom, contributing to the classroom climate, is found to relate to how teachers perceive individual student behavior or misbehavior. These results highlight the importance of classroom-based programs that enhance students’ social competencies and social-emotional skills, while decreasing undesirable behaviors such as physical aggression and harassment.

Impact on school and its climate. It is a known fact that the level of student misbehavior and student antisocial behavior varies from school to school. Each is related to the climate of a school, which helps to shape the interactions between and among students, teachers, administrators, parents, and the community (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). When studying school effectivity, researchers use school climate to identify characteristics and conditions in schools that may promote or reduce school delinquency (Stewart, 2003).
If classroom indiscipline is on the rise in a particular school and the school overlooks or insufficiently addresses the issue, the overall school climate usually starts to deteriorate as well. Schools that are not supportive and caring, that do not share norms and values, and create a “sense of community” among their members, or school which fail to regulate students’ behavior and resolve other school problems effectively, are likely to experience greater problems and have difficulty regulating students’ behavior (McEvoy & Welker, 2000).

**Impact on the whole country.** In the 19th century and the first decades of the 20th century, school discipline was the matter of individual teachers and the degree of their strictness. Teachers were relatively autonomous because the school’s role was to socialize students who were coming from various social classes. Public education was meant to teach students discipline, and central authorities had only little influence on what was happening in individual schools. It was not until later that schools were recommended to introduce their own school rules stipulating, among other things, basic rules of good behavior to be followed by the students.

Nowadays, we can see efforts to regulate behavior of both teachers and students at the national level. There are new codes of conduct, guidelines for school management, teachers, other school staff as well as students themselves being prepared. In some countries and schools, neither the teachers nor students feel safe anymore. Therefore, new initiatives are emerging aimed at solving the growing problem of students’ indiscipline. For instance, the Federal Safe Schools/Healthy Students Initiative reflects a growing level of concern across the United States that many children do not feel safe at school (Giancola & Bear, 2003). Moreover, the issue of classroom indiscipline is addressed also at the legislative level as will be discussed in the next section of this study.

5 Conclusion: Existing Ways of Addressing Indiscipline and Future Outlooks

We can address classroom indiscipline at several levels. Firstly, the national level involving for instance legislative measures such as the zero tolerance approach in the U.S. (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008) or *School Standards and Framework Act 1998* in England
and Wales (Harris, 2002). A more detailed legal explanation of the entire issue is to be found in an overview study by Koon (2013).

Secondly, the individual school level. Individual schools try different strategies aimed at decreasing or completely eliminating students' indiscipline, in particular the serious forms of indiscipline. For instance, many U.S. schools have introduced the following "negative interventions":

- monitoring and surveillance are increased to "catch" future occurrences of problem behavior;
- rules and sanctions for problem behavior are restated and reemphasized;
- the continuum of punishment consequences for repeated rule-violations are extended;
- efforts are direct toward increasing the consistency with which school staff react to displays of antisocial behavior;
- "bottom-line" consequences are accentuated to inhibit future displays of problem behavior (Sugai & Horner, 2002, p. 25).

If the above measures do not help, schools try implementing further measures:

- establishing zero tolerance policies;
- hiring security personnel;
- adding surveillance cameras and metal detectors;
- adopting school uniform policies;

However, these measures only react to student misbehavior after its occurrence. They tend to have a short-term effect as they are usually aimed at dissuading students from engaging in disruptive behaviors or deterring them by punishments instead of removing the root cause of such behaviors. However, there are ways to deliver consequences that are supportive in nature and result in positively redirecting students to engaging in desirable behavior. For instance, a program called PBIS – *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports* (Leach & Helf, 2016).
The third reaction level, represented by teachers, will be left aside, as this topic has already been covered by many publications (such as Rubel et al., 1986; Hyman, 1997; Bear, Cavalier, & Manning, 2005), articles (e.g. Kuhlenschmidt & Layne, 1999; Sugai & Horner, 2002; Peguero et al., 2015; Servoss, 2017) as well as practical guides (e.g. Barbetta et al., 2005; Durrant, 2010; Blair & Fox, 2011; U.S. Department of Education, 2014). Those interested in further details can read them for more information.

This review study tries to summarize the current situation with regard to students’ indiscipline. Future outlook, however, is more important. It must be based on general, i.e. conceptual approaches to solution of classroom indiscipline. With a slightly simplified view, these can be divided into three groups according to the main actors bearing the responsibility for mitigating or even eliminating students’ indiscipline both in the classroom as well as in the school. It should be noted that individual approaches are based on different theoretical standpoints using terminology which is not yet fully standardized.

The first and oldest approach is based on the teacher. Historically speaking, teachers derived their authority from the in loco parentis principle, i.e. in the place of a parent. Teachers were in charge of students’ moral development, their self-improvement, adoption of the right set of values. Public education was to provide for the desired socialization of students, and teachers were supposed to lead their students to “good conduct”.

The following tools have been used to achieve this goal: clearly defined rules, a system of recognitions and rewards for appropriate behavior, and a hierarchy of increasingly severe punishments for inappropriate behavior (Lewis, 2001). This approach is often referred to as the teacher’s strict control or the „interventionist“ style (Gazmuri et al., 2015).

The second approach centers around the student him- or herself. It is based on the idea that students’ self-control is key to their good behavior in class and that it should be achieved by the teacher’s listening to the student, negotiating for any problem behavior, clarifying the student’s perspective, telling the student about the impact of his or her misbehavior on others, confronting the student’s irrational justifications, searching solutions that satisfy both the teacher and the respective student (Lewis, 2001; Gazmuri et al., 2015). This approach is referred to as the emphasis on student’s self-control.
The third approach is built on a group of students or the entire class. It is based on the idea that students should take responsibility for the behavior of their classmates and make sure that they conduct themselves properly. This style of discipline calls for frequent course meetings to discuss various behavioral issues and to build consensus around them. Students and the teacher debate and determine classroom management policy (Edwards & Mullis, 2003). The teacher applies class determined responses to unacceptable student behavior, and finally uses a non-punitive space where students can go to plan for a better future (Lewis, 2001). This approach is referred to as group decision-making or group management.

So far, the study centered primarily around the actors (teacher, student, class). Now it will discuss the ethical aspects of addressing students’ indiscipline since many teachers still react to classroom misbehavior in a repressive manner. J. Aquino introduced a different approach summarized in four ethical rules:

The first rule implies understanding the problem-student as a mouthpiece of the relations established inside the classroom. [...] The second ethical rule refers to a de-idealization of the student’s profile. [...] The third rule implies fidelity to the pedagogical contract. [...] The last ethical rule offers the notion that there should be two basic values presiding over teacher actions in the classroom: competence and pleasure. (Aquino, 1998, p. 204)

The last rule indicates a future path. The teacher should be a competent expert and maintain a positive attitude to educating students. However, the issue of students’ indiscipline can have different forms, and misbehavior can also differ significantly in its seriousness. Therefore, it cannot be understood as a dichotomy of either punishing the students or being responsive to their misbehavior. Teachers’ negative reactions to students’ indiscipline cannot be simply rejected (on the contrary, in case of serious misbehaviors such reaction is in fact appropriate before mental and/or somatic damage to the students and teachers occurs). But the emphasis on repression is neither the primary nor lasting solution. The U.S. approach known „zero tolerance” does not lead to the expected improvement of classroom discipline (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008). If schools “get tougher” in punishing students they are at risk of creating what is referred to in the U.S. as the school-to-prison link (Heitzeg, 2009) or also the schoolhouse to jailhouse track or the cradle to prison track.
It is therefore better to complement the existing approach with efficient preventive measures aimed at avoiding these negative phenomena, and apply a positive intervention approach so that punishments are gradually being abandoned and reserved only for serious cases of student misbehavior. This transition from the traditional thinking can be summarized for instance as follows: „When a management approach isn't working, our first tendency is to try harder. The problem is that we most often try harder negatively. When an approach is not working, … we should try another way. Some examples include verbal redirecting, proximity control, reinforcing incompatible behaviors, changing the academic tasks and providing additional cues or prompts. These approaches are more effective, simpler to use, and create a more positive classroom climate.‟ (Barbetta et al., 2005, p. 12–13). However, these are just partial techniques.

The study will now focus on several examples of conceptual positive approaches to students’ indiscipline. Winkler et al. (2017) developed social ecological model for a discipline approach fostering intrinsic motivation and positive relationships in schools. Authors used concept mapping to elicit and integrate perspectives on kind discipline from teachers, administrators, and other school staff. Three core themes describing kind discipline emerged: 1. proactively developing a positive school climate; 2. responding to conflict with empathy, accountability, and skill; and 3. supporting staff skills in understanding and sharing expectations.

One of the many individualized intervention plans builds on the Positive Behavior Support (PBS – Dunlap et al., 2009) and is aimed at minimizing what is known as challenging behavior\(^3\) of students. The basic idea is simple: student behavior can be changed as a function of the actions performed by others who are in supportive care-giving roles. A more detailed description of the technique can be found for instance in a paper by Blair & Fox (2011).

Another interesting project centers around positive discipline (Durrant, 2010). The author of this project believes that it is an approach to teaching that helps children succeed, gives them the information they need to learn, and supports their development. It respects children’s right to healthy development, protection from violence, and active participation in their

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3 Challenging behavior is defined as “any repeated pattern of behavior or perception of behavior, that interferes with or is at risk of interfering with optimal learning, or engagement in pro-social interactions with peers and adults.” (Smith & Fox, 2003, p. 5)
Positive discipline has five components: 1) identifying your long-term goals; 2) providing warmth and structure; 3) understanding child development; 4) identifying individual differences; 5) problem-solving and responding with positive discipline.

Many schools might find the following approach useful. It is called a *Culturally Responsive Classroom Management* (Weinstein et al., 2004). It allows for the recognition of one’s own cultural lens and biases, knowledge of students’ cultural backgrounds, awareness of the broader social, economic and political context, ability and willingness to use culturally appropriate management strategies, and commitment to building caring classroom communities.

However, addressing the issues related to students’ indiscipline is not a task for teachers alone. Bear et al. (2005) correctly point out that a teacher should seek assistance and support from others, including fellow teachers, administrators, counselors, school psychologists and parents, especially when correction needs to be repeated. However, that is not enough either. The issue of students’ indiscipline is a matter of concern for the whole society because it is in its interest that extreme behaviors of children, adolescents and adults have a downward tendency.

6 Annex

The spectrum of student behavior which can be viewed as the manifestation of classroom indiscipline is still growing. School practice compels the codification of these student misbehaviors in school rules. For example, one Texas school (Pinellas County Schools, 2018) has the following detailed list of student misconduct which may result in a disciplinary action:

- arson;
- blackmail;
- bullying;
- cheating (teacher shall also record a “zero” for each act of cheating);
- cyberstalking;
- defiance;
- disseminating or posting to the internet;
• extortion;
• failure to give correct name;
• falsifying or altering records (for example, computer records or attendance notes);
• fighting;
• gambling;
• gang participation or display of gang-like behavior;
• hazing;
• hitting someone;
• improper use of telephones, communication devices, computers or electronic devices;
• interference with school personnel;
• interference with the movement of another student;
• leaving school grounds without permission;
• making of false alarm (this includes pulling a fire alarm);
• participation in disruptive demonstration;
• possession of chemical spray, pepper, mace;
• possession of drug paraphernalia;
• possession of hazardous material;
• possession of tobacco;
• possession of toy or replica gun or knife;
• posting or recordings of fighting or acts of bullying, assault, or battery (whether staged or real);
• profanity;
• repeated misconduct;
• sexting;
• sexual activity at school: at a school activity or on a school bus;
• sexual or other harassment;
• stealing;
• threatening to hurt someone;
• trespassing;
• use of physical force against someone;
• vandalism;
• verbal abuse of another;
• other serious misconduct which will lead to disciplinary consequences include but are not limited to the aforementioned infractions.

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Klíčová slova: žáci, učitelé, nekázeň ve třídě, působící faktory, diagnostika nekázně, důsledky nekázně, řešení nekázně

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Nekázeň žáků ve třídě
