Pedagogická orientace

Journal of the Czech Pedagogical Society

Journal profile: Pedagogická orientace is a peer-reviewed scholarly journal which aims to support the development of pedagogical thinking. It comprises articles on current issues in theory and practice in education, curriculum and instruction, educational psychology, educational research, educational policy, and teacher education. The Journal provides a forum for distinguished authors as well as young researchers from within the Czech Pedagogical Society as well as from outside. Pedagogická orientace is an open access journal which means that all content is freely available at https://journals.muni.cz/pedor.

Instructions for authors: Pedagogická orientace publishes four types of articles; theoretical papers, research papers, review papers (ca 45 000 characters), letters (ca 27 000 characters), conference and other reports and book reviews (ca 9 000 characters). The articles should have the following structure: abstract (max 1 200 characters), key words, introduction, state-of-the-art, method, results and interpretations, discussion, conclusion and short information about the author/authors. Prior to publication, each paper (excluding discussion papers, reports and book reviews) is judged by the Editor and double-blind peer-reviewed by two anonymous experts. More detailed author guidelines and the information on the peer review process are available at https://journals.muni.cz/pedor.

The Journal accepts previously unpublished papers only.

Pedagogická orientace adheres to the principles outlined by COPE – Committee on Publication Ethics (http:/publicationethics.org/), the Ethical Code of the Czech Pedagogical Society, and the Ethical Code of the Czech Educational Research Association.

Contents

Obsah

Editorial: Research on school discipline

The proper functioning of any social system, including schools, requires the regulation of the behavior of its members. This regulation is achieved through rules and social norms, the abidance of which (discipline) is required. Conformity to norms, which are there to allow the proper functioning of society, is a characteristic attribute of democracy. Indiscipline weakens a society's accepted social norms and can lead to anarchy and the gradual destruction of said society.

Discipline in schools is an evergreen topic. In the last decades it has been a repeatedly occurring theme on the TV and in film productions, in newspaper articles, and discussions in families and among school staff. It is a topic that polarizes the opinions of the discussants being them teachers, students' parents, or the wider public.

The variability of opinions on discipline, which are sometimes even contradictory, is connected to the fact that the issue of discipline relates to the most fundamental questions about education. The theory and practice of school discipline has undergone a complex historical development, in which it is possible to observe its shifting between freer conceptions and stricter ones. This supports the principle that the optimal conception of discipline leads to both the synthesis of and harmony between individual freedom and the demands of society as a whole, which regulates and reasonably restricts freedom. It is in accordance with Goethe's famous idea, that the moral strength of an individual is in his/her ability to restrict his/her own desires. Nowadays, under the influence of very dynamic social development, many values (even traditional ones) are being destroyed. Among other issues, the problem that the issue of discipline has become vague has arisen.

The issue of discipline is hard to grasp scientifically, both theoretically and empirically. Nowadays there exist a wide range of "white spots" (insufficiently mapped areas) related to school discipline, ranging from the philosophical, anthropological, biological, sociological, legislative, ethical, and psychological aspects of (in)discipline in society and schools to the factors behind misbehavior, including the relationship of discipline to religious and cultural customs in different countries and world-regions, post-modern ethos, or the effectiveness of school disciplinary prevention programs and the issues of self-discipline and self-control.

Discipline is an electrifying topic, but at the same time it is a topic both theoretically and empirically dissuasive. The complexity of discipline is caused, among other things, by the fact that the phenomenon of discipline is conditioned both historically and socially. We can observe how discipline is conditioned by historical period, religion, type of social organization, the production, technical, educational and moral level of a society, or even the climatic conditions or the prevalent way of obtaining food in that particular society.

Furthermore, discipline represents both a situational category and an instrument. It is not bad or good on its own. It always depends on the historical and social context, the given situation and particular conditions. Furthermore, discipline is not only the aim (in the sense of morality) of education, but also its precondition, instrument, and result.

Based on what has been mentioned above it is clear, that in the area of conscious conformity to norms, i.e. discipline or school discipline, there are more questions than there are answers, more question marks than exclamation marks. These questions, however, are not caused by lesser skills of researchers in social sciences, but by the overall complexity of the phenomena of (in)discipline. Consider, as an example, the question of the causes of or factors influencing misbehavior. The problems with the detection of the factors (and the degree to which they influence the behavior of an individual) stem from the theoretical assumption that the same type of misbehavior can be caused by different factors and different relationships among those factors. On the other hand, the same factors can cause different types of misbehavior under different conditions.

The content of this monothematic issue consists of five papers: four studies and one discussion paper. The authors are researchers from the U.S., Poland and the Czech Republic.

Jiří Mareš in his overview study reviews 121 publications on student indiscipline from the Euro-American sociocultural environment between 1986 and 2017. He focuses on the definition of and types of indiscipline in schools; a variety of factors influencing student indiscipline; approaches to student indiscipline assessment; and the consequences of student indiscipline. The author also presents three conceptual approaches to solving student school indiscipline.

Boguslaw Sliwerski in his study analyzes the term discipline in alternative schools world-wide. He tries, among other things, to answer the question, whether there is a difference between the assumptions and practices of education in public and alternative schools. The core of his study is an analysis of discipline in the context of authoritarian education, anti-authoritarian and democratic education, schools of freedom, and self-education. The author focuses his attention on the current situation for teachers while emphasizing the broadening of both the concepts behind alternative schools and concepts of school discipline.

Stanislav Bendl, Hana Vonkova, Ondrej Papajoanu, and Eva Vankatova in their paper present methodological approaches to school misbehavior measurement. They also discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the respective approaches especially with regards to large-scale school misbehavior measurement. In this context the authors propose an innovative approach that would combine student self-reports and peer-reports of school misbehavior with the anchoring vignette method.

Robert H. Horner and Manuel Monzalve Macaya present a whole school approach to establishing safe and disciplined school environments called Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports (PBIS). They summarize the core features of the approach across three tiers of support in PBIS and review empirical support for the approach and its implementation. The authors also discuss some "lessons learned" about the implementation of the approach in schools.

The final discussion paper by Michal Zvírotský is focused on self-discipline. The author perceives self-discipline as an important educational category and at the same time a virtue, even though it might appear that this has vanished from contemporary educational discourse, despite the fact that many theoretical texts on education consider it to be the goal of educational activity.

We hope that the papers contained in this monothematic issue will provide interesting stimuli for readers when thinking about the issue of discipline. The phenomena of discipline is, however, that complex and multi-layered that it would deserve an (almost) infinite series of monothematic issues dedicated to it, to explore it fully.

Stanislav Bendl, Hana Vonkova

Students' Indiscipline in the Classroom

Jiří Mareš

Charles University, Faculty of Medicine in Hradec Kralove, Department of Social Medicine

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.

Koutselini (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).
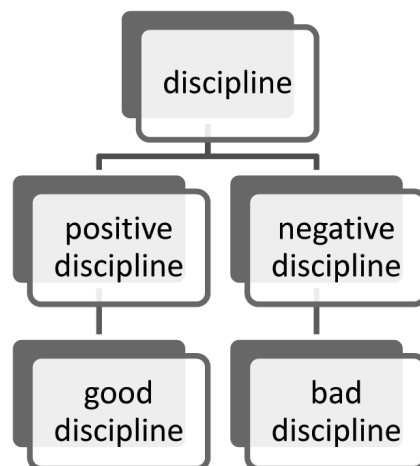
Figure 1. Dichotomic view of discipline.

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.
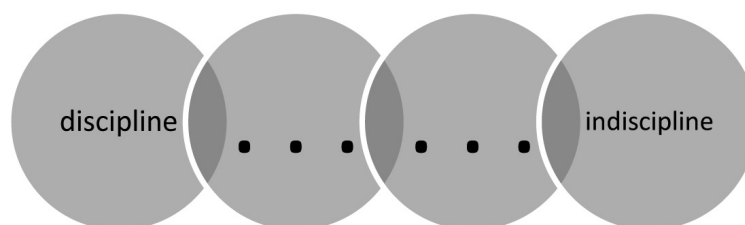
Figure 2. Continuous approach to discipline-indiscipline.

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, destructing 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).
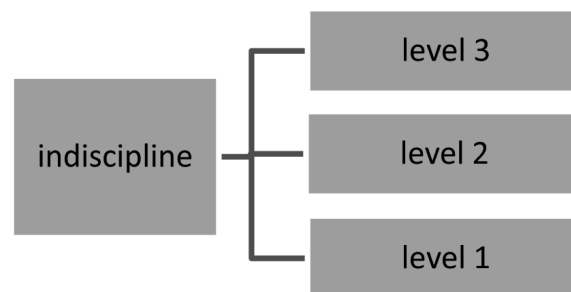
Figure 3. Multi-level indiscipline approach.

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).
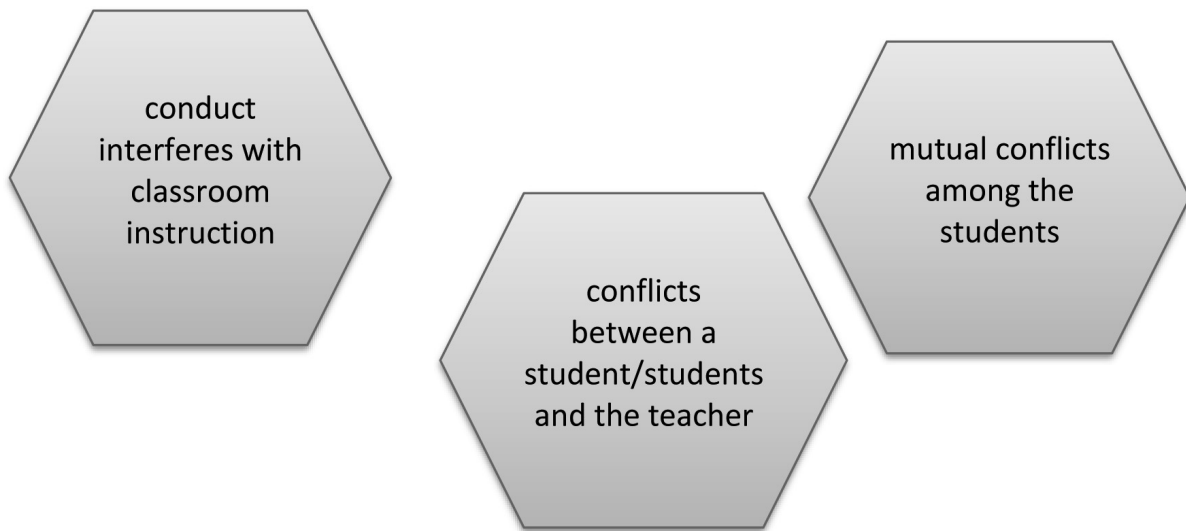
Figure 4. "Cluster" approach to indiscipline.

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

teachers. 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 socio-cultural 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 bonds[2] 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 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

teachers, 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

Title and author	Respondents	Number of items	Response type	Questionnaire contents structure	Statistics	Researched sample
Pupils' causal attributions for difficult classroom behavior (Miller et al., 2000)	students	30	four-point scale	fairness of teacher's actions; pupil vulnerability; adverse family circumstances; strictness of classroom regime	exploratory factor analysis	105 British students secondary school
Students' perceptions of their own misbehavior (Bru et al., 2002)	students	11	four-point scale	bullying of other students; off-task orientation; opposition toward teachers	combination of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis	3,834 Norwegian students from 227 school classes
Parents causal attributions for difficult pupil behavior (Miller et al., 2002)	parents	61	four-point scale	fairness of teachers' actions; pupil vulnerability to peer influences and adverse family circumstances; differentiation of classroom demands and expectations	exploratory factor analysis	114 British families and 144 completed questionnaires
School misbehavior scale (Stewart, 2003)	students	4	three-point scale (0-2)	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	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.	10,578 American students nested within 528 schools high schools

Table 1 (continued)

Title and author	Respondents	Number of items	Response type	Questionnaire contents structure	Statistics	Researched sample
Teachers classroom discipline strategies (Lewis et al., 2005)	students	24	six-point scale	punishment discussion recondition and rewards aggression involvement hinting	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.	5,521 students attending years 7–12 at coeducational Schools: 4,183 Australian; 836 Israeli; 502 Chinese secondary and high schools
Academic dishonesty (Bisping et al., 2008)	university students	31	two-point scale (0-1)	31 types of misconduct and its determinants	Authors modeled misconduct econometrically (probit model for each of the 31 types of behaviors).	262 American students of introductory economics courses midsize public university
Teacher Observation Classroom Adaptation- Checklist – TOCA-C (Koth et al., 2009)	teachers	21	six-point scale	concentration problem disruptive behavior prosocial behavior	exploratory factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses	329 American teachers from 16 schools on 6,204 students in grades K–5 from general education classrooms

Table 1 (continued)

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

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-off-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.

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

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, wiht 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;

- using in- and out-of-school detention, suspension, and expulsion (Sugai & Horner, 2002, p. 26).

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

---

[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)

learning. 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.

References

Abel, M. H., & Sewell, J. (1999). Stress and burnout in rural and urban secondary school teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, *92*(5), 287–293.

Ackerman, B. E. (2008). Praise: Christians educators and the difficult student. *Christian Perspectives in Education*, *1*(2). Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/cpe/vol1/iss2/1

Aldrup, K., Klusmann, U., Lüdtke, O., Göllner, R., & Trautwein, U. (2018). Student misbehavior and teacher well-being: Testing the mediating role of the teacher-student relationship. *Learning and Instruction*, *58*, 126–136.

American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force. (2008). Are zero tolerance policies effective in the schools?: An evidentiary review and recommendations. *American Psychologist*, 63(9), 852–862.

Aquino, J. G. (1998). A indisciplina e a escola atual. *Revista da Faculdade de Educação*, *24*(2), 181–204.

Ary, D. V., Duncan, T. E., Duncan, S. C., & Hops, H. (1999). Adolescent problem behavior: The influence of parents and peers. *Behavioral Research Therapy*, *37*(3), 217–230.

Aydogan, I. (2008). Favoritism in the classroom: A study on Turkish schools. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, *35*(2), 159–168.

Barbetta, P., Norona, K. L., & Bicard, D. (2005). Classroom behavior management: A dozen common mistakes and what to do instead. *Preventing School Failure*, *49*(3), 11–19.

Barnes, M. J., Slate, J. R., Martinez-Garcia, C., & Moore, G. W. (2017). Differences in discipline consequence assignment by student ethnicity/race: A Multiyear, Texas Analysis. *Journal of Educational System*, *1*(1), 15–28.

Bear, G. G., Cavalier, A. R., & Manning, M. A. (2005). *Developing self-discipline and preventing and correcting misbehavior.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Blair, K. S., & Fox, L. (2011). *Facilitating individual intervention to address challenging behavior*. Georgetown: Georgetown University, Center for Child and Human Development.

Blegur, J., Wasak, M. R. P., Tlonaen, Z. A., & Manggoa, M. A. (2017). Students' behaviour of indiscipline syndrome in teaching and learning process. *Educational Administration Review*, *1*(2), 37–41.

Bru, E., Stephens, P., & Torsheim, T. (2002). Students' perceptions of class management and reports of their own misbehavior. *Journal of School Psychology*, *40*(4), 287–307.

Buyse, E., Verschueren, K., Doumen, S., Van Damme, J., & Maes, F. (2008). Classroom problem behavior and teacher-child relationships in kindergarten: The moderating role of classroom climate. *Journal of School Psychology*, *46*(4), 367–391.

Carter, B. B., & Spencer V. G. (2006). The fear factor: Bullying and students with disabilities. *International Journal of Special Education*, *21*(1), 11–23.

Center for Mental Health (2014). *Rethinking discipline to improve school climate*. Los Angeles: University of California, Mental Health in Schools. Retrieved from http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu/pdfdocs/disciplineclimate.pdf

Chang, M. L. (2013). Toward a theoretical model to understand teacher emotions and teacher burnout in the context of student misbehavior: Appraisal, regulation and coping. *Motivation and Emotion*, *37*,799–817.

Dalgıç, G., & Bayhan, G. (2014). Meta-analysis that affect classroom management. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Science, 9*(2), 101–106.

Donohoo, J. (2018). Collective teacher efficacy research: Productive patterns of behavior and other positive consequences. *Journal of Educational Change*, *19*, 323–345.

Dunlap, G., Sailor, W., Horner, R. H., & Sugai, G. (2009). Overview and history of positive behavior support. In W. Sailor, G. Dunlap, & G. Sugai, et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of positive behavior support* (pp. 3–16). New York: Springer.

Durrant, J. E. (2010). *Positive discipline in everyday teaching: Guidelines for educators*. Bangkok: Save the Children.

Dwyer, K. P. (2009). *Disciplining students with disabilities*. Bethesda: National Association of School Psychologists.

Edwards, D., & Mullis, F. (2003). Classroom meetings: Encouraging a climate of cooperation. *Professional School Counseling*, *1*, 20–28.

El Nokali, N. E., Bachman, H. J., & Votruba-Drzal, E. (2010). Within- and between-child parent involvement and academic and social skills in elementary school. *Child Development*, *81*, 988–1005.

Free, J. L. (2014). The importance of rule fairness: The influence of school bonds on at-risk students in an alternative school. *Educational Studies*, *40*(2), 144–163.

Freire, I., & Amado, J. (2009). Managing and handling indiscipline in schools. *International Journal of Violence and School*, *8*(1), 85–97.

Funnell, R. (2009). Struggles for order and control of school behaviour: A sketch for a social psychology. *Social Psychology of Education*, *12*, 481–499,

Gazmuri, C., Manzi, J., & Paredes, R. D. (2015). Classroom discipline, classroom environment and student performance in Chile. *CEPAL Review*, *115*, 101–114.

Giancola, S. P., & Bear, G. G. (2003). Face fidelity: Perspectives from a local evaluation of the safe schools/healthy students initiative. *Psychology in the Schools*, *40*(5), 515–529.

Giancola-Poland, S. (1998). *Student misbehavior: An exploratory study of individual, familial, social, and institutional influences* (doctoral dissertation). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.

Gokmenoglu, T., Eret, E., & Kirazb, E. (2010). Single problem-multiple responses: Lack of congruency toward misbehavior. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 9*, 1602–1606.

Golarte, L. C. (2010). Violentos ou indisciplinados? Um estudo sobre o comportamento adolescente na escola pública. *Educação em foco*, *15*(1), 13–27.

Goodrich, P. (2009). Intellection and indiscipline. *Journal of Law and Society*, *36*(4), 460–480.

Harris, N. (2002). The legislative response to indiscipline in schools in England and Wales. *Education and the Law*, *14*(1–2), 57–76.

Hart, S., & Brassard, M. (1987). A major threat to children's mental health: Psychological maltreatment. *American Psychologist, 42*, 160–165.

Hartzell, G. N., & Petrie, T. A. (1992). The principal and discipline: Working with school structures, teachers, and students. *The Clearing House, 65*(6), 376–380.

Heitzeg, N. (2009). Education or incarceration: Zero tolerance policies and the school to prison pipeline. *Forum on Public Policy Online, 2*, 1–21. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ870076.pdf

Heston, K. (1991). Shall we remove undisciplined students from the classroom? *Contemporary Education*, *68*(3), 177–181.

Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of delinquency*. Berkeley: University of California.

Hwung, A. (2016). *Peer misbehavior effects in the classroom* (senior these). Claremont: Claremont McKenna College. Retrieved from http://scholarship.claremont.edu/cmc_theses/1345

Hyman, I. A. (1997). *School discipline and school violence*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Hyman, I. A., & Perone, D. C. (1998). The other side of school violence: Educator policies and practices that may contribute to student misbehavior. *Journal of School Psychology*, *36*(1), 7–27.

Jing, X. (2016). Chinese teachers in British classroom spark global debate. Retrieved from http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/world/china-watch/society/chinese-teachers-in-british-classrooms/

Johnson, Z. D., Claus, C. J., Goldman, Z. W., & Sollitto, M. (2017). College student misbehaviors: An exploration of instructor perceptions. *Communication Education, 66*(1), 54–69.

Koon, D. S. (2013). *Exclusionary school discipline: An issue brief and review of the literature*. Berkeley: University of California, Berkeley School of Law. Retrieved from https://www.law.berkeley.edu/files/BMOC_Exclusionary_School_Discipline_Final.pdf

Koutselini, M. (2002). The "problem" of discipline in light of modern post-modern discourse. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, *10*(3), 353–365.

Kristoffersen, J. H. G., Krægpøth, M. V., Nielsen, H. S., & Simonsen, M. (2015). Disruptive school peers and student outcomes. *Economics of Education Review*, *45*, 1–13.

Kuhlenschmidt, S. L., & Layne, L. E. (1999). Strategies for dealing with difficult behavior. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, *77*, 45–57.

Kurtz, L.I. (2000). Unruly classroom. *The UNESCO Courier*, *53*(1), 14–16.

Lambert, N., & Miller, A. (2010). The temporal stability and predictive validity of pupils' causal attributions for difficult classroom behaviour. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *80*, 599–622.

Lauff, E., Ingels, S. J., & Christopher, E. M. (2014). *Education longitudinal study of 2002 (ELS:2002): A first look at 2002 high school sophomores 10 years later* (p. 1–59). Washington: U.S. Department of Education, National Centre of Educational Statistics.

LeBlanc, L., Swisher, R., Vitaro, F., & Tremblay, R. E. (2007). School social climate and teachers' perceptions of classroom behavior problems: A 10 year longitudinal and multilevel study. *Social Psychology of Education*, *1*0(4), 429–442.

Leach, D., & Helf, S. (2016). Using a hierarchy of supportive consequences to address problem behaviors in the classroom. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, *52*(1), 29–33.

Lewis, R. (2001). Classroom discipline and student responsibility: The students' view. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*, 307–319.

Lewis, R., Romi, S., Qui, X., & Katz, Y. J. (2005). Teachers' classroom discipline and student misbehavior in Australia, China and Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21(6),* 729–741*.

Li, L. (2012). *Student misbehaviors and teacher techniques in online classrooms: instrument development and validation* (doctoral dissertation). Athens: Ohio University, Scripps College of Communication.

Linsin, M. (2011). Teacher personality traits that make classroom management more difficult. *Smart Classroom Management*, 07/02. Retrieved from https://www.smartclassroommanagement.com/2011/07/02/teacher-personality-traits/

Lochan, D. (2010). *Students' perceptions of indiscipline at three primary schools in one educational district in central Trinidad* (Thesis). St. Augustine: University of the West Indies, Faculty of Humanities & Education.

Magwa, S., & Ngara, T. (2014). Learner indiscipline in schools. *Review of Arts and Humanities 3*(2), 79–88.

Mateu-Gelabert, P., & Lune, H. (2007). Street codes in high school: School as an educational deterrent. *City & Community, 6*(3), 173–191.

McCormick, M. P., Cappella, E., & O'Connor, E. E. et al. (2013). Parent involvement, emotional support, and behavior problems: An ecological approach. *Elementary School Journal*, *114*(2), 2, 277–300.

McEvoy, A., & Welker, R. (2000). Antisocial behavior, academic failure, and school climate: A critical review. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, *8*(3), 130–140.

McIntosh, K., Frank, J. F., & Spaulding, S. A. (2010). Establishing research-based trajectories of Office Discipline Referrals for individual students. *School Psychology Review*, *39*(3), 380–394.

McManus, M. (1995). *Troublesome behavior in the classroom. Meeting individual needs*. London and New York: Routledge.

Miller, A., Ferguson, E., & Byrne, I. (2000). Pupils' causal attributions for difficult classroom behaviour. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 70*, 85–96.

Miller, A., Ferguson, E., & Moore, E. (2002). Parents' and pupils' causal attributions for difficult classroom behaviour. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *72*(1), 27–40.

Milwaukee Public Schools (2014). *Positive and negative consequences students misbehavior*. Retrieved from http://mps.milwaukee.k12.wi.us/MPS-English/CAO/Documents/PBIS/classroom-Sample-Rewards-and-Consequences.pdf

Monroe, C. R. (2006). Misbehavior or misinterpretation? *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, *42*(4), 161–165.

Morrison, G. M., & Skiba, R. (2001). Predicting violence from school misbehavior: Promises and perils. *Psychology in the Schools*, *38*(2), 173–184.

Munn, P., Johnstone, M., & Sharp, S. (1998). Is indiscipline getting worse? Scottish teachers' perceptions of indiscipline in 1990 and 1996. *Scottish Educational Review*, *30*(2) 157–172.

Narodowski, M. (1998). The system of warnings for misbehaviour used by secondary schools in Argentina. *Prospects*, *28*(4), 549–554.

National Center for Education Statistics. (2016). *What are the characteristics of students who have ever been suspended or expelled from school?* Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov /blogs/ nces/post/what-are-the-characteristics-of-students-who-have-ever-been-suspended-or-ex pelled-from-school

Nelson, F. (2002). *A qualitative study of effective school discipline practices: Perceptions of administrators, tenured teachers, and parents in twenty schools* (doctoral dissertation). Johnson City: East Tennessee State University. Retrieved from http://dc.etsu.edu/etd/718

O'Brennan, L. M., Bradshaw, C. P., & Furlong, M. J. (2014). Influence of classroom and school climate on teacher perceptions of student problem behavior. *School Mental Health*, *6*(2), 125–136.

Patterson, G. R. (1997). Performance models for parenting: A social interactional perspective. In Grusec, J.E., Kuczynski, L. (Eds.), *Parenting and children's internalization of values: A handbook of contemporary theory* (pp. 193–226). New York: Wiley.

Peguero, A. A., Shekarkhar, Z., Popp, A. M., & Koo, D. J. (2015). Punishing the children of immigrants: Race, ethnicity, generational status, student misbehavior, and school discipline. *Journal of Immigrant & Refugee Studies*, *13*(2), 200–220.

Pinellas County Schools (2018). *Student code of conduct; V. Discipline: Interventions & Consequences.* Retrieved from https://www.pcsb.org/domain/7606

Polirstok, S., & Gottlieb, J. (2006). The impact of positive behavior intervention training for teachers on referral rates for misbehavior, special education evaluation and student reading achievement in the elementary grades. *International Journal of Behavioral Consultation and Therapy, 2*(3), 354–361.

Pyżalski, J. (2008). Obciążenia psychospołeczne w miejscu pracy pedagoga związane z niewłaściwymi zachowaniami uczniów. *Medycyna Pracy*, *59*(4), 307–313.

Ratcliff, N. J., Jones, C. R., Costner, R. H., Savage-David, E., & Hunt, G. H. (2011). The impact of misbehavior on classroom climate. *Education Digest: Essential Readings Condensed for Quick Review*, *77*(2), 16–20.

Ratto, A. L. S. (2002). Cenários criminosos e pecaminosos nos livros de ocorręncia de uma escola pública. *Revista Brasileira de Educação*, *20*, 95–106.

Ripple, R. R. (1935). *Favoritism in the schoolroom* (Thesis for Master of Science Degree in Education). Indiana State Teachers College. Retrieved from http://scholars.indstate.edu/ xmlui/bitstream/handle/10484/7949/isua-thesis-1935-ripple.pdf?sequence=2

Rubel, R. J., Ames, N. L., & Zax, J. B. (1986). *Reducing school crime and student misbehavior: A problem-solving strategy*. Washington: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Ruiz, R. O. (1998). Indiscipline or violence? The problem of bullying in school. *Prospects, 28*(4), 588–599.

Santos, E. R., & Rosso, A. J. (2014). A indisciplina escolar descrita em imagens e metáforas de professores. *Revista Educação e Cultura Contemporânea*, *11*(24), 213–244.

Servoss, T. J. (2017). School security and student misbehavior: A multi-level examination. *Youth & Society*, *49*(6), 755–778.

Silva, A. M., Negreiros, F., & Albano, R. M. (2017). Indiscipline at public school: Teachers' conceptions on causes and intervention. *International Journal of Research in Education and Sciences*, *3*(1), 1–10.

Simons-Morton, B. G., Crump, A. D., Haynie, D. L., & Saylor, K. E. (1999). Student–school bonding and adolescent problem behavior. *Health Education Research*, *14*(1), 99–107.

Smith, B., & Fox, L. (2003). *Systems of service delivery: A synthesis of evidence relevant to young children at risk of or who have challenging behavior*. Tampa: University of South Florida, Center for Evidence-Based Practice.

Sterrett, W. L., & JohnBull, R. M. (2009). Empowering misbehaving students. *Principal*, 1–2. Retrieved from https://www.naesp.org/sites/default/files/resources/2/Principal/2009/M-Aweb3.pdf

Stewart, E. A. (2003). School social bonds, school climate, and school misbehavior: A multilevel analysis. *Justice Quarterly*, *20*(3), 575–604.

Stormshak, E. A., Bierman, K. L., Bruschi, C., Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1999). The conduct problems prevention research group. The relation between behavior problems and peer preference in different classroom contexts. *Child Development, 70*,169–182.

Sugai, G., & Horner, R. H. (2002). The Evolution of discipline practices: School-wide Positive Behavior Supports. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, *24*(1/2), 23–50.

Sugai, G. P, Sprague, J. R., Horner, R. H., & Walker, H. M. (2000). Preventing school violence: The use of Office Discipline Referrals to assess and monitor school-wide discipline interventions. *Journal of Emotional & Behavioral Disorders, 8*(2), 94–101.

Sun, R. C., & Shek, D.T. (2012). Classroom misbehavior in the eyes of students: A qualitative study. *The Scientific World Jou*rnal, Article ID 398482, 1–8.

Trotman, D., Tucker, S., & Martyn, M. (2015). Understanding problematic pupil behaviour: perceptions of pupils and behaviour coordinators on secondary school exclusion in an English city. *Educational Research*, *57*(3), 237–253.

Tsouloupas, C. N., Carson, R. L., & MacGregor, S. K. (2014). The development of high school teachers' efficacy in handling student misbehavior (TEHSM). *Journal of Educational Research*, *107*, 230–240.

Turner, D. A. (1998). School reform in England: The function of norms relating to "discipline". *Prospects, 38*(4), 539–548.

U.S. Department of Education (2014). *Guiding principles: A resource guide for improving school climate and discipline*, Washington, D.C.

Watt, S., & Higgins, C. (1999). Using behaviour management packages as a stepping stone from school to society: A Scottish evaluation of „Turn Your School Round". *Children and Society*, *13*(5), 346–364.

Weinstein, C., Curran, M., & Tomlinson-Clarke, S. (2003). Culturally responsive classroom management: Awareness into action. *Theory into Practice, 42*(4), 269–276.

Weinstein C., Tomlinson-Clarke S., & Curran M. (2004). Toward a conception of culturally responsive classroom management. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *55*(1), 25–38.

Welsh, W. N., Greene, J. R., & Jenkins, P. H. (1999). School disorder: The influence of individual, institutional, and community factors. *Criminology*, *37*(1), 73–115.

Winkler, J. L., Walsh, M. E., de Blois, M., Maré, J., & Carvajal, S. C. (2017). Kind discipline: Developing a conceptual model of a promising school discipline approach. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *62*(1), 15–24.

Autor

Prof. PhDr. Jiří Mareš, CSc., Univerzita Karlova, Lékařská fakulta v Hradci Králové, Ústav sociálního lékařství, Šimkova 870, 500 03 Hradec Králové, e-mail: mares@lfhk.cuni.cz

Nekázeň žáků ve třídě

Abstrakt: Přehledová studie je založena na 121 zahraničních pracích z období 1986–2018. Výklad se omezuje na práce, které pocházejí euroamerického sociokulturního prostředí. Zajímá se o projevy nekázně ve třídě během výuky a to na především základních a středních školách. Studie je strukturována do pěti částí. První část ukazuje, proč je obtížné definovat pojem nekázeň žáků a jak je odborná terminologie neustálená. Jsou též charakterizovány různé typy žákovské nekázně. Druhá část studie shrnuje faktory, které ovlivňují nekázeň žáků. Patří k nim: zvláštnosti žáka samotného, jeho spolužáků, jeho učitele, školní třídy, interakce mezi učitelem a žáky; zvláštnosti dané školy, školského obvodu, rodinného zázemí žáka, edukačního systému dané země a její školské politiky. Třetí část studie podává přehled postupů, jimiž se dá zjišťovat nekázeň žáků (příklady kvalitativního, kvantitativního a smíšeného přístupu). Čtvrtá část studie se zamýšlí nad důsledky nekázně žáků. Jedná se o dopad žákovské nekázně na učitele, na žákovy spolužáky a jejich učení, na celkový průběh výuky, na výsledky výuky, na klima dané třídy, na klima dané školy a na celý stát. Pátá, závěrečná část, přibližuje tři koncepční přístupy, které by měly pomoci nekázeň ve třídách řešit: historicky nejstarší přístup staví na učiteli, tj. na trestání a odměňování žáků; další staví na žákovi, jeho sebekontrole a autoregulaci a konečně poslední staví na skupině žáků, školní třídě; na diskusích žáků s učitelem o vhodném chování ve třídě, na skupinovém rozhodování a skupinovém tlaku na neukázněné spolužáky. Studie upozorňuje, že nestačí jen potlačovat či eliminovat nevhodné chování žáků, ale je třeba souběžně rozvíjet i pozitivní chování žáků.

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

Discipline in the Light of Alternative Ways of Educating Learners

Bogusław Śliwerski

University of Łódź

Abstract: The article presents an analysis of the concept of discipline in alternative schools throughout the world. The issue of school discipline has given rise to a dispute within the field of pedagogy about the place and role of discipline in school education, as there are many misunderstandings, contradictions, and myths surrounding this issue. In bringing up this topic, the matter is often dealt with in a fragmentary or one-sided way, depending on who is a representative of a particular ideology of education, i.e., whether or not he or she is a supporter or an opponent of disciplining students in the school. This article explores the question of whether or not a difference exists between the assumptions and practices of education in public and alternative schools. I suggest looking at models of (non-)discipline in school education due to acceptance or lack of it by teachers. I maintain that in a global world of interconnected meanings, theories, models, experiences, and individual educational solutions alternative schools stop being different from some public schools.

Keywords: alternative education, pedagogy, school, discipline, ideology of education, freedom and harsh upbringing

An underlying principle of an open and pluralistic society is voluntariness. What has emerged from modernism is the new epoch which is deprived of distance, universal projects, social utopias, stability and unambiguity, and which does not thoughtlessly affirm the status quo in daily life, social theories and concepts, or systems of orientation. What is recognized in this epoch is the right to different forms of knowledge, lifestyles or behaviour patterns. Nevertheless, adults' authority is still binding – they decide about the educational process and the norms within educational institutions, but while taking learners' opinions into consideration.

Therefore, what becomes the decisive criterion determining a person's attitude to social norms is the way in which they are perceived and in which

pluralism and democracy are recognized, as well as the way of handling them. If people view these states as a necessary evil which cannot be withdrawn from, they try to derail it or to oppose it actively. Postmodernism necessitates the perception of the daily world of life and its phenomena from different angles, owing to which they can appear to every subject of the educational process quite differently but maintaining their own sense (Śliwerski, 1998). Being a part of a democratic society, of the pluralism of its cultures, values, systems of orientation and organizational structures, an educator experiences the right to various behaviours, tendencies and identifications and is guided by a variety of interests and values. On the other hand, the same educator gets into conflict with this multitude and the criteria, which often contradict their own views or standpoints, and becomes aware of the difficulty or even failure in reaching consensus or reconciliation.

Therefore, it is necessary for pedagogy to return to scientific debates on the place and role of discipline in school education due to many misunderstandings, contradictions and myths concerning it. In educational sciences, this issue is undertaken in a fragmentary or one-sided way, depending on the educational ideology in which the supporter or opponent of disciplining school learners believes. This seems to be triggered by occasional incidents including violence and appalling public opinion in schools worldwide – the events of which the actors are either a learner or a teacher who uses violence towards another person. What seems a natural response to such situations is raising the issue of discipline, or rather of its lack – in the cases when someone dares to infringe on the personal liberty and/or dignity of someone else. The crucial question is whether there is any difference in this respect between the educational assumptions and practices in state and alternative schools. Whereas education in state schools in democratic countries is subordinated to the dominating ideology of the educational authorities, the alternative school system – due to its independence from state control – may represent a variety of pedagogical approaches to educating learners at school.

Undertaking the issue of discipline in the education of the young, as one of the basic theoretical and practical categories in school education so far, has resulted from a renaissance of studies and analyses in different countries, which have recently made their way into scientific literature. This revival in research has been subjected to cognitive re-exploration by Stanislav Bendl from the Czech Republic (Bendl, 1998, 2001, 2003, 2004a, 2004b,

2004c, 2005). In Poland, the scientific discourse on discipline at school is nothing new. It was raised in the 1920s and has returned from time to time to appear allegedly as both novelty and the necessity to solve the problem of learners' discipline at school.

> Pedagogical ideas do not get ordered in a row with time along the line of progress, older ideas are not suppressed or absorbed by newer ones but they maintain their irreplaceable value. For these or other reasons, in some historical periods, certain ideas die out to come back to life with a new strength in others – in different formulations and contexts. (Szymański, 1992, p. 5)

As a result of its criticism, neoliberalism has been strictly subordinated anew to educational ideologies and to politicians, for whom the problems of violating social norms of behaviour by a marginal (in the scale of the whole country) percentage of learners become an occasion to fulfil the aims of the ruling party or its opposition (Witkowski, 2009; Śliwerski, 2009). However, a few educationalists in Poland undertook the issue of discipline as an educational method in the period of liberating science from state censorship, regardless of all the state determinants (Mieszalski, 1997; Muszyńska, 1997; Pyżalski, 2007; Surzykiewicz, 2000). Translations into Polish of pedagogical literature coming from other countries strengthen the orientation towards the prevention of, intervention and research into what is broadly termed school violence. This enhances the perception and understanding of the scale of this phenomenon in a much broader sociocultural and political context (Robertson, 1998; Zarzour, 2006; Edwards, 2006), as well as increasing the need for restoring in schools the socio-moral order, mostly through discipline.

1   Discipline as a Pedagogical Category

Discipline is approached in pedagogical theories either as a way or means of moral education aimed at subordinating learners to the binding norms and authority (Latin *discĭplīnā* – upbringing, raising, exercising) or as an educational aim (Latin *discĭplīnā* – order). In the 1930s, Bogdan Nawroczyński wrote that the person who does not understand at least two very simple and clear truths that: "(1) in every moral education there are moments of freedom and obligation, (2) there are very many, often contradictory, types of freedom and obligation in education" (Nawroczyński, 1987, p. 279), uses a disabled abridgement of contemporary pedagogical thought. Such a person thinks that there is only one type of freedom in education – so-called negative

freedom, the liberation from any obligation, limitation, necessity (barbarian chaos, anarchy) and one type of compulsion – negative obligation, mechanical training, physical oppression, maltreatment of learners or their instrumental abuse for other goals. Supporters of authoritarian education ignore the knowledge concerning both the so-called positive freedom (referring to learners' conscience as the agency which evaluates learners' behaviour, taking into account social, religious, moral values by learners in their activity, following the motives which originate from the deepest held beliefs and self-control) and positive obligation, resulting from environmental and logical necessities.

It is impossible to find total freedom or total dependence in any society, hence – any school. Both categories are only the imagined poles between which real-life situations take place and oscillate.

> All social institutions are, after all, based on the use of coercive means, or on the assumption that the individual is not able to make "good choices" ("good" in the sense of both "the individual's good", "social good", and both at the same time). Treating the individual as basically untrustworthy exactly results from the saturation of ordinary life with the violence of institutions which lay claims to the right to be the only authority empowered to establish the standards of good conduct. (Bauman, 1996, p. 40)

Thus, if children are to learn what is necessary for life and for practicing a particular profession in their future life, their education must be neither a free game of powers nor freely applied violence. "Learning can be neither fun nor pleasure; it has to be an unpleasant, externally imposed duty" (Nawroczyński, 1932, p. 13).

There is no school system which would abandon all forms of coercion towards children. Yet, discipline can have a positive dimension if the teacher shows love to children and respects their dignity, trying to convince them to the desired behaviours, establishing and executing from them requirements without physical or mental violence. Janusz Korczak wrote the following about this:

> School creates a rhythm of hours, days and years. School clerks are to fulfil the current needs of young citizens. The child is a rational being, knows well the needs, difficulties and obstacles of life. Neither a despotic order, nor imposed rigours and untrustworthy control, but tactful agreement, the belief in experience, collaboration and coexistence. (Korczak, 1984, p. 76)

According to British sociologist Anthony Giddens, the contemporary world is no longer easily subordinated to the rigorous rule of man over other people or the environment of their life and development. It has become a world of dislocation, the "escaping" world, the world of generated uncertainty. This uncertainty has broken into daily life, changing both the sources and ranges of risk. People must engage with the broader world in order to survive in it. This occurs with the broadening of their social reflectivity as an effect of the necessity to receive and filter by individuals a lot of information which is significant in their life situation. Thus, increased social reflectivity might become the main factor disturbing the relations between knowledge and power. In a world full of the "heuristics of fear", generating a situation of collective threat which humanity has created itself, responsibility is not a duty. It implicates "tedious deciphering of reasons, not blind obedience. It rises against fanaticism but has its own driving force, because freely undertaken obligations often have bigger binding power than those imposed in the traditional way" (Giddens, 2001, p. 30).

The transition of post-socialist societies from a totalitarian to a democratic political system must have led to the stage of moral anomy, in which the norms binding in the previous period ceased to be valid and the new still had not gained recognition as a result of weakened processes of social control. Some people began identifying democracy with unlimited freedom, devoid of responsibility and any obligation, hence – without experiencing negative sanctions. The inflation of liberalism in various doctrines, ideas, theories or concepts permeated to all social and humanistic sciences, as well as to different fields of social, economic and political life. Jan Sokol describes this brand of liberalism as a gangster liberalism, best characterized by the following mottos: "grab for yourself as much as you can; money does not stink; do not look at others; there is nothing that can be called common interest" (quoted in Bendl, 2001, p. 26).

> Discipline is the thing the lack of which is most strongly felt in social reactions. What has taken place in the present era is a decline in morality, discipline and the sense of duty, as well as an increase in anarchy and intolerance. This results in disobedience among youth, growing aggression and brutality in children's behaviour, attacks of vandalism and the use of drugs. (Bendl, 2001, p. 9)

According to this Czech educationalist, in schools, there is a spirit of disobedience, the growing indifference of the environment to learners'

vulgarisms, impudence, brutalization of their behaviour and persecution of others. As some representative studies conducted among Czech teachers (by a research team from Charles University in Prague) show, 45% of teachers would willingly resign from their activity in this profession due to the constantly worsening behaviour of learners (ibid., p. 11). In the Czech Republic – as early as 1995, the Minister of Education, Youth and Sport issued a directive on counteracting signs of racism, intolerance, and xenophobia.

In Poland, after some events in Polish schools which shocked public opinion in the 2000s, Lech Witkowski noted that the sporadic, but extreme in their effects, acts demonstrating learners' disdain towards teachers or of experiencing violence in mutual relations by learners and/or teachers, proved the lack of normality in the daily life of school.

> We are still the hostages of the lack of understanding and implementation of what [...] teachers should be taught not to expose themselves and youth to such dramatic threats, pathologies and perversions, which question the sense of treating school as an institution that still can something, in the conditions of increased interactive difficulties with learners. We still have no antidote to the potential of barbarism at school, legitimized by the school itself and its blindness to its own incapacity and the mechanisms which perpetuate it in the mode of functioning of the fictitious collective (called pedagogical) body, in which teachers are only a minority. Without the pedagogical body, the spirit of the school is dying out. (Witkowski, 2009, p. 13)

Thus, how is it with teachers' disciplining the learners in state and alternative schools? Are there any differences in the approach to applying this educational method in both types of schools?

2   The Cartography of Alternative Education in the Context of Freedom and Obligation

What is suggested here are the models of (non-)existence of discipline in moral education at school, due to its acceptance or not by teachers. In a global world of the diffusing senses, theories, models, experiences and individual educational solutions, alternative schools basically cease to differ from some state schools. This takes place as some teachers travel a lot over the world, establish contacts with colleagues from other countries within the Erasmus+ programme, study pedagogical literature or undertake various forms of professional development. The pedagogical boundaries between private

and state schools are disappearing, because with growing frequency what takes place in both types of school does not differ much, apart from the fact that private school is paid though tuition. Private schools have smaller class sizes and a slightly more diversified curriculum than state schools. However, the methods of working with children and youth, methods of disciplining them based on authority, punishing and rewarding, or the disciplining which refers to learners' intrinsic motivation and their developing interest in knowledge can be found in every school. It is not discipline which is a pedagogical problem, as is presented in various scientific treatises, but the differentiation in anthropological attitudes of teachers and the designers of their professional roles towards children. For centuries, at least several philosophical foundations of education have been clashing: the perennial, naturalist (humanistic), pragmatic and post-humanistic.

Table 1

Four Models of Education Depending on the Relationship between Learners' Freedom and Disciple

		A disciplining teacher	
		yes	no
A learner's freedom	yes	democratic schools, anti-authoritarian schools, duality of freedom and obligation	schools of stress-free education, positive obligation, schools of freedom
	no	authoritarian schools, negative obligation	self-education, self-learning, self-socialization

Source: elaborated by the author

3   Discipline in Authoritarian Education

Authoritarian education is relatively strongly associated with realistic and Thomistic philosophy, in the light of which the human is a thinking being and school, as a social institution, is created to help children and youth to develop their intellectual and spiritual potentialities. However, this necessitates molding the individual into obedience, which seems to be achieved best by authoritarian schools, in which discipline is either the means or aim of education. The role of moral education is to exercise learners in their obedience. In the public, widely accessible school system, discipline understood in this way determines executing autocratic educational rule

over a learner or a class (Sławiński, 1994). Such discipline explicitly defines relations between learners and comprises a set of tools and techniques for behaviourally punishing or rewarding them. The essence of disciplining learners is leading them into the state of order and obedience, forcing them into desired behaviours, triggering their unceasing readiness to self-control, and working out (in the learners) the indispensable habits to achieve this. In such an approach, a learner is treated as an object, which can be formed, trained, kept in control, subjected to regime and drill, owing to the previously planned coercion towards them by enforcing their self-discipline and self-control (Kosiorek, 2007; Bendl, 2004a).

The authoritarian orientation takes place in the schools in which teachers do not accept learners' rights to the freedom of learning and their participation in this process. Therefore, these teachers use all means and methods of disciplining learners, steering their developmental process (punishing and/or rewarding) externally. If teachers' culture is authoritarian, regardless of the scientific advancement of school didactics and psychology of education, they will apply formal discipline, punish for mistakes or bad behaviour and reward success and a high level of obedience. Such education is practiced in some military and religious schools, as well as in schools subordinated to the conservative moral education of the young in absolute respect for outer, formal authorities of the ruling power and institutions.

In the authoritarian school, there are individuals possessing power (head-teachers, teachers, administration) and people subjected to this power (certain teachers, learners, parents, and administration workers). This category of power is associated with the phenomenon of disciplining others and exacting obedience from them, because power assumes the existence of the subordinated party in compliance with the principle that there is no lord without a slave. Therefore, education becomes the transforming of the "educational material" towards the indicated educational ideal of discipline and obedience. What occurs here is the phenomenon of educational totalism, because – consciously or not, openly or in disguise – educators aim at giving themselves the exclusive right to making themselves the model for learners or at adjusting learners to the desired educational pattern. Such an educator believes neither in a young person's freedom nor in the existence of ethical values and their attractive character. They are not significant, what is important is everything that allows the overpowering from a young person's mental and physical development from outside (from the perspective of

ideology, politics, models or theories). Thus, the educator is left only with the possibility of applying rigorous training and shaping the learners in different ways.

Although the world of school education is undergoing changes, in the majority of schools, teachers refer to the need of increasing – in the directive, ordering-banning way – discipline in learners' education in order to provide them and their teachers with appropriate conditions for the well-focused process of learning and teaching. In these institutions, the concept of active inclusion of learners into the process of socio-moral self-education is still treated with unwillingness. It is assumed that the discipline concerning social norms should be demanded from learners to such an extent that it can fulfil the following functions: the indicative (making learners aware of what they should know, how they should behave and what they can expect from others), the protective (ensuring individuals' feeling of safety owing to right laws and following them by all), the socializing (discipline is the sine qua non of normal functioning of a particular community), the optimizing (increasing the effectiveness of human activities) and the existential (enabling the survival of humanity) (Bendl, 2004a, s. 29).

Children's school experience of physical and/or mental violence or of teachers' hostile attitudes to them results in the reproduction of the syndrome of an abused child – when they become adults, they reproduce the same conduct towards others. Science calls this style of education "black pedagogy", which enlarges in the society the area of pedagogical evil, violence, humiliation, and perpetuates the consent for this way of enslaving children. Pedagogy understood in this way is black, vicious, cruel and evil because it is based on a strong belief in the necessity to bring up children in humbleness and absolute submission to adults, who are entitled to use violence towards them for their good. With growing frequency, physical violence is underlies mental violence in such spheres as: intellectual violence ("brainwashing", "indoctrination", "persuasion") or volitional violence (enforcing self-perfecting, self-control, self-suppression). If the duty of children and youth to show respect to their teachers, regardless of the reasons which go along their conduct, is added to this, the scale of learners' enslavement and vulnerability becomes enlarged (Sławiński, 1994).

What seems to be binding in schools is the idea of proletarian democracy – accumulating by particular subjects (by head-teachers towards teachers

and teachers towards learners and their parents) the monopoly for the truth with the power of instruments of violence (negative selection of learners, restrictions on disobedient teachers, isolationism towards parents who are excessively interested in the real causes of evil at school). In Polish schools, there are head-teachers and teachers who deeply oppose the above-discussed principle of social order. Not accepting democracy, they regret that they have to implement its principles and activate certain mechanisms in school life. They take part in passive resistance towards it with impunity or they practice open or secret sabotage (Śliwerski, 1996).

In an authoritarian society, only authoritarian personalities can be educated, which was often indicated by Janusz Korczak – e.g., "We cannot change our adult life as we are ourselves brought up in slavery, we cannot give freedom to a child as long as we are in handcuffs ourselves" (Korczak, 1984, p. 187). State school, understood in this way and constantly reproduced, is still to be an institution in which obedience is obligatory of parents towards teachers, "small" learners towards "great" teachers, the weaker towards the stronger, the subordinates to their supervisors. However, discipline in this sense – as a way or means of education, raises a debate among educationalists concerning its negative effects, which result both from the authoritarian way of shaping children (with special emphasis on the representatives of black pedagogy) (Miller, 1991, 1995, 1999, 2000, 2006) and from the permissive and liberal approach to socially unwanted behaviours of the young (Gutek, 2003). There is universal consensus that discipline in some form should be one of the aims of education which consists in children's appreciation of organization, order, exercising the mind and the character, collaboration and behaviour compliant with the socially binding rules and norms – as long as this aim is treated as heterotelic. A contemporary attempt to bring together the need or necessity of subjecting children to certain limitations and their right to dignity and self-determination is provided by Thomas Gordon in his concept of failure-less (*win-win*) education, which paves its way in the school reality with difficulty (Gordon, 1991, 1995, 1997).

The post-totalitarian, hierarchical, centralistically governed system of school education has consolidated not only the model of authoritarian management of educational institutions but also their formal-organizational nature. In such a hierarchically understood system of education in which the vertical (and diversified in territorial reach) gradation of the whole system and its

subsystems occurs, all forms of autonomy and self-government are set up from the top down. Even if some possibilities of their grassroots existence or creation are allowed, the scope of their tasks and functions is determined by the educational authorities of the ministry. In a way very distant from the idea of democracy and self-government, educational institutions have perpetuated the belief that the mutual relations of educational authorities with head-teachers, of head-teachers with teachers, and teachers with learners and their parents have to be based on the authority of a person with a higher rank in the social hierarchy. Moreover, authority is understood here as a particular degree of obedience, discipline or subordination.

State school in Poland was to restore its normality by liberating both from the Marxist ideology and the liberal one – provided it was imposed on teachers as the only right one for the implementation of the national curriculum. In 2006, the principle was introduced in Poland (through a parliament act) of zero tolerance of violence in state schools, which was to refer to learners and teachers. The right-wing educational authorities decided to pejoratively stigmatize the educators, sociologists and psychologists:

> […] who still promote toxic myths that learners should be guided by their subjective beliefs that they will not hurt themselves, that one cannot "impose" on or even suggest anything to them. Nothing is worse for education than the myth of education through the lack of it. What binds in pedagogy, as in medicine, is the principle: first, to do no harm! If we want the young generation of Poles to be able to get a reliable education and character shaping, let us not allow for the unpunished presence in our schools of demoralizers and false prophets of easy happiness – the happiness achieved without moral rules, without alertness and discipline. "Stress-free" education is the protection of hooligans, as people with right moral education do nothing that can stress them. (Dziewiecki, 2006, p. 1)

The belief was disseminated in the public discourse that stress-free education is the most dangerous myth, based on a naïve concept of humanity, the ideology of liberal fiction and the Marxist principle of political correctness, in the light of which it is possible to educate through the lack of education and discipline.

> For the past several years, "modern" educators – in recent years obvious facts – have been repeating archaic myths about spontaneous self-fulfilment, and about the ideologically neutral school (even though some ideologies are criminal!) or about education without stress, hence – without suffering the consequences of learners' own acts. (Dziewiecki, 2006, p. 1)

The Ministry of National Education introduced this programme as an answer to: (the presence in state schools of) violence among learners in their relations with teachers, to lowered learning discipline (increased numbers of learners playing truant, abandoning school or not fulfilling school obligations), drug dealing and increased use of alcohol and cigarettes, learners' prostitution, theft, vandalism, etc. In order to prevent these phenomena, the requirements were introduced of wearing school uniforms, of monitoring school space, of limiting the access to unwanted, demoralizing websites during school classes. The decision was made to replace social control, which could be conducted in educational institutions by kindergarten or school councils, with technical apparatus (cameras, one-way mirrors, identity cards, entrance turnstiles, boxes for anonymous reports, etc.).

School obedience understood in this way and "[…] based on brutal violence is a mistargeted pedagogical measure, as most frequently it triggers in young souls the rebellion against the defended order instead of raising the belief that this order has a social and moral value and should be respected" (Nawroczyński, 1932, pp. 26–27). What is forgotten in the air of demagogic debates is the fact that education is a specifically human sphere and that pedagogy (which explores, describes and explains it) is a humanistic science, not a technical one aimed at instrumental managing people as soulless robots. It might seem that the years of past totalitarianism has already made Poles sensitive to the lack of freedom, to feeling its mechanisms of dehumanization and depersonalization, to depriving people of their rights, to disregarding their will and to emotional insensitivity. Teachers written into such a reality – instead of answering the question how to love others as a part of their profession, how to help and liberate them, how to include them into life and give them a socially wanted sense – are forced to apply the attitude of professional distrust, forbidding, excluding, isolating and not loving their learners, because this poses a threat to the logic of the state.

Social engineering conducted in this way is aptly reflected upon by Stanley Fish, a critic of literary theory: win the language and you will win in politics – "Words to which people react will acquire the senses attributed by you" (Fish, 2006, p. 17). No wonder that every time when the phrase "school violence" appeared in media, it is automatically associated with such categories as: stress-free education, the child's rights, lack of discipline, chaos, freedom, emancipation, child-centeredness, alternative, liberalism. The expressions

intercepted in this way were to be associated negatively in the society, acquire a destructive character, eradicate any benefits or advantages associated with them, and were to make using them the biggest insult. Thus, it is impossible to be a teacher, patriot and liberal, as it is supposed that executing proper behaviour and education towards emancipation and moral autonomy is not feasible without referring to discipline as an educational measure.

For those who practice authoritarian educational rule in the state, the problem of violence is reduced to formalized social control (such influencing the school system so that it can develop in the desired direction) on one hand, but on the other, it legitimizes the functioning of the ruling authority as a specific ability to acquire the goal more efficiently. Aiming at hiding their real interests, the authorities reach for anti-dialogical activities – for manipulation, which is to sedate the society to take control over it more easily. If we accept Paulo Freire's position that cultural activity of the authorities serves either the ruling or liberating people, their activity based on disciplining others is directly or in a hidden way targeted at keeping within the ruling authority such solutions and views which favour the representatives of this activity. The anti-dialogical cultural invasion consists in the authorities' penetration of the cultural contexts of other political (also educational) environments, which are recognized as alien and hostile. Moreover, by ignoring their potential, the ruling authorities impose their own worldview on "the invaded", preventing their creativity and blocking their self-expression.

Thus, cultural invasion, whether polite or sharp, is always an act of violence aimed at people whose culture has become an object of invasion: these people lose their uniqueness or face the threat that they will lose it (Freire, 1973 p. 22). However, when the supporters of authoritarian education come into the leading power, the space of public discourse gets closed and the transition to the stage of permanent antagonistic war takes place – the war ultimately aimed at excluding every educational perspective which is different from the one which dominates among the authorities. Yet, where war takes place, extreme attitudes have to come into being. There is no acceptance of pedagogical ideas without winners and losers. It is not important then that this will not last too long as every domination triggers off resistance.

4   Discipline in Anti-authoritarian and Democratic Schools

The democratic orientation concerns mostly alternative schools – anti-authoritarian and state schools with the organs of social grassroots control, in which teachers promote the values of democracy and self-government. In such institutions, learners' sovereignty is supplemented with the socialization within the contract with school, which concerns mutual following the principles of learning and behaving. The teachers employed in these schools support learners freedom of learning with simultaneous sustainable use of coercion towards them (barriers, limitations). The teacher is a facilitator, moderator or tutor of people who learn for themselves, not for grades, out of fear or to achieve other goals. Such teachers will do a lot to become learners' partners in fulfilling the educational curriculum and the educational contract. This takes place in the Dalton Plan schools (Popp, 1995; Rýdl, 2001; Röhner & Wenke, 2003), Célestin Freinet's schools (*Ecole Moderne*; Freinet, 1991), Laboratory School (*Laborschule*) in Bielefeld (Thurn & Tillmann, 1997), Glockseeschule in Hanover (van Dick, 1979), in Steiner's schools, as well as in some state schools supervised by school councils, the members of which are teachers, learners and their parents. Educators cherish dialogical relations, include learners into participation in all stages of the educational process – not only in the design and choice of contents but also in their implementation, evaluation and establishing the consecutive learning thresholds (Thurn & Tillmann, 1997; Dietrich, 1995). In shaping socio-moral attitudes, mediation and joint recognizing and solving problems is used so that the same rules of coexistence could be binding for both teachers and learners or their parents.

For almost 120 years, pedagogical sciences have been calling for the humanization of education, for abandoning the (still convenient for some parents and teachers) "carrot and stick" model, which humiliates those who cannot defend themselves actively or passively against violence (Key, 2005; Kohl, 1971; Neill, 1969, 1975). The anti-authoritarian orientation is manifested by teachers referring to positive obligation towards learners, the teachers who respect students' sovereignty and who abandon the forms and methods of their outer disciplining, based on instrumental (behavioural) punishing and rewarding. Most frequently, this approach is called stress-free education, which indicates the focus on learners' rights to their freedom of

learning (intrinsic, positive obligation). Extrinsic obligation is avoided in favour of learners' undertaking the mechanisms of self-guidance in their own development and in bearing the responsibility for it. For their learners, teachers treating education as the learning environment mostly based on positive stress become facilitators (Selye, 1974), tutors or even coaches, who support them in intensive self-development. Such teachers' focus on learners is aimed at excluding negative stressors from their school environment so that learners could become the authors of their own development.

What becomes the philosophical foundation of this educational model is the naturalistic approach to school character shaping, which assumes that the human nature itself is a universal system and a perfectly functioning mechanism. It develops gradually, evolutionarily, constituting the foundation of both the knowledge and character of an individual. Thus, in school education, it should not be allowed to limit a person's self-esteem (*amour de soi*) – the individual will move towards inborn love of life, as well as the feeling of personal dignity (*amour propre*), which manifests the affirmation of love. On the basis of both of them, school might implant humanistic values, enhancing in this way the agreement between a natural tendency and the will of the society so that learners could resist the temptations and urges of their own egoism and the social pressure. In such a situation, school becomes an appropriately prepared (by adults) environment, in which learners can preserve their natural qualities. At the same time, school stimulates learners to acting and making rational choices, "[...] provided they bear both their positive and negative consequences" (Gutek, 2003, p. 71).

Learners who acquire knowledge as a result of the liberty which they have been granted and the recognition of their motives, needs, interests and aspirations, can construct their own identity and the reality of daily life. "As children are born as good beings, the process of education – if it is to educate moral people – has to be adjusted to children's reactions and inclinations. The curriculum and teaching methods should enable the child their natural development" (Gutek, 2003, p. 75). In this approach, discipline becomes redundant so that individuals do not lose their primary innocence and the characteristic features of the relations with teachers are trust, authenticity, indirectness of influence, and mutual learning. True moral education takes into account natural developmental stages, preparing learners for free and adequate (to their individual character) overcoming the consecutive stages.

Discipline might only become a derivative of the social contract reached between the teacher and learners.

This model of relations between teachers and learners is familiar from Maria Montessori's pedagogy. The educator prepares (for children and youth) an appropriate environment for individual and independent learning based on free choice. Still, this involves a certain type of compulsion which limits children's liberty in a substantial way (Nawroczyński, 1932, p. 16). What should discipline children is written into the didactic method, means and the craft of animating the learning process by the teacher, whose every wish or request addressed to children is almost immediately fulfilled with delight. This takes place because it is expressed in such a way that children are convinced they want this themselves and they can do this (Montessori, 1990). As Montessori writes, they show pride when they can discover something, because discipline is a consequence of the respect for their own work and the awareness of the others' right to the same.

> It does not happen that a child would take a didactic aid (Arbeitsmaterial) from another child, even if they desired it very much – instead, they wait patiently until the aid is free; very often the child curiously observes another child working with the material which they want to acquire themselves. Thus, discipline becomes stabilized on the basis of a child's inner factors and appears suddenly when children work independently from one another, simultaneously developing their own personalities; however, this activity does not result in "moral isolation"; just the opposite – mutual respect, kindness and the feeling of interpersonal bonds appear among children without the need for practicing them. (Montessori, 1976, p. 93)

According to A. S. Neill, practically all children are poorly raised. Only a few children grow up in a family that would guarantee them freedom, the ability to create themselves and authentic expression of their own experiences and feelings without aggression towards other people. They must relieve stress and they have problems not only with their own identity, but with the world of their own feelings, too. Their parents are just as unhappy as their children. In addition, parents do not realize that in the course of education they transmit to them their hate, feelings of helplessness, complexes and a ready scenario of an oppressive way to solve interpersonal problems.

> All parents are trying to change, 'shape' the character of the child by imposing his or her own personality on the child. This type of approach is not in the child's interest. It is an idea of forming a man on his or her own image (Neill, 1975, p. 20).

Alexander Sutherland Neill's pedagogy is proof of his own thesis that freedom in upbringing is possible and behind the freedom does not have to be the desire to manipulate the child. There is only a need to change your own point of view on mutual interactions and their educational functions. The biggest barrier in reforming education is the patriarchal mentality of most parents and the strengthening of traditional models of enslaving children in education. When a child goes to school, teachers can only trust the immanent tendency of development and growth of the body and the personality of the child. Neill calls it the principle of self-regulation. This means that the child can regulate the satisfaction and reveal basic needs such as eating, sleeping, sexuality, social behavior, games, learning, etc. in every period of its life. The child should only have the opportunity and support to see and respect his or her individual and social interests.

The purpose of education is a free person, a fully happy being, who lives in harmony with adults and the older generation. In this light, discipline in the sense of external obedience is unnecessary. Education should be the development and support of the child's interests and curiosity. Thanks to it, the child can be self-fulfilling and happy. It also means enabling the child to develop his or her whole personality, originality, not only the intellectual sphere. In this sense, education is also the emancipation of a child, also from external discipline (Štrynclová, 2003; Ludwig, 1997).

Discipline in anti-authoritarian schools derives from positive freedom of learners, who are guided in this process by deep culture of self-control and intrinsic motivation, compliant with their aspirations and the self-awareness of the developmental potentialities or the own activity. "It can be rightly called the obedience of the rights imposed by the own conscience" (Nawroczyński, 1932, p. 23).

The acquisition of intellectual techniques necessary for the insight into the nature of good, truth and beauty, as well as for consolidating the principles which determine what is right and just, requires the education based on universal, timeless values in the inner and outer order in a school class – thus, in discipline. Therefore, the teacher has to avoid both permissiveness and despotism in relations with learners.

> Excessive permissiveness consisting in total subordination to children's fancies results in the negation of any discipline and to anarchy. On the other hand, a teacher representing the despotic approach – who makes use of the fear of corporal or mental punishment and aims at shaping the learner according to the standard model – suppresses the learner's individualism, condemning spontaneity and creativity as unwanted deviations from the norm. (Gutek, 2003, p. 287)

The philosophy of pragmatism, dominating in the contemporary world, directs the child's education towards learning through acting, which comprises a variety of activities – from playing, through experimenting, to the own creation. School education is meant to take place in an open environment, enabling the development of thinking and the instant use of knowledge to solve different problems, without imposing on learners any absolute truths which would limit the freedom of their investigation. However, this is a social environment, which should constitute a miniature community, in which individuals can enrich their experience, learn collaboration and prepare for life in democracy.

> Such freedom of investigation brings about the risk of reconstruction or even rejection of the rooted ideas and values, yet – it does not mean educational anarchy and is not a sign of naïve romanticism. Just the contrary, it requires social regulations, favourable for the use of an experimental scientific method in deciding about matters important for humanity. (Gutek, 2003, p. 97)

What has a lot of significance in this approach is learners' inner discipline – self-discipline and self-control, as owing to this they can prepare for independent and self-disciplined life in the world of adults.

> Such type of discipline, oriented to a task or a problem, is precisely shaped during problem solving. In the conditions of acting together and with people, a learner acquires the feeling of control. Instead of controlling the teaching situation, the teacher as a person supporting the didactic process fulfils the function of a guide. (Gutek, 2003, p. 102)

This does not mean that outer discipline cannot appear in the course of school education – yet, it can take place only in the form of indirect helping the learner to find the right tool for solving the cognitive or social problem and in such a way that a learner's activity in class would not generate conflicts and threats for other people acquiring the knowledge and skills in compliance with their interests and needs. In regard to the title of this study,

it undoubtedly seems indispensable to explain how discipline is currently understood in educational sciences and what alternative school education is. This will allow for noticing the diversity of the aforementioned perspectives of philosophical anthropology in alternative education. It will be also possible to outline the map of paidagogia in alternative schools due to a different approach to disciplining learners, to its exclusion or to its substitution with other pedagogical methods.

What is particularly emphasized in such education is building the school community, as well as shaping citizen, prosocial, allocentric attitudes. In state education, the model of the so-called open schools (*die Offene Schule*) has appeared – in their curricula, the technocratic rules of management are rejected, along with instrumental evaluation (providing grades), selection and lack of class graduation. "Openness means the ability to notice the essence and the changes in a child's development" (Wallrabenstein, 1992, p. 44). The Jena Plan schools work in a similar way – the process of teaching is directed towards education in the community and through the community. There is no organized space, which in traditional education is created by school classes. Instead, learning takes place in the school living room, which is furnished, equipped and domesticated by learners at various age (Rýdl, 1994). There are no assigned places or desks but applicative furniture and the learning process is a derivative of self-education in mutual co-existence of learners and the teacher. In such an environment, they establish common rules of life and learning. "Each learner has the right to reprimand another, or even the teacher. The care for keeping order and discipline is not a matter of the individual, for instance of the duty person, but of the whole 'clan'. If any conflicts related to this appear in the group, they are treated as pedagogical situations which should be overcome together."(Szymański, 1992, p. 208).

Democracy is associated with control over the means of violence. What increases in the globalizing social order is the role of more radical forms of democratization, also of dialogic democracy. "On one hand, democracy is a tool for representing some interests. On the other, it is a way of building the public scene, where controversial issues can be solved, or at least undertaken, through dialogue and not through earlier settled forms of authority." (Giddens, 2001, pp. 24–25). The world of high social reflectivity leads to increased autonomy of acting, resulting in a variety of changes. Thus, this weakens the bureaucratic authority, which used to be the sine

qua non of organizational effectiveness, as this authority cannot so easily treat its citizens as "subjects" any longer. More autonomy in the individual's activity allows for their survival and for becoming self-decisive. This is not to be identified with egoism as this autonomy implicates mutuality and co-dependence (Greenberg, 2004, 2006).

What must come into being in such a society is the concern for fracturing the bonds of solidarity, which sometimes might generate selective behaviour or even "re-inventing" tradition. In the society which breaks away from tradition, solidarity is stronger as it is associated with the rebirth of personal and social responsibility for others. This type of solidarity is called by Giddens "active trust" – it does not come from the earlier consolidated social positions or sex-related roles but must be acquired. "Active trust assumes autonomy and does not oppose it, it is a strong source of social solidarity, because such an obligation is undertaken voluntarily, is not imposed by traditional limitations." (Giddens, 2001, pp. 22–23). Trust in other people or institutions needs to be actively worked out and negotiated – therefore, this also concerns the issues called discipline towards the norms binding in a particular society. If the norms established in a particular community, also at school, are not followed, social structures are built on the basis of mutual exchange of goods or services. This means entering the dead end of particularistic benefits, which give birth to the "era of emptiness" or of axiological vacuum.

Democracy, subjectivity and dignity should be cared for by all sides of the educational process in a joint debate, because they will not be ensured by the authoritarian system of imposing obedience. What has been abandoned in postmodern societies is the search for optimal education and all the kinds of interactions among people are subjected to doubt. In postmodern pedagogy, authority is not binding anymore, there is no appealing to obedience, no following the norms or conducting in compliance with some models, no obligation of contracts, no community between the contracting parties. The typical question of the postmodernist breakthrough, asked in the process of investigating the mechanisms of the ruling authorities, would concern the kind of rules and laws used by the authorities in the process of producing the discourse of truth. "The discourse of truth, knowledge, turns out to be not so much the source of authority but its tool, a mechanism of its executing." (Szkudlarek, 1993, p. 39).

5 Discipline in the model of self-socialization of children and youth

Such an approach is applied in the process of self-socialization and self-education of children and youth. Teachers are not necessary here and if learners need them in any way, this takes place only at learners' request or demand. This model of education occurs in child republics established by children. Here, they do not have to be guided by the educational standards binding in the state. They can do what they want, without the need for consent from anyone. In the model of self-socialization, they become active subjects of their own developmental changes and they are their competent actors in daily life. Children are not viewed as passive recipients of social and pedagogical influences but as people who have influence on these processes owing to their own activity.

Since the mid-1970s, some ideologies and theories of self-socialization have appeared in humanities which view the child as a complete subject in the process of the own self-development. The creators of self-socialization refer to the new anthropology of the child, according to which what is thought about children determines the theoretical and practical-pedagogical approach to them. Adults' imagined view on a child influences the way in which they treat this child, how they perceive and bring up children and how they behave towards children in daily contacts (Juul, 1999). Perceiving the child as a creature during socialization makes it possible to view and treat children by adults in an open way, which shows respect for differences between them – for their unlikeness. This also allows for noticing that children are able to provide such feedback which will enable regaining lost competences and will help to eradicate ineffective or not accepted behaviour patterns. The self-socializing type of relations generates much more than the contribution to the existence of the dialogue between children and adults. Owing to this, everyone can find their own way to the goal, although it will be equally suitable for everyone, nor will it belong to the "anything goes" model.

What becomes the major principle here is creating by everyone, for themselves and for all others altogether, the same criteria which will allow for the evaluation of behaviours and their consequences.

Today, it is a much better-known fact that children are competent in the following scope:

- they can indicate the contents and limits of their integrity;

- from birth, they are social beings, they collaborate competently if they face (on the part of adults) the same form of conduct, regardless of its constructive or destructive impact on their life;

- they provide parents with verbal and non-verbal feedback information, which also constitutes competent hints concerning emotional and existential problems of their own parents.

History has already proved that children can create a community in which an autonomic education system will appear. Children themselves create their living environment, which is isolated from adult domination. This principle also pertains to the environments in which it is not adults who educate children, but children are educating children. Such a model takes place in surroundings such as large families, where a specific sub-community comes into being – it functions within the family model but in a milder form, in which the elder brothers and sisters bring up the younger siblings. What takes place in such a family is the reduced pressure of authority, the right to protest and the practice of mutual advising or help. This model has its forerunners in history. In 1917 in Nebraska, Edward Joseph Flanagan, an American priest, founded a centre for children, which later moved to the country, to a deserted farm west of Omaha. They built several houses there and called their farm "Boys Town". It resembled a village in which children and youth established the board out of their own inhabitants and chose the village council, managing it autonomously.

This community was the model for the child republics which came into being in Spain, Columbia, Brazil, etc. One of them was established in 1956 for 15 children by Father Jesus Silva Mendez. Soon, children from all over the world were coming there. Within a few years, the small children community in the town of Bemposta was transformed into a child town, and later a children republic, in the north of Galicia (where over one thousand children lived until the late 1970s). This republic, joint by the town of Celanova (in which a camp at the Atlantic seaside was founded), had their own school system, legal system, their own authorities and industry. Adults did not have any rights to decide about children's life (Szymański, 2016). The model of learning which excludes obligation and violence has its modern counterparts – the idea of Ivan Illich's deschooling society or the anarchist approach to school education

(Illich, 1976, 2001). Here, learning has the purely individual character if the person feels such a need at all and wants to learn. This approach is offered in free schools, which were established worldwide in the 1960s.

Conclusion

Teachers' approaches to moral education at school as well as the approach of the creators of alternative schools are not always determined by particular philosophical anthropology. Their diversity also frequently results from religious, ideological, psychological or social preferences, the essence and scope of which are often implicit. Therefore, the background in which alternative schools come into being is diversified. Some constitute the continuation, reproduction or imitation of more or less orthodox premises of pedagogy which had their origin in the early 20th century, the others seek unlikeness, originality or eclectic solutions which adjust the educational offer to the changing conditions of everyday life. Teachers who reach for a certain educational philosophy, ideology or theory become "rulers" armed with it have accepted part of the power and causative force over their learners. Therefore, what waits for them is the task of reading, classifying and comparing this multitude of theories, so that they could see, owing to them, this particular play of various layers and shades of ideas, thoughts or values. So far, this has occurred unnoticed, as they have been closed in the system of earlier assumptions, quite different from the ones promoted in these theories.

Every educationalist should know, understand and compare the different cognitive perspectives (present in educational sciences), which describe the essence of education, explain its phenomenon and specify the particular role of the teacher in many different ways. It is not enough to reach for a theory, it should be used in such a way so that not only educators could feel well with it but, first of all, those whom this selected theoretical perspective concerns – learners. Even when one theory informs about something and another tells the same, they are not the same. In the postmodern world, full of many varieties of thinking about education and of many practical solutions which are already rooted in compliance with these varieties, the educationalist can adopt the attitude of a wanderer, who moves along the track and uses an adequate map of the pluralistic world of pedagogical thoughts and theories, before choosing or constructing the own concept of education.

Knowledge of alternative education is necessary for teachers in this sense that, as a result of global communication, they recognize and experience a contradiction between the abundance of constantly generated ideas, approaches, orientations in the field of school education and the impossibility to apply them in practice. An educationalist makes a choice from various territories of knowledge – such which can fulfil the role of "home" and those in which one is as if "on one's own". Owing to this roaming, teachers realize how far they have gone from their "home", from the pedagogy learned during university studies and in the course of preparing for the teacher's role, when they enter uncharted territory (Rewers, 1995, p. 45). Thus, it is worth enter such a decentred and chaotic pedagogical reality in order to, being conscious of its contexts, find space for reflection upon education and the place of discipline in it or its elimination from school practice.

The knowledge of these issues cannot be accumulated or given one common all-embracing label, because "[…] each theory, to a certain extent, can describe the world. The social world is not ontologically monolithic: it is diversified, complicated, internally contradictory, dynamic, constantly open, unceasingly in the process of becoming." (Melosik, 1995, p. 20). Among educators, there are those who are aware which knowledge is necessary or useful for them in a particular period. Depending on whether they are reflective practitioners or experimenters searching for answers to questions, in compliance with J. Dewey's idea, they crave for knowledge – not only from the philosophical, but also pedagogical, sociological, psychological or ideological perspective. Those who seek solutions not having previously defined the sources of didactic justification of their implementation apply the pedagogy understood in this way in order to choose (while wandering through the world of different ideas and their theoretical justifications) the most appropriate pedagogy for them – to "consume" it in their own practice or theory of education.

Contemporary knowledge concerning education does not provide all teachers with the feeling of certainty, peace, freedom from doubts as a result of recognizing new or rediscovering "old" theories and models of education. They might be in a new (e.g. linguistic, visual) wrapping, but still:

> […] every theory refers as if to a slightly different world, to a particular historical moment and to its particular understanding. […] The world consists of many equitable and contradicting, dispersed realities, which EXIST simultaneously.

One can be in several "at the same time". Thus, after a while of thinking in one convention, one can think the world in another, taking into brackets the result of the previous intellectual work. If we accept this, we will not tend to deny (which is modern in its essence) the existence of such realities and theories that do not stem from our own biography and experience. (Melosik, 1995, p. 20)

Educators face the dilemma of whether – in the light of social, democratizing changes and the related processes of rapid and universal communication – education towards and in discipline should not be replaced by education in active trust, in experiencing the value and reliability of norms which ought to be understandable, accepted and received as individual and the collective at the same time (by both teachers and their learners). Does the school which uses coercion and discipline not multiply problems itself? (Mieszalski, 1997). What currently seems to be relevant is Z. Bauman's thesis (Szkołut, 1999) that, in the course of education directed towards following social norms, autonomous morality should be prioritized, which knows only one obligation – to take care of and respect the Other, the care and respect that do not claim any reciprocity as the moral relation is basically asymmetrical. Thus, the school faces ever more difficult, and perhaps more ambitious challenges.

transl. by Agata Cienciała

References

Bauman, Z. (1996). *Etyka ponowoczesna.* Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

Bendl, S. (1998). *Strašidlo nekázně aneb hledání východiska ze školských labyrintů*. Praha: TH.

Bendl, S. (2001). *Školní kázeň. Metody a strategie.* Praha: ISV.

Bendl, S. (2003). *Prevence a řešení šikany ve škole*. Praha: ISV.

Bendl, S. (2004a). *Kázeňské problemy ve škole*. Praha: Triton.

Bendl, S. (2004b). *Neukázněny žák. Cesta instituionální pomoci*. Praha: ISV.

Bendl S., (2004c). *Jak předcházet nekázni aneb kazeňské prostředky.* Praha: ISV nakladatelství.

Bendl, S. (2005). *Ukázněna třída aneb Kázeňské minimum pro učitele*. Praha: Triton.

van Dick, L. (1979). *Alternativschulen. Information-Probleme-Erfahrungren.* München: Rowohlt Taschenbuch Verlag GmbH.

Dietrich, T. (1995). *Die Pädagogik Peter Petersen. Der Jena Plan: Beispiel einer humanen Schule*. Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt.

Dziewiecki, M. (2006). *Co dalej z wychowaniem w szkole?* Retrieved from http://www.naszdziennik.pl/index.php?typ=my&dat=20061114&id=my11.txt

Edwards, C. H. (2006). *Dyscyplina i kierowanie klasą.* Warszawa: WN PWN.

Fish, S. (2006). Złodzieje języka, *Gazeta Wyborcza* z dnia 22-23 lipca.

Freinet, E. (1991). *Erziehung ohne Zwang. Der Weg Célestin Freinets*. München: DTV Verlag GmbH&Co.KG.

Freire, P. (1973). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed.* Nex York: Seabury.

Giddens, A. (2001). *Poza lewicą i prawicą. Przyszłość polityki radykalnej*. Poznań: Zysk i S-ka.

Gordon, T. (1991). *Wychowanie bez porażek. Rozwiązywanie konfliktów między rodzicami a dziećmi.* Warszawa: IW PAX.

Gordon, T. (1995). *Wychowanie bez porażek w szkole*. Warszawa: IW PAX.

Gordon, T. (1997). *Wychowanie w samodyscyplinie*. Warszawa: IW PAX.

Greenberg, D. (2004). *Endlich frei! Leben und Lernen an der Sudbury – Valley – Schule*. Freiamt im Schwarzwald: Arbor Verlag.

Greenberg, D. (2006). *Ein klarer Blick. Neue Erkenntnisse aus 30 Jahren Sudbury Valle School.* Leipzig: Tologo Verlag.

Gutek, G. L. (2003). *Filozoficzne i ideologiczne podstawy edukacji (Philosophical and Ideological Perspectives on Education).* Gdańsk: GWP.

Illich, I. (1976). *Społeczeństwo bez szkoły*. Warszawa: PIW.

Illich, I. (2001). *Odškolnění společnosti*. Praha: SLON.

Juul J. (1999). *Das kompetente Kind.* Reinbek be Hamburg: Rowohlt.

Key, E. (2005). *Stulecie dziecka*. Warszawa: Akademickie „ŻAK".

Kohl, H. R. (1971). *Antiautoritärer unterricht in der Schule von heute. Erfahrungsbericht und praktische Anleitung*. Reinbek bei Hamburg: Rowohlt Verlag GmbH.

Korczak, J. (1984). *Pisma wybrane.* Warszawa: Nasza Księgarnia.

Kosiorek, M. (2007). *Pedagogika autorytarna. Geneza, modele, przemiany*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls".

Ludwig, P. (Ed.). (1997). *Summerhill: Antiautoritäre Pädagogik heute. Ist die frei Erziehung tatsächlich gescheitert?* Weinheim: Beltz Verlag.

Melosik, Z. (1995). *Postmodernistyczne kontrowersje wokół edukacji*. Toruń – Poznań: Edytor, s.c.

Mieszalski, S. (1997). *O przymusie i dyscyplinie w klasie szkolnej*. Warszawa: WsiP.

Miller, A. (1991). *Mury milczenia. Cena wyparcia urazów dzieciństwa*. Warszawa: PWN.

Miller, A. (1995). *Dramat udanego dziecka. Studia nad powrotem do prawdziwego.* Warszawa: J. Santorski.

Miller, A. (1999). *Zniewolone dzieciństwo. Ukryte źródła tyranii*. Poznań: Media Rodzina.

Miller, A. (2000). *Ścieżki życia. Historie, w których każdy odnaleźć może własne losy.* Poznań: Media Rodzina.

Miller, A. (2006a). *Gdy runą mury milczenia. Prawda faktów*. Poznań: Media Rodzina.

Miller, A. (2006b). *Bunt ciała*. Poznań: Media Rodzina.

Montessori, M. (1990). *Kinder sind anders.* München: U. Weber, dtv/Klett-Cotta.

Montessori, M., Oswald, P., & Schulz-Benesch, G. (1976). *Schule des Kindes. Montessori-Erziehung in der Grundschule.* Freiburg: Verlag Herder.

Muszyńska, E. (1997). *Swoboda, przymus i przemoc w relacjach: dziecko-dorosły*. Poznań: UAM w Poznaniu.

Nawroczyński, B. (1987). *Przymuszać czy wyzwalać? Dzieła wybrane*. Warszawa: Wybór, przedmowa i wstęp Anna Mońka-Stanikowa, WSiP.

Neill, S. A. (1969). *Theorie und Praxis der antiautoritären Erziehung. Das Beispiel Summerhill*. Reinbek bei Hamburg: Rowohlt.

Neill, A. S. (Ed.). (1975). *Die Befreiung des Kindes*. Frankfurt am Mein: Fischer Taschenbuch Verlag.

Popp, S. (1995). *Der Daltonplan in Theorie und Praxis. Ein aktuelles reformpädagogisches Modell zur Förderung selbstständigen Lernens in der Sekundarstufe*. Bad Heilbrun: Verlag Justus Klinkhardt.

Pyżalski, J. (2007). *Nauczyciele-uczniowie. Dwa spojrzenia na dyscyplinę w klasie*. Kraków: „Impuls".

Röhner, R., Wenke, H. (2003). *Daltonské vyučování. Stále živá inspirace*. Brno: Paido.

Rewers, E. (1995). *Koniec podróży. Trudna ponowoczesność*. Poznań: Fundacji Humaniora.

Robertson, J. (1998). *Jak zapewnić dyscyplinę, ład i uwagę w klasie*. Warszawa: WSiP.

Rýdl, K. (1994). *Alternativní pedagogické hnutí v současné společnosti*. Brno: Marek Zeman.

Rýdl, K. (2001). *Peter Petersen a pedagogika jenského planu*. Praha: ISV.

Selye, H. (1974). *Stres okiełznany*. Warszawa: PIW.

Sławiński, S. (1994). *Spór o wychowanie w posłuszeństwie*. Warszawa: IW PAX.

Surzykiewicz, J. (2000). *Agresja i przemoc w szkole*. Warszawa: Centrum Pomocy Psychologiczno-Pedagogicznej.

Štrynclová, G. (2003). *Summerhill. Model antiautoritativní výchovy*. Pardubice: Univerzita Pardubice, Fakulta humanitních studií.

Szkołut T. (1999). *Awangarda, neoawangarda, postawangarda.* Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS.

Szkudlarek, T. (1993). *Wiedza i wolność w pedagogice amerykańskiego postmodernizmu*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza Impuls.

Szymański, M. S. (1992). *Niemiecka pedagogika reformy 1890-1933*. Warszawa: WSiP.

Szymański, M. S. (2016). *Myślenie i działanie w Drugiej Rzeczypospolitej. Esej polityczno-oświatowy*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Żak".

Śliwerski, B. (1996). *Klinika szkolnej demokracji*. Kraków: „Impuls".

Śliwerski, B. (1998). *Współczesne teorie i nurty wychowania*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls".

Śliwerski, B. (2009). *Problemy współczesnej edukacji. Dekonstrukcja polityki oświatowej III RP*. Warszawa: WAiP.

Thurn, S., Tillman, K. J. (1997). *Unsere Schule ist ein Haus des Lernens. Das Beispiel Laborschule Bielefeld*. Reinbek bei Hamburg: Rowohlt Taschenbuch Verlag GmbH.

Wallrabenstein, W. (1992). *Offene Schule-Offener Unterricht. Raatgeber füt Eltern und Lehrer*. Reinbek bei Hamburg: Rowohlt Taschenbuch Verlag.

Witkowski, L. (2009). *Pięć lat pónie. Szkoła polska: między barbarzyństwem i Europą (lekcja „toruńska" i ślady prasowe – pięć lat później i co dalej?)*. Toruń: Wydawnictwo Adam Marszałek.

Zarzour, K. (2006). *Gnębiciel ze szkolnego boiska. Jak radzić sobie z dziecięcą agresją i wychować asertywne dziecko*. Poznań: Dom Wydawniczy REBIS.

Author

Prof. dr hab. Bogusław Śliwerski dr h.c. multi, University of Łódź, Faculty
of Education, Department of Theory of Education, Pomorska 46/48, 91-408 Łódź,
e-mail: boguslaw.sliwerski@uni.lodz.pl

Kázeň ve světle alternativních způsobů vzdělávání

Abstrakt: Studie představuje analýzu konceptu kázně v alternativních školách ve světě. V rámci pedagogiky se dlouhodobě diskutuje problém role a místa kázně ve školním vzdělávání, jelikož existuje mnoho nedorozumění, protikladů a mýtů s tímto tématem spojených. Tento problém je většinou pojednáván fragmentárně nebo jednostranně podle toho, kdo je zastáncem jaká ideologie vzdělávání, tedy zda je proponent odpůrcem nebo zastáncem ukázňování žáků ve škole. Předkládaná studie se věnuje otázce, zda existuje rozdíl mezi názory a přístupy ve státních a alternativních školách. Navrhuji soustředit se na modely (ne)kázně ve škole podle toho, zda ji učitelé akceptují nebo ji naopak postrádají. Z předložených úvah na závěr dovozuji, že v dnešním globálním světě propojených významů, teorií, modelů, zkušeností a jednotlivých řešení nejsou alternativní školy příliš odlišné od některých škol státních.

Klíčová slova: alternativní vzdělávání, pedagogika, škola, kázeň, ideologie vzdělávání, svoboda a přísná výchova

An Examination of Different Methodological Approaches in Student School Behavior Research: The Issue of the Incomparability of Student Self-assessments [1]

Stanislav Bendl, Hana Vonkova, Ondrej Papajoanu, Eva Vankatova

Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education

Abstract: The issue of school educational outcomes measurement is of great concern to both researchers and practitioners. We can distinguish two main types of outcomes: outcomes in the domain of academic achievement (e.g., mathematics, information and communication technologies, and history) and outcomes in the behavioral domain (school discipline). Both types of outcomes are assessed and graded in schools. However, if we were to let different teachers assess the same students' knowledge and skills, their assessment would frequently differ and the same applies to their assessments of student behavior. The following question arises: How accurately do we measure school educational outcomes? In our study we aim to address the following issues: (a) describe the most commonly used methodological approaches to student school behavior measurement and discuss their strengths and weaknesses. Specifically, we focus on school documentation analysis, interviews, observations, and questionnaire surveys. The section about school documentation analysis focuses on empirical analysis of the selected school documents of particular Czech schools; (b) propose an innovative approach to student school behavior measurement combining student self-reports and peer-reports with the anchoring vignette method to enhance data comparability.

Keywords: school discipline, academic achievement, self-assessment, bias, anchoring vignette method

This study deals with the issue of student school behavior measurement. In general, the issue of school educational outcomes measurement is a key issue in the literature. We can distinguish two main types of outcomes: outcomes

---

in the domain of academic achievement (e.g., mathematics, information and communication technologies, and history) and outcomes in the behavioral domain. Both types of outcomes (academic achievement and behavior) are assessed and graded in schools. However, if we were to let different teachers assess the same students' knowledge and skills, their assessment would frequently differ. For example, Bendl (1987) let different teachers assess the same students' work which was indicative of students' performance in Czech language classes (e.g. different types of grammar exercises, essays) and found that some of the participating teachers assessed the same students' work differently. There was a difference of up to two points on a Czech five-point grading scale (1 = *excellent*, 2 = *very good*, 3 = *good*, 4 = *sufficient*, 5 = *insufficient*). A similar situation occurs in teachers' assessments of student discipline.

The following question arises: How accurately do we measure school educational outcomes?

Here we focus on the methods/approaches suggested for student school discipline measurement and examine their specific properties. Special attention is paid to students as an information source. Even though students in schools are typically the "objects" of assessment, they are active participants in the educational process and can provide a valuable perspective on a variety of educational outcomes. Student self-assessments (typically questionnaires with rating scales) are frequently employed in educational research and have the potential to contribute to the measurement of both the academic and behavioral outcomes of the educational process. The combination of student self-assessment and peer-assessment appears to be a promising approach: a student is not only assessing his/her behavior, but also the behavior of his/her peers (classmates). However, it has been recognized that both student self-assessments and peer-assessments can be biased by the differences in scale usage between different respondents. We also address this issue and suggest its potential solution.

Our study has the following specific aims:

1) Review the most commonly used *methodological approaches* (school documentation analysis, interviews, observations, questionnaire surveys) to student school behavior measurement and discuss their strengths and weaknesses and the conditions under which they can be used.

In particular, we:

- discuss the issue of using *school documentation* to measure the prevalence of school (mis)behavior in the context of U.S. and Czech schools. The current use of office discipline referrals (ODRs) in school behavior research is described for the U.S. With regards to Czech schools, we discuss the use of school behavior grading and official sanctioning as indicators of school misbehavior levels. In the same sub-section we also provide an empirical analysis of the selected school documents of particular Czech schools. Both the strengths and weaknesses of these indicators are pointed out;

- describe several examples of studies of student school behavior where *interviews* were employed. The role of interviews in providing in-depth information on school misbehavior incidents and in the examination of school behavioral interventions is highlighted. The strengths and weaknesses of interviews in large-scale research are described;

- provide a brief overview of the two basic *types of observation*: naturalistic observation and systematic direct approaches. Several ways of data recording (A-B-C recording, event recording, time-sampling interval recording etc.) are introduced together with their main characteristics. The well-established use of observations in student school behavior research is illustrated. However, some major weaknesses to using observations in large-scale research whose goal is determining misbehavior prevalence are emphasized;

- discuss the strengths of using *questionnaires* in large-scale surveys and illustrate their wide-spread use in research into student school discipline. We examine the issue of the low level of agreement between different informants on student school behavior (parents, teachers, peers, and students themselves) and provide an overview of the potential strengths and weaknesses related to the use of different informants. We also draw attention to the problems with the (in)comparability of data obtained using questionnaires with ratings scales due to respondents' differential scale usage.

2) Propose an *innovative approach* to student school behavior measurement combining student self-reports and peer-reports while adjusting for differences in scale usage among respondents.

1   Measuring approaches

In this section we describe the most commonly used methodological approaches in student school behavior research: school documentation analysis, interviews, observations, and questionnaires. For each we provide example studies illustrating their use in school discipline research. In the case of school documentation, two specific areas are focused on in detail: (a) a sub-section dealing with the use of office discipline referrals in the context of U.S. schools, (b) a sub-section dealing with the use of school behavior grading and sanctioning in the context of Czech schools. The latter sub-section also contains an empirical analysis of the documentation of selected Czech schools which supports the line of argument being provided there. The major strengths and weaknesses of each of these approaches are pointed out. The U.S. system was chosen because of the vast amount of literature regarding student school discipline that is published in the context of U.S. schools and the frequent use of ODRs as a school behavior indicator. The Czech system was chosen because it is both familiar and relevant to the intended readers.

1.1   School documentation

One of the approaches that is frequently used in studies of school discipline when identifying the level of disciplinary problems in schools, is the analysis of school documentation.

Office discipline referrals – strengths and weaknesses (in the context of U.S. schools)

Office discipline referrals (ODR) are frequently employed as an indicator of the overall disciplinary climate, particularly in studies conducted in the U.S. ODR can be defined as a situation when: (a) a student violated some of the school rules or norms, (b) his/her problem behavior was noticed by some member of the school staff, (c) the event resulted in a consequence delivered by administrative staff who produced a written record describing the whole event (Sugai et al., 2000). ODR forms[2] usually contain such

---

[2]   It is possible to find examples of ODR forms online (Todd & Horner, 2006). Sometimes, an ODR form for minor infractions and an ODR form for major infractions are distinguished. It is also possible to find ODR forms containing further information concerning the incident like the information about other people involved in the incident or the possible motivation for the behavior.

information as: time, date, name of the student who violated the rules, name of the referring teacher, location of the incident, type of problem behavior, or type of consequence that was delivered to the student. It has been suggested that ODR data are a valuable source of information for schools concerning their students' school behavior and can be used for data-based decision making in terms of school prevention efforts (Irvin et al., 2006; Sugai et al., 2000). There are also sophisticated computer applications such as *School Wide Information System* (SWIS) for entering, organizing, managing, and reporting the ODR data to be used in school decision making (Irvin et al., 2006). According to Irvin et al., ODR data in SWIS can be used not only for internal school decision-making concerning school discipline, but also to plan the support provided to individual students, to report discipline data to the district/state, and to aggregate and interpret data across different schools. Standardized SWIS reports summarize the following information: (a) ODR per day per month for the whole school, (b) ODR per type of problem behavior, (c) ODR per student, (d) ODR per location in the school, (e) ODR per time of day (Irvin et al., 2006). ODR data is also frequently used as an outcome measure in studies examining the impact of behavioral interventions in schools (e.g. Bohannon et al., 2006; Luiselli et al., 2005; McCurdy, Mannella, & Eldridge, 2003).

The major advantage of using ODR data as an indicator of school discipline levels is that they are already collected in many schools (Sugai et al., 2000) so they can serve as an efficient source of information for the school itself. The data are collected on a regular basis allowing the identification of long-term trends in school discipline levels. Also, the use of computer applications to record ODR (or similar records of discipline infractions) could be utilized by the researchers – the readily available data from different schools may be collected in a central database and then analyzed for research purposes. However, there are some limitations to using ODR data as a school discipline indicator. First, each school defines and applies referral procedures in a unique manner, that is the same student behavior may be reacted to differently by teachers in different schools (Sugai et al., 2000). ODR can also be administered differently by teachers in the same school depending on their tolerance level and their skills at handling student behavior (Morrison & Skiba, 2001). ODR data might also be biased by other factors – it would appear plausible that the probability of a student receiving an official sanction like an ODR might be influenced by the relationship

between the teacher and a particular student. Also, official sanctions like an ODR capture only those incidents that reach a certain level of severity thus not providing information about the less severe (but maybe very prevalent) types of student misbehavior. Lastly, for the ODR or any official sanction to be administered, the school staff has to notice the behavior in the first place. However, since some of the types of student misbehavior are meant to remain hidden to teachers (e.g. students cheating on exams), it is improbable that the number of disciplinary sanctions would correspond to the actual prevalence of the behavior. A summary of the strengths and weaknesses of office discipline referrals is given in Table 1.

Table 1

Office Discipline Referrals – A Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths	Weaknesses
Easy use of already collected data (already collected in many schools, use of electronic data systems)	The definitions and applications of referral procedures differ across schools
Collected on a regular basis (allowing the examination of trends in behavior)	Differences in ODR administration based on teachers' skills and tolerance levels
Many types of information about disciplinary incidents (time, place, type of misbehavior etc.)	Does not capture less severe rule violations
	School staff might not notice some rule violations

School behavior Grading and Sanctioning – strengths and weaknesses (in the context of Czech schools)

In the Czech Republic, a similar kind of school documentation data could be used to measure school misbehavior levels in schools. Czech schools can formally sanction the students for their misbehavior using three different types of official reprimands that are graded by their severity: (a) an official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher (*napomenutí třídního učitele*), (b) an official reprimand of medium severity administered by a classroom teacher (*důtka třídního učitele*), (c) an official reprimand of higher severity administered by a school principal (*důtka ředitele školy*). The information about the administration of these official sanctions is recorded in a school's documentation. We could explore the data about the number of these formal sanctions that were administered by particular schools to determine the overall school misbehavior level. According to the Czech School

Inspectorate[3] (CSI), in the school year 2015/2016 77.3% of Czech basic schools[4] (primary level) and 95.8% (lower secondary level) administered an official reprimand of lesser severity to a student, 66.8% (primary level) and 95.4% (lower secondary level) an official reprimand of medium severity, and 45.4% (primary level) and 89.8% (lower secondary level) an official reprimand of higher severity (CSI, 2017).

Also, students in Czech schools receive a formal report of their school achievement in different subjects, semi-annually. Their performance in each subject is summarized and represented by a single final grade. Part of this final report is also a final grade in the domain of school behavior (discipline). Unlike achievement in particular subjects, which is graded on a five-point scale (1 = *excellent*, 2 = *very good*, 3 = *good*, 4 = *sufficient*, 5 = *insufficient*), student school behavior is graded on a three-point scale (1 = *very good* [best grade], 2 = *satisfactory*, 3 = *unsatisfactory* [worst grade]). It is also possible to analyze student final grades in the domain of school behavior to determine the overall discipline level at particular schools. In the school year 2015/2016, 23.1% of Czech basic schools (primary level) and 76.3% (lower secondary level) graded a student with grade 2 (satisfactory) in the domain of school behavior and 5.9% (primary level) and 43.7% (lower secondary level) graded a student with grade 3 (unsatisfactory) in the domain of school behavior (CSI, 2017).

The advantage of school documentation as a data source is that the data is readily available since schools record both student grades in the domain of behavior and the official disciplinary sanctions that are administered to students. Nowadays many schools use electronic systems to record student grades, attendance, and other information, involving their final grades and administered disciplinary sanctions. A wide-spread example of this electronic system in the Czech Republic is *Bakaláři[5]*. Having the data accessible in electronic form can further simplify the use of the data and their analysis. Indeed, the system allows schools to do some basic analysis of school

---

[3]   The Czech School Inspectorate is an administrative body of the Czech Republic and an organizational component of the state. Web pages: http://www.csicr.cz

[4]   The sample consisted of 3 464 Czech basic schools (primary and lower secondary level). The percentages represent schools that administered at least one reprimand of a particular type to a student during the school year 2015/2016. The same applies to student grades in the domain of school behavior discussed later in this section. For more information see CSI (2017).

[5]   https://www.bakalari.cz/

behavior data (e.g. basic summaries, graphs). It must be noted, however, that even though schools record the data on student behavior, it is not collected in any single central database that would allow large-scale analysis.

However, we should note that some statistical information about student school behavior is available. The former Institute for Information on Education (IIE) conducted so-called *Quick Surveys*[6] where a representative sample of 4000 schools[7] (resp. their principals) were surveyed on various topics, some of which were related to student school behavior (bullying, aggression). The principals were, for example, asked about the number of times students had come to school with different types of weapons or about the frequency of bullying incidents during that particular school year (IIE, 2007, 2008).

Nowadays, the Czech School Inspectorate surveys schools about different topics through the *InspIS* electronic system, including topics related to student school behavior. The school principals might use the information from the *Bakaláři* system to fill in the questionnaires of the CSI. Also, the CSI visits a number of schools each year to conduct in-depth school inspections. The scope of information on student school behavior collected by the CSI differs from year to year, but every year at least some basic indicators are collected. In the CSI annual and thematic reports, it is possible to find some summarizing data about student school behavior. For example, in the annual reports for the school years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017[8] (CSI 2016, 2017) it is possible to find the percentages of schools that had to deal with diverse types of risky behavior (truancy, bullying, vandalism etc.). In the school year 2015/2016, 41% of schools reported dealing with bullying in the previous school year, while in the school year 2016/2017, 35.3% of schools reported dealing with bullying in the previous school year. Still, the percentages must be interpreted with caution in terms of the school misbehavior level measurement, since they do not reflect the number or the severity of the

---

[6]   In Czech, these are called *Rychlá šetření* conducted by Ústav pro informace ve vzdělávání.
[7]   For more information on the sample see IIE (2007).
[8]   The data on school behavior published in the reports are based on the samples of 787 basic schools (2015/2016) and 867 basic schools (2016/2017). For more information about the composition of the sample, see the respective annual reports (CSI, 2016, 2017). During school inspections at these schools, the inspectors investigated whether the school dealt with at least one incident of a range of different types of risky behavior during the previous school year. So, the data in the annual report for school year 2015/2016 actually correspond to the year 2014/2015 and the same applies for the 2016/2017 report.

incidents. For example, at one school there might have been a single low severity level incident of bullying during the school year. At another school, there might have been a number of high-severity level bullying incidents during the school year. Both schools, however, would be included into the statistics as schools where bullying took place without any differentiation made between them.

As with the previously mentioned ODRs, there are several severe limitations to using both student grades in the domain of discipline and the formal sanction data for large-scale school discipline measurement and, for example, the comparison of different (types of) schools. Every Czech school is mandated to have an internal document[9] regulating its functioning in different domains (e.g. student rights and responsibilities, expected norms of behavior, student safety, or standards for student assessment). It also covers the issue of school disciplinary sanctions and the specifics of their administration. However, the actual content of this document varies across schools which apply different approaches to dealing with student misbehavior and its grading/sanctioning.

The school codes of particular schools specify how student behavior is graded. However, the exact specifications of the declared standards for student behavior grading differ across schools. Many schools include only very general descriptions (see Table 2) of student behavior and their correspondence to a particular grade, into their codes, e.g. Základní škola a mateřská škola Bílá / Basic school[10] and Kindergarden Bílá (ZŠ a MŠ Bílá). These general descriptions as such do not provide very detailed information about the concrete standards which particular schools apply when assessing student behavior. It might be the case that two schools differ in their actual assessment of student behavior, even though they both formally adhere to these very general descriptions. Also, the school codes often state that when grading student behavior, student age, moral and cognitive development should be considered (ZŠ a MŠ Bílá, 2017). This introduces further "inaccuracy" into student behavior grading (in terms of objective school misbehavior level measurement) since, as the above-mentioned statement suggests, the same behavior of two students might be judged differently based on their developmental level.

---

[9]   In Czech this document is called *školní řád* (translated as the school code; Průcha, 2005). It is a set of rules and regulations governing the functioning of a school.

[10] In Czech school system basic school typically covers primary and lower secondary level (age 6 to 10 and 11 to 15 respectively).

Some schools provide more concrete descriptions of the standards for student behavior grading, specifying some of the violations that correspond to a particular grade (e.g. The Bělský Les Kindergarten and Basic School, Ostrava / Základní škola a mateřská škola Ostrava – Bělský Les, 2017). However, when the schools specify their grading standards in more detail, the differences in grading standards among schools become more obvious. A good example is the number of unexcused absences for which a student is given a particular grade in the domain of school behavior. In the Jan Werich Basic School / Základní škola Jana Wericha (2011, 2017), 3 to 10 unexcused absences correspond to grade 2 in the domain of behavior. However, in the Želenice Basic School / Základní škola Želenice (2012), 11 up to 20 unexcused absences (lessons) are assessed as grade 2.

Concerning school disciplinary sanctions, the situation is very similar. The school codes of particular schools specify how these sanctions are administered. However, as with student grading in the domain of behavior, these specifications differ greatly across schools (see Table 3). For example, the Sázavská Basic School / Základní škola Sázavská (2013) does not specify the standards for the administration (i.e. the types of misbehavior for which a particular sanction would be administered) of these sanctions at all. Some schools provide a basic description of the misbehaviors for which a formal sanction of a particular degree of severity will be administered. For example, the Petřiny – North Basic School / Základní škola Petřiny – sever (2015) administers the least severity level sanction for minor misbehaviors, forgetting school equipment, and classroom disruption. The medium severity level sanction is administered for forgetting homework or a student's report book, repeated late arrivals, bad working morale, inappropriate behavior of a lesser degree.

These descriptions, even though they indeed specify the behavior for which a certain sanction can be administered, are very general and it might be difficult to say where exactly is the borderline between "minor misbehaviors" and "inappropriate behavior of a lesser degree". It is also stated that each rule violation is judged individually, all the circumstances are taken into consideration, and also the consequences of the sanction administration are considered. The vague definition of student misbehavior and the involvement of such a broad scope of circumstances into the sanction administration cast some doubt about their "accuracy" in terms of student

misbehavior measurement. If the categories of student misbehavior are only loosely defined, different teachers can administer different sanctions for the same behavior because each one will judge it differently. Also, the presence/absence of some extenuating or other contextual circumstances can result in administering different sanctions for the equivalent incidents of rule violation.

Table 2

Examples of Student School Behavior Grading Standards Defined in the School Codes of Selected Czech Schools

School	ZŠ a MŠ Bílá	ZŠ a MŠ Ostrava – Bělský Les
How behavior grading standards are set	A general definition of student behavior	A definition of student behavior including a complex list of particular examples
A description of the rule violations corresponding to grade 2 (the lower grade for school behavior)	Grade 2 (satisfactory) The behavior of a student is not in line with the norms of behavior defined by the school code. The student committed a serious violation against the norms of proper behavior or the school code or he/she repeatedly commits less serious violations. Usually he/she commits further rule violations even after he/she has been sanctioned by an official reprimand of medium severity administered by a classroom teacher and disrupts school educational efforts. He/she puts his/her own health or the health of others at risk.	Grade 2 (satisfactory) The behavior of a student is not in line with the norms of behavior defined by the school code. The student commits serious rule violations or repeatedly commits less serious violations, while not being susceptible to educational efforts. Grade 2 in the domain of school behavior corresponds to, for example, 2 days of unexcused absence (or repeated absence of up to 12 lessons or 1 day of unexcused absence + other violations), hurting peers, bullying, xenophobic behavior, leaving the school building without permission during instruction time, theft, rude and vulgar behavior towards peers and school staff (see School Law, § 31, par. 3), repeated lying, deceit, vandalism, consummation of alcohol and smoking cigarettes on the school premises or during school-organized events.

Note. We provide the translations of the description for grade 2. In the Czech Republic, student school behavior is graded on a three-point scale (1 = *very good* [best grade], 2 = *satisfactory*, 3 = *unsatisfactory* [worst grade]). For the description of other grades see the respective school codes.

Some schools developed quite sophisticated point systems where students are given negative points for inappropriate behavior. For a certain number of these points, the official sanctions of different severity are administered. For example ZŠ a MŠ Bílá (2017) assesses such rule violations as late arrival, forgetting a student's report book, or using electronic devices such as mobile phones or tablets in school with 1 point. An official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher will be administered for 6 points. Another example is ZŠ Jana Wericha (2017) which defines over 20 types of misbehavior and states the exact number of points or a point interval for committing each of these types of misbehavior, ranging from late arrival to bullying. An official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher will be administered for 4 points These more clearly defined descriptions of a school's official sanction administration policies provide a better idea of how these schools administer these sanctions and what are the standards for student behavior.

However, as the standards for sanction administration become more explicit, the differences between particular schools become more evident. For example, at ZŠ a MŠ Bílá, the use of mobile phones, tablets, or other electronic devices in school is sanctioned by 1 point. At ZŠ Jana Wericha, the use of a mobile phone during lessons is sanctioned by 2 points. Thus, hypothetically, at ZŠ a MŠ Bílá a student can use a mobile phone during a lesson six times before he/she receives an official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher (6 points), while at ZŠ Jana Wericha a student can use a mobile phone during a lesson only twice before he/she is administered the very same sanction (4 points).

Table 3

Examples of Disciplinary Offences Sanctioning Defined in the School Codes of Selected Czech Schools

School	ZŠ Sázavská	ZŠ Petřiny – sever	ZŠ a MŠ Bílá	ZŠ Jana Wericha
Point system	Non-existing	Non-existing	Existing (basic)	Existing (complex)
Disciplinary offences corresponding to sanctions	No definition	General definition	Definition elaborated by a point system	Definition elaborated by a complex point system
Sanction specification	Sanctions are only listed	Sanctions are specified generally	Sanctions are specified mainly by the number of points	Sanctions are specified by the number of points
Misbehavior sanctioning as defined in school codes	(a) An official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher; (b) An official reprimand of medium severity administered by a classroom teacher;	(a) An official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher – minor misbehaviors, forgetting school equipment, and classroom disruption; (b) An official reprimand of medium severity administered by a classroom teacher – forgetting homework or a student's report book, repeated late arrivals, bad working morale, inappropriate behavior of a lesser degree;	(a) An official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher – 6 points. (b) An official reprimand of medium severity administered by a classroom teacher – 12 points. (c) An official reprimand of higher severity administered by a school principal – 18 points.	(a) An official reprimand of lesser severity administered by a classroom teacher – 4 points. (b) An official reprimand of medium severity administered by a classroom teacher – 8 points.

Table 3 (continued)

School	ZŠ Sázavská	ZŠ Petřiny – sever	ZŠ a MŠ Bílá	ZŠ Jana Wericha
	(c) An official reprimand of higher severity administered by a school principal.	(c) An official reprimand of higher severity administered by a school principal – a higher rate of the previously mentioned violations, aggressive behavior, bullying, hurting younger and weaker peers, vandalism, low levels of truancy.	For each of the following rule violations, a student will earn 1 point. – not wearing internal footwear inside the school building; – forgetting a student's report book or note book; – using a mobile phone, tablets, or other electronic devices in school. *(There are a few other examples, please see the school code.)*	(c) An official reprimand of higher severity administered by a school principal – 12 points. Violations: – late arrival (repeatedly): 1 point; – not having school equipment (2x): 1 point; – not doing homework (2x): 1 point; – using a mobile phone during lessons: 2 points; – throwing objects out of windows: 2 points; – lying and cheating: 4 to 12 points; – bullying (any form): 18 points; – theft: 4 to 18 points. *(There are many other examples, please see the school code.)*

Note. In the table there are sometimes only excerpts from the school codes or shortened forms of their passages that illustrate the differences between schools since the complete school codes would be too long to present in the paper. An interested reader can see the original school codes for more complex information.

To sum up, as with the student grades in the domain of school behavior, using disciplinary sanctions data for the large-scale measurement of school misbehavior levels has some severe limitations. Some schools define their sanction administration policy only very loosely (if at all) providing space for variability between teachers in sanction administration. Also, the circumstances of particular incidents are taken into consideration when administering the official sanctions, making these sanctions more prone to inaccuracy as the indicators of school misbehavior level. Some schools define their sanction administration policy more clearly and use for example well-structured point systems. However, the comparison of these point systems indicates significant differences between schools in terms of their standards for official sanction administration. Lately, the media has also informed us that some teachers consider these official sanctions ineffective and, therefore, they do not use them at all (iDnes.cz, 2018). This further supports the notion that there might be notable differences in the administration of these sanctions not only between schools, but also between individual teachers, who might be inclined to use these official sanctions to a different degree. In other words, two teachers might give different sanctions for the same student misbehavior: one might administer an official sanction while the other could use other ways of disciplining the student. Also, as was already mentioned with ODRs, some forms of student misbehavior are intended to remain hidden to teachers (bullying, cheating) so the number of administered disciplinary sanctions might not be representative of the real prevalence of these types of behavior. For a summary of the strengths and weaknesses of school behavior grading and sanctioning see Table 4.

Table 4

School Behavior Grading and Sanctioning – A Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths	Weaknesses
Disciplinary indicators are already recorded by schools (so they can easily be used for research purposes)	Vague definitions of student behavior grading and sanctioning procedures
	Different student behavior grading and sanctioning procedures across schools
	Does not capture less severe rule violations
	School staff might not notice a rule violation

1.2   Interviews

Interviews can provide in-depth information about various forms of student misbehavior. Researchers into school discipline can employ interviews especially when they focus on the unique perspectives of the participants, detailed accounts of disciplinary incidents, or the emotional/behavioral responses to these incidents. For example, Casey-Cannon, Hayward, and Gowen (2001) used interviews to examine middle-school girls' experiences of peer victimization. Based on the interviews, they were able to document several detailed accounts of peer victimization that the girls experienced during their studies. The girls described their emotional reactions to the incidents, providing an insight into their feelings related to the victimization experience. The behavioral responses of the girls to the victimization were examined together with the information about how they perceived the appropriateness of their response and how they would respond if victimization reoccurred. Interviews also allowed the researchers to examine the impacts of the victimization experience on the girls' self-image and peer relationships, i.e. how they felt about themselves and how it impacted their friendships and acquaintanceships. As pointed out by Crothers and Levinson (2004) in their bullying assessment review, the advantage of using interviews is also that school children have an opportunity to speak about issues regarding bullying that may not be typically addressed in other formal assessment measures.

Interviews can also be used to examine the perceptions of school staff regarding school behavioral interventions (e.g. Lindsey, 2008). Lindsey acknowledges that in the process of the diffusion of innovations (e.g. new behavioral interventions in schools) the true quality of an innovation is not as important as the user's perception of its worth. She conducted interviews with teachers, principals and other relevant personnel to find out what characteristics of *Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports* (PBIS) – an educational innovation that promotes socially appropriate behaviors among students – affect their adoption by schools. Some of the important aspects influencing the diffusion process are: (a) relative advantage – the extent to which an innovation is viewed as better than what is currently being used; (b) compatibility – the degree to which others perceive the innovation to be congruent with the current norms, values, beliefs, or experiences; (c) complexity – the degree of sophistication associated with the innovation (i.e. innovations too complicated to understand and operate will be adopted

at a slower rate); (d) trial-ability – how easily an innovation can be piloted on a small scale to determine its benefits; (e) observe-ability – how obvious the advantages of an innovation are to potential adopters. Thus, examining the perceptions of the "adopters" of behavioral intervention innovations through interviews seems very helpful for both researchers and practitioners. Nastasi and Schensul (2005) strongly emphasize the role of qualitative research (where an in-depth interview is one of the primary methods) in school intervention research especially when it comes to documenting challenges in intervention implementation, examining cultural or contextual factors influencing intervention effectiveness, or the social or ecological validity of interventions.

Table 5
Interviews – A Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths	Weaknesses
In-depth information about various forms of student misbehavior	High time/personnel costs
The unique perspectives of the participants	Low practicability for large-scale assessment
Detailed accounts of disciplinary incidents	A high risk of bias decreases the comparability of data (e.g. different responses from participants elicited by different interviewers)
The emotional/behavioral responses of students to these incidents	
Flexibility (interviews allow to ask further supplementary questions based on a respondent's previous answers)	

Even though interviews are a valid method in school discipline research, there appear to be several limitations to using them to determine the actual level of student misbehavior in schools. Crothers and Levinson (2004) state as the foremost weakness of interviewing the time investment necessary to meet with students in order to adequately sample the entire student population. Also, they mention that different interviewers may elicit a variety of responses from children and that there is a significant danger of bias caused by the preconceptions or viewpoints of the interviewers. Both the low practicability of interviewing for a large-scale assessment and the high risk of biases decreasing the comparability of the data, limit the use of interviewing in the measurement of student school misbehavior levels. However, interviews can be used as a preliminary step in the construction of questionnaires on student school misbehavior (Ding et al., 2008, 2010). The use of interviews for small-scale in-depth studies or as a qualitative

"supplement" to quantitative data certainly has its place in school discipline research. For a summary of the strengths and weaknesses of interviews see Table 5.

1.3   Observations

Observations of student behavior are a great source of a large amount of data on student behavior. Hintze, Volpe, and Shapiro (2002) place it among the most widely used assessment procedures of school psychologists.

Observation of student behavior is also well-established as a tool for research into school behavioral interventions and their effectiveness. For example, systematic observations are often conducted to determine the differences in the occurrence of the targeted observable behavior before and after the intervention has been implemented (e.g. Barrish, Saunders, & Wolf, 1969; Campbell & Anderson, 2011). Some typical examples of studies using observations of student behavior are those made into *Good Behavior Game* (a universal classroom behavioral intervention, Barrish et al., 1969) which examine the intervention's effectiveness in reducing student disruptive behavior (e.g. Flower et al., 2014; Lannie & McCurdy, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2015).

Hintze et al. (2002) provide an overview of the best practices for observations of student behavior. Here we provide a shortened overview of these types of observations together with their main characteristics.

In the case of *naturalistic observation,* the observer records behavioral events in their natural setting (e.g. a classroom) and observes all that is going on there, without any specific behavior in mind. The most common way of recording the events is keeping anecdotal or descriptive records of the behaviors that appear important to the observer as they occur over time. However, the interpretation of such data must be cautious, since there is a risk of "overinterpreting" the data or making inferences about student behavior from a limited and unstandardized sample of behavior.

The other way of conducting naturalistic observation is the use of A-B-C (*Antecedent-Behavior-Consequence*) observation and recording. The focus here lies in recording the behavior or events occurring just before the behavior of interest is observed (the antecedent) and the behavior or events that are observed as a result of the behavior of interest (the consequence).

An example of this type of observation would be (Hintze et al., 2002): (a) antecedent = a teacher asks some students to take out their paper and pencils; (b) behavior = the target student does not take out their paper and pencil but plays with a toy car on the desk instead; (c) consequence = the teacher reprimands the target student.

Apart from naturalistic observation, there are *systematic direct approaches* to behavioral observation (Hintze et al., 2002). These are characterized by: (a) the goal is to measure specific behaviors, (b) the observed behaviors have been precisely operationally defined, (c) observations are conducted under standardized procedures and are highly objective, (d) the times and places for observation are carefully selected and specified, (e) the scoring and summarizing of the data are standardized and do not vary across multiple observers. The goal of such observation can be, for example, to determine the frequency with which a particular student is out of their seat. First, being out of their seat would be clearly defined[11] and then the student would be directly observed for a specified length of time with the number of times he/she got out of his/her seat noted (also, the length of time spent out of their seat might be noted).

Actually, there are several types of data about student behavior, that can be recorded (Hintze et al., 2002): (a) *frequency or event recording* – the observer records the number of occurrences of a behavior observed during a specified time period. It is useful for the behaviors that have a discrete beginning and ending so that their occurrence can be clearly recorded (e.g. raising hands, throwing a pencil, hitting a classmate) and that occur at a relatively low rate; (b) *duration recording* – useful for the behaviors where duration is of importance (e.g. studying, temper tantrums, or social isolation);

---

[11]   In Barrish et al. (1969), out-of-seat behavior was operationalized as follows: Leaving the seat and/or seated position during a lesson or scooting the desk without permission. Exceptions to the definition, and instances not recorded, included out-of-seat behavior that occurred when no more than four pupils signed out on the chalkboard to leave for the restroom, when pupils went one at a time to the teacher´s desk during an independent study assignment, and when pupils were merely changing their orientation in their seat. Also, when a child left his seat to approach the teacher's desk, but then appeared to notice that someone else was already there or on his way and consequently quickly returned to his seat, the behavior was not counted. Permission was defined throughout the study as raising one's hand, being recognized by the teacher, and receiving consent from her to engage in a behavior. Mitchell et al. (2015) used the following definition: Out-of-seat behavior was defined as the student's buttocks breaking contact with the seat for more than 3 s without a teacher's permission.

(c) *latency recording* – the observer records the elapsed time between the onset of a stimulus or signal (e.g. a teacher's directive) and the initiation of a specified behavior (i.e. compliance with the directive); (d) *time-sampling interval recording* – with this type of recording, a time period for observation is selected and divided into a number of equal intervals (e.g. a 30 minute observation period can be divided into 180 10-second intervals) and the presence or absence of the target behavior within each interval is recorded.

Table 6
Observations – A Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths	Weaknesses
The examination of behavior and its contextual factors in natural settings The systematic examination of a behavior's antecedents and consequences (a good data source for clinicians and psychologists)	Some behaviors remain hidden to observers High time/personnel cost of lengthy observations The risk of misinterpreting the data obtained by naturalistic observations The risk of misinterpreting the overall level of school discipline due to short observations The risk of the presence of an observer influencing the behavior of the observed individuals

Conducting observations of student behavior definitely plays an important role in both research into school discipline and everyday educational practice. However, several potential limitations can be identified when trying to measure the overall "level" of school discipline (i.e. various types of misbehavior) on a large-scale basis. First, as mentioned by Crothers and Levinson (2004), observation methods may not measure the true prevalence and magnitude of some covert types of misbehavior such as bullying. It frequently occurs in such school areas where there is only a limited opportunity to observe students (e.g. locker-rooms, restrooms). Also, some other types of misbehavior are by their nature "meant" to remain hidden to others such as various forms of academic dishonesty. It could also be argued that the temporal presence of an observer may restrain students from committing some forms of violent behavior towards others. There arises also an ethical issue: what if the observer, who is meant to remain as unobtrusive as possible, becomes a witness to violence between students? His/her interference with the conflict would impact the results of the measurement. However, his/her passive witnessing of the violent conflict where students can be seriously harmed would be, at the very least, disturbing.

Another issue that arises when using observations to measure the level of misbehavior in schools is the scope of observations conducted at a single school. Short-term observations of student behavior in schools might bring biased results, because the number of factors influencing student behavior is enormous (ranging from weather conditions to events occurring in the lesson prior to the observation; Bendl, 2011) and some of them may temporarily change student misbehavior levels, leading researchers to inaccurate conclusions about the overall level of student misbehavior. Long-term systematic observations throughout the school would probably bring more accurate results. However, the time and personnel-consuming nature of such an approach would be immense even at a single school (not to mention for the large-scale measurement of student misbehavior that would allow, for example, an accurate comparison of certain types of schools or schools in different regions). For a summary of the strengths and weaknesses of observations see Table 6.

1.4   Questionnaire surveys (parent-, teacher-, peer-, and self-reports)

Questionnaire surveys are widely used in school discipline research. For example, in research into school bullying, they are the most frequently used data collection method (Wei & Huang, 2005). There are a number of advantages associated with the use of questionnaires. Their low monetary/personnel cost and their easy administration make them particularly preferable for large-scale data collection. Questionnaires are commonly employed to measure the prevalence of various types of student misbehavior in general and to identify those which occur most frequently (e.g. Ding et al., 2008; Koutrouba, 2013), or to measure the prevalence of some specific type of misbehavior such as student academic dishonesty (e.g. Brimble & Stevenson-Clarke, 2005; McCabe, Butterfield, & Trevino, 2006), or bullying (e.g. Kim, Koh, & Leventhal, 2004; Smith & Gross, 2006). What teachers attribute as causes of student misbehavior, the strategies they use to cope with misbehavior, the association between student misbehavior encountered by teachers and the teachers' emotional exhaustion, and many other student misbehavior-related phenomena have been examined using questionnaires (e.g. Ding et al., 2010; Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Questionnaires are also used in intervention studies to determine their effectiveness in reducing student problem behaviors (e.g. Bagley & Pritchard, 1998; Leadbeater, Hoglund, & Woods, 2003). Questionnaires can also be employed to determine

the treatment acceptability of interventions (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2015; Nolan, Filter, & Houlihan, 2014; Wright & McCurdy, 2011).

Questionnaires have also been used frequently in Czech educational research into student school behavior. For example, Bendl used questionnaires to measure the perceived prevalence of various types of misbehavior in schools located in different city areas (2000) and to determine what characteristics students considered a teacher should have to support good classroom discipline (2002). Tomášek (2008) used a questionnaire to measure the prevalence of violence directed at teachers in schools. Vrbová and Stuchlíková (2012) used a questionnaire to measure the prevalence of various forms of dishonest student behavior in schools.

In research into student behavior, we can administer questionnaires to different types of respondents and thus obtain information about the behavior of a particular student from different sources (informants): the student's parents, his/her teacher, his/her peers, or the student him/herself. Multi-informant studies have been conducted in many studies related to student (child) behavior (e.g. Epkins & Meyers, 1994; Fox & Boulton, 2005; McMahon & Washburn, 2003). However, there is often little or only a medium amount of correspondence between the results from the different informants (Achenbach, McConaughy, & Howell, 1987; Branson & Cornell, 2009). In research into student problem behavior, surveys often produce contradictory answers from different informants – students, teachers, principals, parents, trained observers, and the schools' support staff (e.g. Klimusova, Buresova, & Cermak, 2014; Pellegrini & Bartini, 2000).

For example, Pellegrini and Bartini (2000) conducted a comprehensive comparison of various data sources on student aggression and victimization. They showed low to medium levels of correlation between the measurement methods used (observations, teachers' reports, peer-reports, self-reports, diaries). None of the sources correlated more than $r = 0.52$, except for 2 peer-reports. In general, the methods differ in (a) the opportunities and the setting in which the assessor can observe the subject (teacher, peer, parent, trained observer); (b) the relationship to the assessed subject (parent, trained observer); (c) the indicators of the measured trait (overt behavioral clues assessed by an external observer or the respondent's own perspective; adapted from Weiss, Harris, & Catron, 2002). With respect to school discipline research and the use of questionnaires, it is important to

realize that different informants witness students' (school) behavior from different perspectives and may offer different portrayals of a particular student's behavior.

Parent reports

Parents have been rated by mental health professionals as a useful source of information on certain domains of child problem behavior, for example pre-pubertal children internalizing problems (e.g. excessive crying or loss of weight) or conduct problems (e.g. cruelty to animals or running away overnight; Loeber, Green, & Lahey, 1990). However, it must be noted that adults in general are at a distinct disadvantage in terms of the observability of children's behavior, for example in terms of concealed conduct problems (e.g. theft, underage drinking; Loeber et al., 1990). Also, children's problem behavior can differ across settings and can occur exclusively at a school or at home (Loeber et al., 1990). Since parents are usually not present in school they can hardly base an evaluation of many types of their child's school (mis)behavior on their own experience. These limitations make the data on student school misbehavior obtained using parent-reports a less reliable source of information. Also, it might be difficult for the researchers to collect the data since parents are not usually present at a school at one single time (unlike students and teachers) so mass administration would be difficult.

Teacher reports

Teachers appear to be a reliable and practical source of information about student school behavior. In the context of student bullying, Crothers and Levinson (2004) point out that the advantages of teachers' reports are that they are easy to obtain and one teacher can assess a large number of students rapidly. Another advantage is that teachers are often first-hand witnesses (and sometimes even targets) of student misbehavior. A part of their job is to monitor student behavior and be aware of rule violations by students, supporting the notion that teachers are a well-informed data source on student school misbehavior. Indeed, teachers have been rated by mental health professionals as a valuable source of data on child hyperactivity and attention problems (Loeber et al., 1990).

However, it must be noted that teachers usually have limited opportunities to observe particular students. A single teacher can observe a student's

behavior only during his/her own lessons, which make up, especially in the case of older students, only a small part of all the lessons the student attends. The behavior of a student might differ across different subjects taught by different teachers. Hoy and Weinstein (2006) stress that students are not passive recipients of teacher actions, but they choose to resist or comply with rules, ignore, avoid, sabotage, or question teachers' requests. Student behaviors are purposive acts based, among other things, on their relationships with teachers. They summarize that students perceive "good" teachers as worthy of respect, cooperation, and participation. Indeed, other researchers have suggested that some inappropriate teacher behavior might influence student behavior in a negative way (Broeckelman-Post et al., 2016; Kearney et al., 1991). Thus, a teacher's assessment may not reflect the "general" behavior of a student but the behavior of the student in particular circumstances (during particular classes with a particular teacher).

Also, the problem with the "hidden" types of misbehavior that the teachers might not be aware of might negatively affect the accuracy of teacher reports. As mentioned in Pellegrini and Bartini (2000), for example, aggressive acts occur at low frequencies relative to other forms of misbehavior and are usually committed in places and at times when there are few adult witnesses. Overall, administrative ease supports the use of teacher-reports in a large-scale measurement of school misbehavior levels. However, the problems with the accuracy of such reports (hidden cases of misbehavior, limited opportunities to observe students) place severe limitations on the use of such data. We could have multiple teachers assess the same student in the hopes that we obtain a better picture of a student's "general" behavior. However, this would be much more demanding in terms of data collection and still other limitations would remain unaddressed.

Self-reports

Students' self-reports have been used very frequently in research into student behavior, being considered the primary instrument for example in bullying research (Baly, Cornell, & Lovegrove, 2014; Branson & Cornell, 2009). They offer the respondent's perspective and valuable information about phenomena which cannot be (or is only seldom) directly observed by external assessors. The students themselves are best aware of the various types of misbehavior they are committing, including the hidden types (e.g. cheating on exams, bullying others). Also, self-report measures do not

require a great deal of time to administer, they necessitate little manpower, and are inexpensive (Crothers & Levinson, 2004).

However, respondents might be reluctant to admit some types of deviant or taboo behavior and present themselves in a more favorable manner even in anonymous surveys. As mentioned by Branson and Cornell (2009), students may be reluctant to admit to aggression against peers because of the social disapproval associated with being labeled a bully. A similar notion is expressed by Davis, Drinan and Gallant (2009) in the context of research into cheating in schools: we only know what students claim to be doing, not what they are actually doing. The authors believe that in the context of school cheating, students are under-reporting rather than over-reporting their behavior. To sum up, student self-reports appear to be an appropriate way of measuring school misbehavior levels at a large-scale because of the ease of their administration. Also, students themselves have the best knowledge of their own behavior, even those that might not have been observed by any other observers (teachers, peers). A severe limitation, however, is the fact that students might be reluctant to admit to committing socially deviant behavior and might try to present themselves in a more preferable way, even in anonymous surveys, decreasing the accuracy of the results.

Peer reports

When using students as a data source on school misbehavior, we can also make students assess the behavior of their peers – peer-reports. Lindstrom, Lease, and Kamphaus (2007) state that peers provide unique information regarding child behavior when compared to adult raters (parents, teachers). They summarize that peers are very familiar with their classmates, interact with them in a greater number of settings, and have access to a wider array of exchanges than adults. This allows them to have "insider" knowledge of behaviors that are usually hidden from adults, such as bullying. Also Weiss et al. (2002) support the importance of peer perspectives on student school behavior, since students spend a great deal of time in each other's company (more time than they spend with their parents) during a variety of activities and settings. Brimble and Stevenson-Clarke (2005) also support the value of students as informants about their peers' behavior. In their study into academic dishonesty they state that students appear to be relatively well informed with respect to the prevalence of dishonest practices among their peers.

Wei and Huang (2005) mention several other advantages of the use of peer-reports in bullying research: (a) evaluating others instead of the self reduces the social desirability issue; (b) if we have a score for a particular student as an aggregate from multiple peers, the reliability of it is often higher than from a single source; (c) peers might be the best informants to assess an individual's involvement in incidents of bullying. Of course, there are some limitations related to the use of peer-reports to measure levels of school misbehavior. For example Weiss et al. (2002) mention that peers might be particularly susceptible to reputation effects, i.e. they make ratings based on a child's reputation rather than on the actual behavior of that child. Also, peer-reports are limited to observable phenomena and are unable to measure students' psychological states such as feelings, attitudes, and beliefs (Wei & Huang, 2005).

The data collection of peer-reports might also be more demanding than self-reports. If every student in a class was evaluated by all his/her classmates, the administrative demands placed on both students and researchers would increase immensely. Wei and Huang (2005) point out that children's interactions in school often extend beyond same-class or same-gender peers. However, obtaining information from their whole school network would be very difficult if not impossible. In summary, there seems to be strong support for the use of students' peers as informants on school misbehavior in large-scale measurements. Also, the social desirability issue occurring with self-reports is reduced and aggregating the score for a particular student based on several peers' assessments might increase the reliability of the score. The limitations of using peer-reports are mainly due to their being restricted to the measurement of observable phenomena, the potential distortion of an assessment by a student's reputation, and the increasing administrative demands when having more peers assess a student. For a summary of strengths and weaknesses of particular informants see Table 7.

Table 7

The Different Strengths and Weaknesses of Teacher, Parent, Self, and Peer-Reports about Student School Behavior

Type of reports	Strengths	Weaknesses
Parent reports	Useful informants on certain types of pre-adolescent behavior problems (e.g. internalizing and conduct problems)	Limited opportunities to observe children's behavior in school (children's behavior might differ across settings) Limited opportunities to observe concealed (hidden) conduct problems More difficult data collection (parents not readily available in schools)
Teacher reports	A single teacher can assess a large number of students rapidly Often a first-hand witness (or a target) of student misbehavior Being aware of student misbehavior is a part of their job	Limited opportunities to observe particular students Assessment does not reflect general student behavior but rather the behavior noticed by the teacher No awareness of hidden types of misbehavior
Student self-reports	Appropriate for large-scale surveys Respondent's unique perspective Information about phenomena which cannot be directly observed by external assessors Good awareness of various types of misbehavior including the hidden types (e.g. cheating on exams, bullying others)	Reluctance to admit to some types of deviant or taboo behavior Presentation of oneself in a more favorable manner
Peer reports	A high degree of familiarity with classmates Access to a wide array of exchanges with classmates Interactions with classmates in a great number of settings Reduction of the social desirability issue (in comparison to self-reports) The ability to assess individual student involvement in rule violations incidents The possibility to aggregate the assessment of a single student based on assessments of several peers	Susceptibility to reputation effects (assessment based on a child's reputation rather than on the actual behavior of the child) Limited to observable phenomena (the inability to measure students' psychological states such as feelings, attitudes, and beliefs) Increasing administrative costs when having more peers assess a single student

Problems with differential scale usage

It must be noted, however, that questionnaires containing items with rating scales share a common limitation, irrespective of which type of respondent is chosen as an informant about student behavior. If we want to use questionnaire surveys to make comparisons in school behavior across individuals, groups of individuals, or countries, it becomes questionable whether respondents' answers are comparable. Results obtained using these questionnaires might be hindered by bias. Bias occurs when the score differences on the indicator of a construct do not correspond to the differences in the underlying trait or ability (van de Vijver & Tanzer, 2004). It may, for example, be the case that two students with the same level of school behavior evaluate their behavior differently – one as excellent, the other, only as good (Vonkova, Bendl, & Papajoanu, 2017). Evidence for differential use of scale has been a long-term concern, not only in education research (Buckley, 2009; Chen, Lee, & Stevenson, 1995; Vonkova, Zamarro, & Hitt 2018) but also in other social sciences research (Bago d'Uva, O'Donnell, & van Doorslaer, 2008; Bago d'Uva et al., 2008; Bago d'Uva et al., 2011; Kapteyn, Smith, & van Soest, 2007; King et al., 2004; Vonkova & Hullegie, 2011). Thus, even though questionnaires offer a relatively cheap and easy way to obtain large-scale data about school discipline, their results must be interpreted with caution (for a summary of strengths and weaknesses of questionnaires see Table 8).

Table 8

Questionnaires – A Summary of the Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths	Weaknesses
Low monetary/personnel cost and easy administration	The incomparability of results from different respondents due to differential scale usage
Appropriate for large-scale data collection	The limited number of questions in questionnaires (the inability to ask additional questions)

Several techniques have been proposed to adjust for the differential scale usage. One of these techniques, and one which has shown some promising results in educational research, is the anchoring vignette method (AVM). The anchoring vignette method was introduced by King et al. (2004) to adjust self-reports for respondents' heterogeneous reporting style. The basic idea is that respondents first assess themselves. An example of a self-assessment question could be *Overall, how would you assess your school behavior?* with

a five-point scale, where 1 = good behavior and 2, 3, 4, 5 = bad behavior (Vonkova et al., 2017). Secondly, they also evaluate an anchoring vignette(s) – a short story describing hypothetical individuals who manifest the trait of interest. An example of an anchoring vignette related to dishonest student behavior is (Vonkova et al., 2017):

> Last month, Honza's class had a substitute teacher two times during their afternoon PE lesson but Honza, on both days went out with his friends instead. He then wrote an absentee note and forged his father's signature. I evaluate Honza's dishonest behavior as a … (choose a number on the five-point scale).

Since all respondents assess the same anchoring vignette(s), the differences in their answers can be interpreted as differences in scale usage. For example, one student might assess the above-mentioned vignette using the second scale point, while a different student might assess the very same vignette using the third scale point. This information about the heterogeneity in the reporting behavior is then used to adjust self-assessments.

The AVM has been successfully employed in educational research (for a review see Vonkova, Papajoanu, & Bendl, 2016) and has also been employed in the international large-scale survey PISA (student questionnaire) in the years 2012 and 2015. In research into school discipline, the AVM has so far been employed in a single study by Vonkova et al. (2017). The authors studied dishonest student behavior in school. Their findings: (a) demonstrate empirical evidence of heterogeneity in reporting styles across different groups of students when they rate their dishonest behavior; (b) support the further use of the AVM in research into student school behavior.

2   Conclusion

For the large-scale collection of data about student school behavior that would allow the identification of the overall level of school misbehavior in schools, the cost-effectiveness of the method is of the utmost importance to both researchers and practitioners. Questionnaire surveys and school documentation analysis, unlike observations and interviews, allow the collection of data at this scale with reasonable monetary and personnel demands. However, as we have documented above (for more see section 1.1), we believe that school documentation is a very inaccurate data source mainly because of the vague and/or inconsistent standards set for the assessment of

student behavior in schools. If standards for grading students in the domain of school behavior differ across schools, then the comparison of schools based on students' grades could lead us to erroneous conclusions about the misbehavior level at these schools. This is why we believe questionnaire surveys to be the best suited method for large-scale data collection about student school behavior.

As far as questionnaires are concerned, different informants offer different perspectives on student school behavior (for more see section 1.4). We believe that students themselves are a very good source of information about school misbehavior (in comparison to their parents and teachers) because they are not only best aware of their own misbehavior, but also the misbehavior of their peers. We recommend using both student self-reports and student peer-reports in surveys. However, as was previously mentioned (for more see section 1.4), the differences in scale usage among respondents may hinder the results obtained using questionnaire surveys and the comparability of such data.

The combination of student self-reports and peer-reports with the anchoring vignette method seems to be a promising approach to accurately measure student school misbehavior at a large scale. There are also other methodologies that have been proposed to correct for scale usage differences between respondents such as, for example, the identification of the tendencies to select certain scale categories irrespective of the item content (response styles; Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001) or the overclaiming technique (Paulhus et al., 2003). It remains a challenge for researchers to investigate the possibilities of using other methods for the correction of differential scale usage in student school behavior research. Of course, it is also possible to use multiple methodological approaches to collect data on student school misbehavior and then triangulate the data obtained using different approaches. However, researchers always must keep in mind the limitations of the various methodological approaches as we have described them in this paper.

References

Achenbach, T. M., McConaughy, S. H., & Howell, C. T. (1987). Child/adolescent behavioral and emotional problems: Implications of cross-informant correlations for situational specificity. *Psychological Bulletin*, *101*(2), 213–232.

Bagley, C., & Pritchard, C. (1998). The reduction of problem behaviours and school exclusion in at-risk youth: An experimental study of school social work with cost-benefit analyses. *Child and Family Social Work*, *3*(4), 219–226.

Bago d'Uva T., O'Donnell, O., & van Doorslaer, E. (2008). Differential health reporting by education level and its impact on the measurement of health inequalities among older europeans. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, *37*(6), 1375–1383.

Bago d'Uva, T., van Doorslaer, E., Lindeboom, M., & O'Donnell, O. (2008). Does reporting heterogeneity bias the measurement of health disparities? *Health Economics*, *17*(3), 351–375.

Bago d'Uva T., Lindeboom, M., O'Donnell, O., & van Doorslaer, E. (2011). Education-related inequity in health care with heterogeneous reporting of health. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Association Series A*, *174*(3), 639–664.

Baly, M. W., Cornell, D. G., & Lovegrove, P. (2014). A longitudinal investigation of self- and peer reports of bullying victimization across middle school. *Psychology in the Schools*, *51*(3), 217–240.

Barrish, H. H., Saunders, M., & Wolf, M. M. (1969). Good behavior game: Effects of individual contingencies for group consequences on disruptive behavior in a classroom. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *2*(2), 119–124.

Baumgartner, H., & Steenkamp, J. E. M. (2001). Response styles in marketing research: A cross-national investigation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*(2), 143–156.

Bendl, S. (1987). *Prověřování, hodnocení a klasifikace v českém jazyce na 1. stupni základní školy* (Unpublished master's thesis). Prague: Charles university in Prague.

Bendl, S. (2000). Kázeň na sídlištních školách. *Pedagogická orientace*, *10*(3), 54–64.

Bendl, S. (2002). Které charakteristiky učitele podporují kázeň žáků. *Pedagogika*, *52*(3), 346–363.

Bendl, S. (2011). *Kázeňské problémy ve škole.* Praha: Triton.

Bohanon, H., Fenning, P., Carney, K. L., Minnis-Kim, M. J., Anderson-Harriss, S., Moroz, K. B., … Pigott, T. D. (2006). Schoolwide application of positive behavior support in an urban high school. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *8*(3), 131–145.

Branson, C. E., & Cornell, D. G. (2009). A comparison of self and peer reports in the assessment of middle school bullying. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, *25*(1), 5–27.

Brimble, M., & Stevenson-Clarke, P. (2005). Perceptions of the prevalence and seriousness of academic dishonesty in Australian universities. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, *32*(3), 19–44.

Broeckelman-Post, M. A., Tacconelli, A., Guzmán, J., Rios, M., Calero, B., & Latif, F. (2016). Teacher misbehavior and its effects on student interest and engagement. *Communication Education*, *65*(2), 204–212.

Buckley, J. (2009). *Cross-national response styles in international educational assessments: Evidence from PISA 2006*. New York University: Department of Humanities and Social Sciences in the Professions. Retrieved from https://edsurveys.rti.org/PISA/documents/Buckley_PISAresponsestyle.pdf

Campbell, A., & Anderson, C. M. (2011). Check-in/check-out: A systematic evaluation and component analysis. *Journal of applied behavior analysis*, *44*(2), 315–326.

Casey-Cannon, S., Hayward, C., & Gowen, K. (2001). Middle-school girls' reports of peer victimization: Concerns, consequences, and implications. *Professional School Counseling*, *5*(2), 138–148.

Chen, Ch., Lee, S., & Stevenson, H. W. (1995). Response style and cross-cultural comparisons of rating scales among East Asian and North American students. *Psychological Science*, *6*(3), 170–175.

Crothers, L. M., & Levinson, E. M. (2004). Assessment of bullying: A review of methods and instruments. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, *82*(4), 496–503.

Czech School Inspectorate. (2016). *Výroční zpráva České školní inspekce za školní rok 2015/2016*. Retrieved from http://www.csicr.cz/getattachment/cz/Dokumenty/Vyrocni-zpravy/Vyrocni-zprava-Ceske-skolni-inspekce-za-skolni-(2)/Vyrocni_zprava_CSI_2015-2016.pdf

Czech School Inspectorate. (2017). *Kvalita a efektivita vzdělávání a vzdělávací soustavy ve školním roce 2016/2017: Výroční zpráva České školní inspekce.* Retrieved from http://www.csicr.cz/getattachment/cz/Dokumenty/Vyrocni-zpravy/Kvalita-a-efektivita-vzdelavani-a-vzdelavaci-soust/VZ_CSI_2017_web_new.pdf

Davis, S. F., Drinan, P. F., & Gallant, T. B. (2009). *Cheating in school: What we know and what we can do*. John Wiley & Sons.

Ding, M., Li, Y., Li, X., & Kulm, G. (2008). Chinese teachers' perceptions of students' classroom misbehaviour. *Educational Psychology*, *28*(3), 305–324.

Ding, M., Li, Y., Li, X., & Kulm, G. (2010). Chinese teachers' attributions and coping strategies for student classroom misbehaviour. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *30*(3), 321–337.

Epkins, C. C., & Meyers, A. W. (1994). Assessment of childhood depression, anxiety, and aggression: Convergent and discriminant validity of self-, parent-, teacher-, and peer-report measures. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *62*(2), 364–381.

Flower, A., McKenna, J., Muething, C. S., Pedrotty Bryant, D., & Bryant, B. R. (2014). Effects of the good behavior game on classwide off-task behavior in a high school basic algebra resource classroom. *Behavior Modification*, *38*(1), 45–68.

Fox, C. L., & Boulton, M. J. (2005). The social skills problems of victims of bullying: Self, peer and teacher perceptions. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *75*(2), 313–328.

Hintze, J. M., Volpe, R. J., & Shapiro, E. S. (2002). Best practices in systematic direct observation of student behavior. In A. Thomas & J. Grimes (Eds.), *Best practices in school psychology IV* (pp. 993–1006). Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.

Hoy, A. W., & Weinstein, C. S. (2006). Student and teacher perspectives on classroom management. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice and contemporary issues* (pp. 181–222). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

iDnes.cz. (2018). *Zastaralé důtky děti ignorují, trestejme i rodiče, navrhují někteří učitelé*. Retrieved from https://zpravy.idnes.cz/reditelska-dutka-kazenske-opatreni-zakladni-skola-fwm-/domaci.aspx?c=A180504_161959_domaci_nub

Institute for Information on Education. (2007). *Rychlá šetření 1/2007*. Copy in possession of authors.

Institute for Information on Education. (2008). *Rychlá šetření 2/2008*. Copy in possession of authors.

Irvin, L. K., Horner, R. H., Ingram, K., Todd, A. W., Sugai, G., Sampson, N. K., & Boland, J. B. (2006). Using office discipline referral data for decision making about student behavior

in elementary and middle schools: An empirical evaluation of validity. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *8*(1), 10–23.

Kapteyn, A., Smith, J. P., & van Soest, A. (2007). Vignettes and self-reports of work disability in the US and the Netherlands. *American Economic Review*, *97*(1), 461–473.

Kearney, P., Plax, T. G., Hays, E. R., & Ivey, M. J. (1991). College teacher misbehaviors: What students don't like about what teachers say and do. *Communication quarterly*, *39*(4), 309–324.

Kim, Y. S., Koh, Y. J., & Leventhal, B. L. (2004). Prevalence of school bullying in Korean middle school students. *Archives of pediatrics & adolescent medicine*, *158*(8), 737–741.

King, G., Murray, C., Salomon, J., & Tandon, A. (2004). Enhancing the validity and cross-cultural comparability of measurement in survey research. *American Political Science Review*, *98*(1), 567–583.

Klimusova, H., Buresova, I., & Cermak, I. (2014). Cross-informant agreement and teacher nomination technique in the assessment of children behavior problems. In C. Pracana (Ed.), *Psychology Applications & Developments: Advances in psychology and psychological trends series* (pp. 174–182). Lisboa: inScience Press.

Koutrouba, K. (2013). Student misbehaviour in secondary education: Greek teachers' views and attitudes. *Educational Review*, *65*(1), 1–19.

Lannie, A. L., & McCurdy, B. L. (2007). Preventing disruptive behavior in the urban classroom: Effects of the Good Behavior Game on student and teacher behavior. *Education and Treatment of Children*, *30*(1), 85–98.

Leadbeater, B., Hoglund, W., & Woods, T. (2003). Changing contexts? The effects of a primary prevention program on classroom levels of peer relational and physical victimization. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *31*(4), 397–418.

Lindsey, B. C. (2008). Looking at positive behavior interventions and supports through the lens of innovations diffusion. *The Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal*, *13*(2), 1–18.

Lindstrom, W. A., Lease, A. M., & Kamphaus, R. W. (2007). Peer- and self-rated correlates of a teacher-rated typology of child adjustment. *Psychology in Schools*, *44*(6), 1–21.

Loeber, R., Green, S. M., & Lahey, B. B. (1990). Mental health professionals' perception of the utility of children, mothers, and teachers as informants on childhood psychopathology. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, *19*(2), 136–143.

Luiselli, J. K., Putnam, R. F., Handler, M. W., & Feinberg, A. B. (2005). Whole-school positive behavior support: Effects on student discipline problems and academic performance. *Educational Psychology*, *25*(2–3), 183–198.

McCabe, D. L., Butterfield, K. D., & Trevino, L. K. (2006). Academic dishonesty in graduate business programs: Prevalence, causes, and proposed action. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *5*(3), 294–305.

McCurdy, B. L., Mannella, M. C., & Eldridge, N. (2003). Positive behavior support in urban schools: Can we prevent the escalation of antisocial behavior? *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *5*(3), 158–170.

McMahon, S. D., & Washburn, J. J. (2003). Violence prevention: An evaluation of program effects with urban African-American students. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, *24*(1), 43–62.

Mitchell, R. R., Tingstrom, D. H., Dufrene, B. A., Ford. W. B., & Sterling, H. E. (2015). The effects of the good behavior game with general-education high school students. *School Psychology Review*, *44*(2), 191–207.

Morrison, G. M., & Skiba, R. (2001). Predicting violence from school misbehavior: Promises and perils. *Psychology in the Schools*, *38*(2), 173–184.

Nastasi, B. K., & Schensul, S. L. (2005). Contributions of qualitative research to the validity of intervention research. *Journal of School Psychology*, *43*(3), 177–195.

Nolan, J. D., Filter, K. J., & Houlihan, D. (2014). Preliminary report: An application of the Good Behavior Game in the developing nation of Belize. *School Psychology International*, *35*(4), 421–428.

Paulhus, D. L., Harms, P. D., Bruce, M. N., & Lysy, D. C. (2003). The over-claiming technique: Measuring self-enhancement independent of ability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(4), 890–904.

Pellegrini, A. D., & Bartini, M. (2000). An empirical comparison of methods of sampling aggression and victimization in school settings. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *92*(2), 360–366.

Průcha, J. (2005). *Česko-anglický pedagogický slovník*. Praha: ARSCI.

Smith, R. G., & Gross, A. M. (2006). Bullying: Prevalence and the effect of age and gender. *Child & Family Behavior Therapy*, *28*(4), 13–37.

Sugai, G., Sprague, J. R., Horner, R. H., & Walker, H. M. (2000). Preventing school violence: The use of office discipline referrals to assess and monitor school-wide discipline interventions. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, *8*(2), 94–101.

Todd, A. W., & Horner, R. H. (2006). *Referral form examples*. Retrieved from http://www.pbis.org/common/cms/files/NewTeam/Data/ReferralFormExamples_v4.0%5B1%5D.doc

Tomášek, J. (2008). Učitel jako oběť násilí – poznatky z viktimologického šetření na českých středních školách. *Pedagogika*, *58*(4), 379–391.

Tsouloupas, C. N., Carson, R. L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M. J., & Barber, L. K. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation. *Educational Psychology*, *30*(2), 173–189.

Van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Tanzer, N. K. (2004). Bias and equivalence in cross-cultural assessment: An overview. *Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée*, *54*(2), 119–135.

Vonkova, H., & Hullegie, P. (2011). Is the anchoring vignettes method sensitive to the domain and choice of the vignette? *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A, 174*(3), 597–620.

Vonkova, H., Bendl, S., & Papajoanu, O. (2017). How students report dishonest behavior in school: Self-assessment and anchoring vignettes. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, *85*(1), 36–53.

Vonkova, H., Papajoanu, O., & Bendl, S. (2016). Aplikace metody ukotvujících vinět v pedagogickém výzkumu: přehled literatury a metodologická doporučení. *Pedagogická Orientace*, *26*(3), 537–559.

Vonkova, H., Zamarro, G., & Hitt, C. (2018). Cross-country heterogeneity in students' reporting behavior: The use of the anchoring vignette method. *Journal of Educational Measurement*, *55*(1), 3–31.

Vrbová, J., & Stuchlíková, I. (2012). Školní podvádění starších žáků – pilotní studie. *Pedagogika*, *62*(3), 317–331.

Wei, H. S., & Huang, C. K. (2005). Reviewing school bullying research: Empirical findings and methodical considerations. *NTTU Educational Research Journal*, *16*(1), 69–112.

Weiss, B., Harris, W., & Catron, T. (2002). Development and initial validization of the peer-report measure of internalizing and externalizing behavior. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, *30*(3), 285–294.

Wright, R. A., & McCurdy, B. L. (2011). Classwide positive behavior support and group contingencies: Examining a positive variation of the Good Behavior Game. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, *14*(3), 173–180.

Základní škola a mateřská škola Bílá / ZŠ a MŠ Bílá. (2017). *Školní řád.* Retrieved from http://www.zsbila.cz/images/stories/o_skole/2017-2018_Skolni_rad_od_1_9_2017.pdf

Základní škola a mateřská škola Ostrava – Bělský Les / ZŠ a MŠ Ostrava – Bělský Les. (2017). *Vnitřní klasifikační řád – metodický pokyn*. Retrieved from http://www.zsdvorskeho.eu/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=208&Itemid=152

Základní škola Jana Wericha / ZŠ Jana Wericha. (2011). *Příloha č. 1 Školního řádu ZŠ Jana Wericha – Pravidla pro hodnocení výsledků vzdělávání žáků.* Retrieved from http://www.zs-jana-wericha.cz/res/archive/067/007335.pdf?seek=1330878920

Základní škola Jana Wericha / ZŠ Jana Wericha. (2017). *Příloha č. 2 ke Školnímu řádu ZŠ Jana Wericha – Bodový systém.* Retrieved from http://www.zs-jana-wericha.cz/res/archive/182/019499.pdf?seek=1506052796

Základní škola Petřiny – sever / ZŠ Petřiny – sever. (2015). *Školní řád.* Retrieved from http://www.zspetriny.cz/soubor-sr-230-.pdf

Základní škola Sázavská / ZŠ Sázavská. (2013). *Klasifikační řád.* Retrieved from http://www.zssazavska.cz/data/dokumenty/598_klasifikacni_rad_novy.doc

Základní škola Želenice / ZŠ Želenice. (2012). *Školní řád.* Retrieved from https://www.zszelenice.cz/skola12/skolnirad14.pdf

Authors

Prof. PaedDr. Stanislav Bendl, Ph.D., Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education, Magdalény Rettigové 4, 110 00 Prague 1, Czech Republic, e-mail: stanislav.bendl@pedf.cuni.cz

Doc. RNDr. PhDr. Hana Vonkova, Ph.D. et. Ph.D., Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education, Magdalény Rettigové 4, 110 00 Prague 1, Czech Republic, e-mail: h.vonkova@gmail.com

Mgr. Ondrej Papajoanu, Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education, Magdalény Rettigové 4, 110 00 Prague 1, Czech Republic, e-mail: ondrej.papajoanu@pedf.cuni.cz

Mgr. Eva Vankatova, Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education, Magdalény Rettigové 4, 110 00 Prague 1, Czech Republic, e-mail: aevab@centrum.cz

Analýza metodologických přístupů k výzkumu chování žáků ve školách: problematika neporovnatelnosti žákovského sebehodnocení

Abstrakt: Problematika měření výstupů školního vzdělávání je velice podstatná jak pro výzkumníky, tak pro pedagogy z praxe. Můžeme rozlišit dva hlavní typy výstupů: výstupy v oblasti studijních výsledků (např. v matematice, informačních a komunikačních technologiích či dějepisu) a výstupy v oblasti chování (školní kázeň). Oba typy výstupů jsou ve škole hodnoceny a známkovány. Pokud bychom však nechali různé učitele hodnotit znalosti a dovednosti stejných žáků, jejich hodnocení by se nezřídka lišilo, což se týká i hodnocení chování žáků. Vyvstává tak následující otázka: Jak přesně měříme výstupy školního vzdělávání? Tato studie má následující cíle: (a) popsat běžně užívané metodologické přístupy k měření chování žáků ve školách a diskutovat jejich výhody a nevýhody. Konkrétně se studie zaměřuje na analýzu školní dokumentace, rozhovory, pozorování a dotazníková šetření. Sekce zabývající se školní dokumentací obsahuje empirickou analýzu školní dokumentace vybraných českých škol; (b) navrhnout inovativní přístup k měření chování žáků ve školách, který by kombinoval žákovské sebehodnocení a žákovské vzájemné hodnocení s metodou ukotvujících vinět s cílem zlepšení porovnatelnosti získaných dat.

Klíčová slova: školní kázeň, studijní výsledky, sebehodnocení, zkreslení, metoda ukotvujících vinět

A Framework for Building Safe and Effective School Environments:
Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS) [1]

Robert H. Horner [a], Manuel Monzalve Macaya [b]

[a] University of Oregon, U.S.A.
[b] Universidad Catolica Del Maule, Chile

Abstract: Schools throughout the world strive to establish safe and effective learning environments. One consistent challenge is student aggression, acting-out, withdrawal, and insubordination. The historic response to student problem behavior has been punishment and remediation. Recently, more positive, proactive and comprehensive options have emerged. *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports* (PBIS) is one framework that links school-wide prevention efforts with tiered behavior support practices. The present paper summarizes the logic and core features of PBIS, the research literature supporting both the feasibility and effectiveness of PBIS, and lessons learned about implementation of PBIS across more than 26,000 schools in the United States. Discussion focuses on issues associated with cultural adaptation of these practices as PBIS is used outside the U.S., and across an array of social contexts.

Keywords: positive behavior support, implementation science, school discipline, cultural adaptation

The fundamental theme of this special issue is that schools are effective learning environments when they not only deliver high quality curricula through effective instruction, but also provide a safe, predictable, consistent and supportive social climate. In an ideal school, all students want to come to school, interact constructively with each other, view adults as supportive instructors and mentors, engage with passion in academic activities, and build

the academic and social competence needed to be successful adults. Problem behaviors such as aggression, non-compliance, threats, taunts, theft, social withdrawal, disengagement, and property destruction are barriers to an effective learning community. Problem behaviors interfere with the learning of the student performing those behaviors (Walker & Gresham, 2014), often hinder the learning of others (Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995), and function as one of the most common reasons given by staff for leaving the teaching profession (Allen, 2005; Graham et al., 2011).

Building safe and disciplined school environments is equally as important as selection and delivery of effective curricula and use of evidence-based instructional practices. Historically, schools have relied too often on either punishment of problem behavior, or removal of students who engage in problem behavior as strategies for minimizing the deleterious effects of problem behavior. These strategies have proven over time to be both ineffective and expensive (Belfield et al., 2015; Rumberger & Losen, 2017). Alternatives, such as *Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports* (PBIS), have emerged emphasizing investment in a whole school approach to establishing a positive learning community. Schools are encouraged to define their local social standards (i.e., expectations), actively teach those standards, consistently acknowledge appropriate behavior, and provide clear, consistent and quick instructional correction for behavioral errors. The PBIS approach is currently being implemented in over 26,000 schools in the United States, in addition to being adapted and applied in over 21 other countries (Kelm, McIntosh, & Cooley, 2014; Sugai, 2018). In this paper we describe the core features of PBIS, the empirical research examining the impact of PBIS on student outcomes, and lessons learned about large-scale implementation and cultural adaptation of school-wide discipline practices.

1   Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS)

PBIS is typically described as a framework for selecting and implementing evidence-based practices within a multi-tiered continuum of behavioral supports that result in social, emotional and academic success for all students (Horner, Sugai, & Fixsen, 2017). The term, "framework" is an important distinction in this definition. PBIS is not a curriculum, intervention, or manualized approach that can be purchased or adopted in a two-day workshop. Rather PBIS is built on a few key assumptions and a series of core features that provide a template for how those features are achieved in each

school. Adoption of PBIS by a school typically requires one to three years, and active district support.

The key assumptions guiding PBIS are that (a) students learn how to behave (both how to behave well and how to behave poorly), and this means we need to teach positive behaviors and minimize the learning of problem behaviors, (b) effective schools not only teach positive behaviors, but regularly monitor and acknowledge those behaviors, (c) investing in prevention of problems will be more effective and efficient than waiting for problems to arise, and trying to then focus on remediation, (d) effective behavior support needs to occur at differing levels of support intensity (*all* students receive general support, *some* students receive more structured, and intensive teaching and feedback, and *a few* students will need highly individualized and focused assistance to succeed), (e) the organization of behavior support needs to occur across the whole school, and (f) effective behavior support "practices" will be used with fidelity and sustainability when linked to supportive organizational systems. Individual students, and individual classrooms will always be important, but a central key to behavior support is to consider the whole school as a learning community.

From these assumptions it is logical to focus on the core features of a school that will make that school behaviorally effective. Clearly defining core features of successful schools allows not only the ability for evaluation but the design of action plans for improved implementation. It has been helpful to use the multi-tiered system of support model (McIntosh & Goodman, 2016; Sprick, Booher, & Garrison, 2009) drawn from community health, and advocated by Walker et al. (1996) for use in education. This approach starts with a vision of each school providing basic behavior support for all the students (e.g., a commitment to equity), and a recognition that some students will need more intensive levels of support to be successful. A summary of the core features for each of the three tiers of support in PBIS is provided below.

Tier I: Universal Behavior Support. The goal of Tier I behavior supports is to establish the preventive foundation for a positive, school-wide social climate. Tier I is a proactive approach targeting support focused on all students in a school. The overall vision is to create a social climate that is predictable, consistent, positive and safe. Tier I supports are designed to improve the quality of interactions and relationships not only between students and staff but among students. The eight core features of Tier I PBIS are:

1) *Leadership Team:* PBIS is implemented and sustained by a leadership team within each school, typically composed of three to seven members, including a principal (or administrator of the school), grade-level representation, and individuals with knowledge about behavior support practices. The leadership team coordinates professional development for the staff, monitors both fidelity and impact data, and guides both adoption and adaptation of PBIS practices to fit the local community culture and context.

2) *3–5 Positively Stated School-wide Behavioral Expectations:* To build a predictable and consistent social culture the students, families and staff define a small number of core social values (e.g., be respectful, be responsible, try your best) that are expected from all students, and are actively taught at the beginning of each school year. These school-wide expectations apply to all people (adults, students, visitors) in all parts of the school at all times. At the beginning of each year, and often with booster events throughout the year, students are taught the expectations, and explicit instruction is used to ensure that they can tell the difference between expected and not-expected behavior. The key is that teaching behavioral expectations is proactive (occurs early in each academic year before students build patterns of problem behavior), and occurs for all students (so all students not only know the expectations, but know that everyone else knows the expectations). The process for teaching behavioral expectations is adjusted to fit the developmental level of the students: more adult-guided in elementary school, and more collaborative and peer-based in high school.

3) *System to regularly acknowledge student appropriate behavior*: Schools need to be positive social environments. This does not just mean reducing aversive interactions, but actively working to increase the number and form of positive recognition from adults to students, students to students and adults to adults. In schools using PBIS, students regularly receive behavior-specific recognition for appropriate behavior. A goal often set in successful schools is to create an environment in which students are acknowledged for appropriate behavior at least four to five times as often as they are corrected for behavioral errors. The way this is achieved is again adapted to the developmental level of the students and the culture of the school community.

4) *Instructional consequences for problem behavior*: A major challenge for schools is defining how to respond to problem behavior. Earlier strategies have emphasized punishment and exclusion. The logical message was to make it unpleasant to engage in problem behavior, or to suspend or remove students who engage in repeated problem behavior. Direct use of aversive consequences has proven ineffective for most school-related problem behavior (Walker & Gresham, 2014), and suspension and expulsion have proven short-term solutions with high long-term costs (Rumberger & Losen, 2017). Within PBIS, consequences for problem behavior are organized to mimic traditional responses to academic mistakes: (a) interrupt the mistake early, (b) label the mistake, (c) define and prompt the positive, alternative behavior that is expected, and (d) organize the environment to prevent the problem behavior from being inadvertently rewarded (by peers or adults). If the mistake persists, then provide Tier II or Tier III supports that involve more intensive assessment, elevate the antecedent events to prevent mistakes, improve instruction on appropriate behavior, add recognition of appropriate behavior, and terminate any inadvertent reward for problem behavior.

5) *Formal classroom management protocols*: PBIS is a school-wide approach to student social behavior. A central part of this process, however, is attention to the features of effective classrooms. Each teacher has his/her own views of how their classroom should be managed, and these perceptions should be honored. At the same time, solid research now indicates that a small number of key classroom practices make a huge difference in both the social and academic success of students (Domitrovich et al., 2016; Farmer, Reinke, & Brooks, 2014; Simonson et al., 2008; Simonson & Meyers, 2015). The major theme from this research is that too often teachers over-emphasize the role of consequences to manage student behavior, and dramatically under-estimate the importance of proactive and preventive efforts.

6) *Collection and use of data for decision-making about behavior support*: Among the most significant advances in education over the past two decades is the availability of information about student academic and social behavior. Never before has so much information been available at such a low cost. Unfortunately, most educational systems neither collect and organize their data well, nor provide personnel with the training

to use data for efficient and effective decision-making (Newton et al., 2011). A central component of PBIS is the collection of data to address three iterative questions: (a) Are we doing the practices we have set out to do? (b) Are students benefiting (academically and socially)? and (c) What is the smallest change we can make that will have the largest positive impact for students? Schools using PBIS have highly efficient procedures for collecting, summarizing and using data (Horner et al., 2018).

7) *Bully prevention procedures:* A recent addition to the Tier I elements of PBIS is attention to bully prevention practices. Bullying involves the use of threats, verbal or physical aggression or other forms of intimidation. Bullying is typically a student-to-student problem, often unwitnessed by adults, and maintained by both access to physical reinforcers (e.g., money, food) and more often by social attention from bystanders and victims (Copeland et al., 2013). Bullying occurs at a much higher frequency than traditionally reported, and can undermine the social culture of a school (Christensen et al., 2012; Cook et al., 2010). Recent bully prevention efforts indicate high success when students are taught (a) a response to bullying behavior that eliminates social attention, and (b) an alternative social routine if someone indicates to you that you are engaging in bullying (Ross & Horner, 2009). This has led to adding to PBIS Tier I core features the teaching of how students should respond when they are faced with (or witness) problem behavior performed by others. Students need a routine for responding to problem behavior that limits the attention and social recognition that too often maintains bulling behaviors. Teaching this routine proactively to all students makes a difference in the level of inadvertent reward for peer-maintained bulling behavior.

8) *Family engagement*: An often cited, but less-often actualized feature of effective schools is employment of practices that both inform and listen to input from families. Schools succeed best when educators, students and families each participate in shaping the social culture of the school. Establishing highly efficient and functional ways to both inform and listen to families is an emerging process in the field, and one we anticipate will have high value (Garbacz et al., 2018).

Tier II: Targeted Behavior Support: A central assumption within PBIS is that an array of variables (i.e., prior learning history, academic failure, peer-recruited problem behavior) will result in Tier I supports being insufficient for some students. Historically, schools have not viewed behavior support on a continuum. Tier I supports were viewed more as family and community responsibility, and if a student persistently engaged in problem behavior they were classified as exceptional, and relegated to an alternative support track. Within PBIS, an efficient allocation of support resources leads to development of at least three levels of behavior support intensity. Tier I for all, Tier II for some who need only a little more support, and Tier III for the few students needing high intensity support. The most frequently missed step in this continuum is the availability of Tier II behavior supports. Tier II is conceptualized as a level of support that is highly efficient, quickly accessed, and a solid foundation if additional Tier III supports are needed. Examples of Tier II behavior supports include Check-in/Check-out (CICO; Maggin et al., 2015), First Step to Success (Walker et al., 1998), Social Skills Clubs (Elliott & Gresham, 1991) and Academic Homework Clubs. The core features of Tier II supports are:

9) *Coordinating school team:* A small team (typically two to five people) led by a behavioral specialist is responsible for selection, support implementation and data collection and on-going evaluation.

10) *High organizational efficiency*: Tier II practices require small "extra" time and organizational resource. CICO, for example, requires an additional 10 hours of staff time per week to implement. Most Tier II practices are implemented similarly across students (in contrast with Tier III practices that are tailored to each student). This allows for efficiency and ease of implementation.

11) *Rapid Access:* Tier II supports are typically established as a regular part of the school support process, and are not developed or added only in response to student problems. As a result, students are able to be referred, selected and enter support quickly. A major goal of Tier II supports is to prevent the exacerbation of emerging problem behavior patterns.

12) *Increased daily structure:* Tier II supports typically provide a student with increased points in the day when behavioral concerns are reviewed and assessed. In older students this translates into formal training in self-regulation and self-monitoring, in younger students this

often amounts to setting aside brief times each day to receive teacher feedback on behavior.

13) *Increased instruction on and recognition of positive behaviors:* The major way to change student behavior is to define, teach, monitor and reward desired behavior while placing problem behavior on extinction. Students with at-risk behavior often are in a position of receiving infrequent positive feedback. A central feature of Tier II supports is to increase instruction on behavioral expectations, and increase both the rate and the precision of behavior-specific positive feedback on a daily basis.

14) *Improved timeliness and precision of behavioral corrections:* The repetition of problem behaviors is typically associated with inadvertent positive consequences (obtaining rewarding results, or avoiding aversive events). A central focus of Tier II supports is to re-define problem behaviors as "not being examples of positive, behavioral expectations". The occurrence of problem behavior is quickly followed by (a) labeling the behavior as not appropriate, (b) clarifying the appropriate alternative, and (c) limiting the student's access to inadvertent reinforcing consequences.

Tier III: Intensive, Individualized Support: The third tier of PBIS targets those students with the most significant support needs. Often assumed to include three to five percent of any student-body, these are students with physiological, emotional and social challenges that require more complex and individualized intervention. Extensive research and program development has targeted the design of Tier III supports (Brown, Anderson, & De Pry, 2015; Crone & Horner, 2003; Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995; Walker & Gresham, 2014). Within the PBIS framework, Tier III supports include:

15) *Individual student support teams:* A central assumption behind the design of individualized supports is that the team of people who develop, implement and assess support are knowledgeable about the unique needs and preferences of the student (family), actively embedded in the local school context, and skilled professionals with training in behavioral and instructional practices. This means that in most cases the team building an individualized support plan will include a student (or representative), the teaching and support staff, an administrator, and a behavior support specialist.

16) *Individualized Assessment:* Tier III supports are designed based on the specific learning and behavioral patterns of a student. As such formal assessment of academic skills, behavioral function, and mental health of the student serve as the foundation for support planning. The goal is to better understand the strengths a student brings to his/her classes as well as the sources of challenge within the school setting. At a minimum the assessment should identify the specific behaviors that are posing a barrier for the student, when and where those behaviors are most and least likely, what possible reinforcers are maintaining those behaviors, and any episodic events (motivating operations) that affect the likelihood of the problem behaviors.

17) *Individual support plan:* An individual Tier III support plan is expected to be focused not just on reduction of problem behavior, but development and support of the positive behaviors that will allow a student to be socially and academically successful. Individualized plans are comprehensive in their scope, emphasize the full school day (if not the full student day), and include practices to (a) prevent behavioral problems, (b) teach appropriate behavior, (c) place problem behavior on extinction, and (d) monitor and adapt to improvements and regressions over time.

18) *Implementation of Tier III support:* The development of an individualized support plan requires the design of an "action plan" for effective implementation. The plan may include special education supports, or additional educational accommodations that necessitate coordination and staffing. The important feature here is that there is not only a plan of support that describes how the student will be assisted, but an active plan defining the resources, scheduling and management needed to have that plan implemented with high integrity.

19) *Elevated data collection and decision-making:* Tier III supports are inherently complex, and adaptive. On at least a weekly basis staff should collect and summarize data indicating (a) if the plan is being implemented with integrity, and (b) if the support is having the desired effects on student behavior. Individualized support plans typically require more frequent and specific data collection than is used school-wide (May et al., 2018). These data are used by school personnel to both assess if a support plan is being effective, and adapt the plan to match unique needs and opportunities.

20) *Elevated family engagement:* The success of Tier III supports typically requires more than investment by school personnel. The student is viewed as a key leader in his/her own support, and the assistance received from the student's family is often a central asset.

2   Empirical Support for PBIS

Wide adoption of PBIS is fueled by documentation that schools are both able to implement these core features with integrity, and that PBIS adoption results in desirable outcomes for students, faculty and families. A central concern with any school-wide approach is the extent to which typical schools are able to use the approach as intended. Education is replete with examples of excellent ideas and practices that have proven too challenging to implement with a level of precision that results in student benefits. By contrast, the core features of PBIS have been found to build on existing school strengths and be adoptable with high fidelity (Barrett, Bradshaw, & Lewis-Palmer, 2008; Horner et al., 2009; Kittelman et al., 2018; Mercer, McIntosh, & Hoselton, 2017). More importantly, the PBIS core features are empirically associated with the following improvements for students and schools.

1) *Reduction in problem behavior*: Multiple randomized controlled trials have documented reduction in problem behavior and office discipline referrals when PBIS Tier I practices were implemented (Bradshaw, Mitchell, & Leaf, 2010; Flannery et al., 2014; Horner et al., 2009; Kelm et al., 2014; McIntosh, Bennett, & Price, 2011; Metzler et al., 2001; Nelson et al., 2002).

2) *Improved prosocial behavior*: PBIS is about more than reduction of problem behavior. Durable improvement in student behavior requires commitment to teaching positive social skills, and building a community that acknowledges and supports those positive behaviors. Systematic research has documented improved social competence and an elevated school-wide social climate following Tier I PBIS implementation (Metzler et al., 2001; McIntosh et al., 2011; Nelson et al., 2002). Bradshaw, Pas, Goldweber, Rosenberg and Leaf (2012) also found that the use of PBIS core features is associated with improved emotional regulation for students at risk for problem behavior.

3) *Improved academic achievement:* School-wide behavior support does not directly improve academic outcomes, but when students are more likely to attend school, more likely to be academically engaged in class, and more likely to find the environment welcoming and comfortable they are also more likely to learn. At least four papers report improved academic outcomes associated with PBIS implementation (Horner et al., 2009; Kelm et al., 2014; Lassen, Steele, & Sailor, 2006; Nelson et al., 2002).

4) *Improved perception of school safety:* Horner et al. (2009) assessed student and staff perception of school safety and found increases when PBIS was adopted. Similarly, Ross and Horner (2009) documented a 72% reduction in bulling behaviors on the playground when elementary schools adopted Tier I PBIS core features.

5) *Improved school organization:* Schools adopting PBIS have also demonstrated improved organizational health and reduction in staff turnover (Bradshaw et al., 2008). The basic message is that adults in schools using PBIS find the environment more predictable, effective and desirable. In a recent study Ross, Endrulat and Horner (2011) found that teachers in schools using PBIS were more likely than teachers in non-PBIS schools to report that they were "effective" with their students.

This body of primary research is highly promising and approaching a level where both formal meta-analyses, and assessments across cultures will be appropriate and helpful.

3   Implementation and Cultural Adaptation

Our goals thus far have been to establish two key messages, (a) that the social behavior of students is a school-wide concern affecting student success (both academic and social success), and (b) that the multi-tiered set of core features associated with the PBIS approach is one viable and effective option for improving the social behavior of students and the social climate of schools. We turn now to the lessons learned about implementing the practices and systems of PBIS both within the United States and internationally. PBIS is currently used in over 26,000 schools in the U.S. and in school systems across 21 other countries. We have benefited from the emerging messages provided by the evolving field of "implementation science" (Fisher, Shortell,

& Savitz, 2016; Fixsen et al., 2005). Advocates of implementation science encourage separation of the content of a practice from the process by which it is adopted. Within education we look for practices that are documented to improve student outcomes, are practical for use in typical community and school settings, and are available at a reasonable cost. Too often, however, we assume that these solutions to academic and behavioral challenges can be implemented by purchasing "kits" or attending brief training events. Reality, and systematic measurement, suggest that implementation is a demanding process requiring attention to training, coaching, organizational systems, policy and the collection and use of data (Blase et al., 2015). The process of implementation is especially challenging when practices and systems are being extended beyond the cultural context where they were developed and tested. PBIS, for example, was developed in urban and suburban schools on the West Coast of the United States. Adoption of PBIS across the United States has required adaptations to meet cultural and contextual features of very small and very large schools, pre-schools and high schools, urban schools and rural schools, schools with very low cultural diversity, and schools with very high cultural diversity. The experience of extending multi-tiered behavior support across this range of contexts was expanded further when PBIS was introduced in different countries with not only different social norms, but significantly different political, fiscal and regulatory traditions for organizing education. From this experience we suggest that four main messages for large-scale implementation of educational practices have emerged.

3.1   Focus on implementing core feature rather than "programs"

Education is replete with packages and programs developed to improve academic and social outcomes. Nearly all of these include very well established practices, and the goal of the package is to make adoption more complete and efficient. Our experience is that packages and programs often work extremely well in some contexts (often those similar to the settings where the package was developed) but are more difficult to implement across the array of contexts needed for large-scale adoption. This has led us to organize PBIS as a "framework" of core features that can be accessed in many different ways. The basic message is that there are core features of schools that make them effective, but that these core features can be achieved through a variety of paths. In terms of behavior support we believe that any school attempting to support all students should provide that support across

at least three different levels of intensity (multiple tiers), and invest initially in proactive (Tier I) efforts to define, teach, monitor and acknowledge a small set of well-defined, positive social expectations for everyone in the school. But the selection of these expectations will vary across cultures and contexts. Many schools, for example, select, "be respectful of others" as one basic expectation. But in some districts with a high gang presence, the word "respect" has taken on an alternate meaning, and fails to convey the message intended. In these contexts the school staff, students and families are likely to adopt a different expectation. Similarly, in some communities with a large proportion of Native American students there may be a long-standing tradition of honoring core tribal expectations, and these may be much more effectively extended to the school setting.

The key message is that while there are core features of effective educational environments (e.g., defining and teaching behavioral expectations for all) the specific path by which those features are implemented may be shaped by the strengths of the local setting and culture of the local community. The nuance of this approach involves being clear about the logic, form and function of the core feature so these elements are retained, while allowing high flexibility with respect to the steps taken to achieve the core features. Implementing educational practices with excessive reliance on packaged protocols will often prove an ill-fit as the package is applied across a wider array of contexts. Similarly implementing effective practices without clarity about and commitment to core features can result in implementation in name only, without benefit to students.

The implementation approach most effective for extending PBIS involves (a) development of a "blueprint" for PBIS adoption that lays out the core features of each tier of support, (b) providing examples of schools adopting these core features in different ways in different contexts, (c) monitoring the impact of implementation on student outcomes, and (d) specifying a formal process by which local leadership teams shape the path of adoption to fit the local values and culture (Sugai, Horner, & Lewis, 2015).

3.2 Implement effective practices in combination with supporting organizational systems

Among the most consequential lessons we have learned is that effective practices (core features) are less likely to be adopted with precision, and

unlikely to sustained over time (McIntosh & Turri, 2014), unless they are paired with adoption of supporting organizational systems. Educational practices are the behaviors that adults perform to alter student skills and knowledge. Adults prompt, teach, acknowledge, correct, guide and nudge students with varying forms and frequencies to achieve improved student performance. Organizational systems are the features of the setting that affect the behavior of adults. Organizational systems are the policies, mission, operating protocols, teaming approach, hiring practices, evaluation criteria, and data systems that make it easier or more difficult to apply effective practices. Issues such as class size, time for academic preparation, opportunity for team meetings, inclusion of personnel with advanced technical knowledge, and the accuracy of and accessibility to student data are frequent challenges in schools today. Implementing effective practices without attention to the organizational systems needed for their adoption and nurturance is unlikely to lead to satisfactory outcomes.

The need to define and emphasize the role of organizational systems when implementing any educational innovation is especially important when implementation is considered on an international scale. Different countries not only vary in their levels of investment in education, but have very different standards and approaches for the role of teachers, building administrators, and related services personnel. Large scale implementation should include clarity and detailed steps for establishing the organizational systems needed for successful and sustained adoption.

Although there exists growing consensus among U.S. researchers concerning the critical role of organizational systems for implementation, and sustainability of effective practices, it is unclear how organizational systems are developed and prioritized in educational settings outside North America. For instance, although much is discussed about the insufficient funding for education in the U.S., other countries face even larger resource challenges. This is true in Chile, for example, which although generally ranked in the top three of South American countries in fiscal indicators, still faces major financial limits in education. These limitations have a negative effect on the implementation of organizational structures and processes that sustain effective practices.

An example of limited investment in organizational systems is the over-reliance in Chile on external experts. When schools in Chile face an issue that

cannot be solved with existing resources, the common response is to hire an external person to provide training and new strategies to address that specific problem. When the external expert leaves, schools are expected to sustain implementation of the strategy by themselves without any support. However, this approach to problem solving too often fails because the insufficient focus on organizational systems (e.g., resources, training, coaching) is inadequate to sustain any initial effects (McIntosh & Turri, 2014).

Another critical organizational system that is not consistently established in Chilean school system is coaching capacity. Implementation science has demonstrated that training and professional development alone are seldom sufficient to ensure the effective adoption of a practice. Coaches within an educational context assist individuals to use skills and knowledge gained in the training sessions and help them understand how the use of these new skills helps improve student outcomes (Reinke et al., 2014). In addition, a coach might provide support in the implementation of their duties as a teacher; this support could include providing instruction, engaging in effective classroom management, or addressing the needs of a specific student. Besides developing skills toward fluency, coaching facilitates the processes of applying the skills and knowledge learned during training to the specific and unique needs of a school setting (Stormont & Reinke, 2012). Therefore, it is important that individuals who carry out tasks as a coach possesses knowledge and experience with behavioral and PBIS expertise, school team implementation and problem solving. The ability of effective coaching to establish new educational skills, and adapt those skills to the local context makes investment in coaching a key component to cultural expansion of effective practices (Monzalve & Horner, 2015).

3.3 Use data to guide and improve implementation

The foundation for any improvement in education lies in frequent and accurate measurement of the effects on student behavior. If an approach targets improvement in reading, writing or math performance then principled educators will regularly measure if student performance on these skills is improving. The same is true for social behavior. Regular review of the office discipline referrals (Irvin et al., 2004), attendance, and school climate is needed, possible, and becoming a core feature of effective schools (Horner et al., 2018).

The use of student data to guide decisions is well documented, and becoming more common. It is less common to find school teams using "fidelity data" to guide implementation decisions. Fidelity refers to the extent to which educational practices are being used as intended. Latham (1992) and others have long lamented the iterative cycles of adopt-discard-adopt-discard, and attributed part of this problem to our tradition of not measuring if we are implementing with fidelity. As part of the process of adopting PBIS, schools (and districts) are encouraged to regularly (two to three times per years) assess if they are implementing the core features of Tier I, Tier II and/or Tier III supports. The *Tiered Fidelity Inventory* (TFI: Algozzine et al., 2014) is a fidelity measure that is used by local school teams to assess their adoption of PBIS. The TFI has been demonstrated to have high technical adequacy (McIntosh et al., 2017), and lead to action plans that directly assist schools to improve PBIS adoption over time. During the 2017–18 academic year, 14,990 schools in the United States measured the fidelity with which they were implementing PBIS, and over 9,750 of these schools documented that they were implementing with a sufficient level of Tier I fidelity to affect student outcomes.

The basic message is that regardless of the educational practice being considered, implementation should be guided by empirical measurement of fidelity. Fidelity measures should index the extent to which core features are in place, and should be assessed repeatedly within a year by those actively engaged in implementation. The results from fidelity measures should then be used for action planning that addresses continuous improvement and adaptation to on-going changes in the setting. Historically educators have collected data that was summarized and used primarily by administrators. The availability of inexpensive, accurate and timely data is transforming education. Local educators are now able to make decisions from practical data sources. A major question for the field is if this opportunity will be embraced, and if it will become more common for regular educators to ask two key questions from their data: (a) do fidelity data indicate that we are actually doing the practices we claim to do?, and (b) do these practices benefit students?

3.4   Follow stages of implementation

Adoption of effective educational practices can occur quickly for some smaller practices, but is more likely to consume two to four years for larger efforts

(Bierman et al., 2002; Fixsen & Blase, 2018). An important contribution from the implementation science literature is identification of four stages that typically guide adoption of new practices. Ignoring these stages often leads to school personnel launching training efforts too early, or shifting support for implementation away from a school before adequate fidelity has been achieved.

Stage 1 involves *Exploration* of a new practice. An adopting school, or school team, needs time to consider if a new approach or practice (e.g. PBIS) is needed in their school, is practical for their school, and can be adopted with available resources. The process of exploration often requires examining data to determine if a problem or deficit exists (Are students reading below expectation? Are student behaviors placing educational achievement at risk?), and consideration of whether the core features that research has shown to be most effective are (or are not) already in place. Blase, Kiser and Van Dyke (2013) have developed a *Hexagon Tool* for assisting schools, districts and state agencies to guide the discussions and data reviews needed for the exploration stage of implementation. Exploration ends with a team selecting core practices that they wish to implement.

Stage 2 involves establishing the *Installation* context to support effective implementation. During this stage the organizational systems such as teaming process, data access, policy development and resource commitment for effective implementation is assembled. The message within Stage 2 is to establish the context for successful adoption prior to launching major training efforts.

Stage 3 is *Initial Implementation* and is the stage at which direct training, coaching and support of personnel is delivered. Initial implementation includes the time from initial training until the educational practices are implemented with criterion level fidelity.

Stage 4 involves *Scaling and Sustaining* the practice. This stage involves activities designed to ensure that any educational practice be implemented with continued improvement processes, regular review, and on-going adaptation to changes in the cultural and organizational needs of the context. The variables needed to achieve initial implementation are often different from those needed for scaling and sustaining effective practices.

The stages of implementation have been of special value in avoiding three common errors in the implementation process. The first error is to schedule and deliver staff training before the Exploration stage has been completed. If personnel are trained to do something they do not believe is necessary, contextual appropriate or effective, the training is unlikely to result in a positive effect. Taking the time to establish agreement about the need and value of a practice or system has dramatic impact on the likelihood of successful adoption.

The second error avoided through stage-guided implementation is to launch practices without the organizational systems needed for initial or sustained implementation. Training teams of school personnel to meet, use data and make decisions is a wonderful way to ensure that local culture and values will guide implementation. But if the training occurs and the teams do not have scheduled time to meet, the teams do not have access to the data they have been taught to use, or the teams lack the authority to act on their decisions, then the training will have little impact. Installing the core systems needed for successful implementation is a critical, if oft-missed, stage of implementation.

The third common implementation error is to withdraw attention and support from the implementation process after a school or district demonstrates minimally acceptable Tier I implementation. Too often the assumption is that if a school is able to implement initial fidelity with Tier I practices then they should have all they need for sustained and elaborated implementation of Tier II and Tier III practices. The stages of implementation teach us that what is needed for initial adoption is seldom sufficient for sustained, elaborated and/or scaled adoption. Implementing PBIS at Tier II and Tier III requires investment in personnel with behavior support expertise, and sustained implementation requires investment in organizational systems with ongoing review of fidelity and impact data by local teams (Horner, Sugai, & Fixsen, 2017).

4   Summary

Any society formed around democracy, or a democratic republic, has an obligation to invest in the education of all children. As such the identification of effective educational practices is a high social objective. We argue here that part of any effective educational effort will be proactive and sustained

attention to the social competence of students. This means more than teaching social skills, but establishing schools as learning communities with predictable, consistent, positive and safe social cultures.

The core features needed for building positive, school-wide social cultures are becoming well documented. These features are organized in the PBIS framework into a multi-tiered set of practices, systems and data-use protocols that have been demonstrated to be both practical for schools, and helpful to students. The challenge today is less to identify what is needed to make schools effective learning environments, and more about understanding the political, fiscal, and organizational variables that affect adoption of effective practices with high fidelity, sustainability, and scalability.

References

Algozzine, R. F., Barrett, S., Eber, L., George, H., Horner, R. H., Lewis, T. J., … Sugai, G. (2014). *SWPBIS Tiered Fidelity Inventory*. Eugene, OR: OSEP Technical Assistance Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports. Retrieved from www.pbis.org

Allen, M. B. (2005). *Eight questions on teacher recruitment and retention: What does the research say?* Education Commission of the States. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov.fulltext/ED489332

Barrett, S., Bradshaw, C., & Lewis-Palmer, T. (2008). Maryland statewide PBIS initiative: Systems, evaluation, and next steps. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 10,* 105–114.

Belfield, C., Bowden, A. B., Klapp, A., Levin, H. M., Shand, R., & Zander, S. (2015). *The economic value of social and emotional learning.* Monograph. New York: Center for Benefit-Cost Studies in Education Teachers College, Columbia University. Retrieved from http://cbcse.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/SEL-Revised.pdf.Google Scholar

Bierman, K. L., Coie, J. D., Dodge, K. A., Greenberg, M. T., Lochman, J. E., McMahon, R. J., & Pinderhughes, E. (2002). The implementation of the Fast Track Program: An example of a large-scale prevention science efficacy trial. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 30,* 1–17.

Blase, K. A., Fixsen, D. L., Sims, B. J., & Ward, C. S. (2015). *Implementation science: Changing hearts, minds, behavior, and systems to improve educational outcomes.* Paper presented at the Wing Institute's Ninth Annual Summit on Evidence-based Education, Berkeley, CA. Retrieved from http://nirn.fpg.unc.edu/resources/implementation-science-changing-hearts-minds-behavior and-systems-to-improve

Blase, K., Kiser, L., & Van Dyke, M. (2013). *The Hexagon Tool: Exploring context*. Chapel Hill: National Implementation Research Network, FPG Child Development Institute, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Bradshaw, C., Koth, C., Bevans, K., Ialongo, N., & Leaf, P. (2008). The impact of school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports (PBIS) on the organizational health of elementary schools. *School Psychology Quarterly, 23,* 462–473.

Bradshaw, C. P., Mitchell, M. M., & Leaf, P. J. (2010). Examining the effects of schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports on student outcomes: Results from a randomized controlled effectiveness trial in elementary schools. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 12,* 133–148.

Bradshaw, C. P., Pas, E. T., Goldweber, A., Rosenberg, M. S., & Leaf, P. J. (2012). Integrating school wide positive behavioral interventions and supports with tier 2 coaching to student support teams: The PBIS*plus* model. *Advances in School Mental Health Promotion, 5,* 177–193.

Brown, F., Anderson, J., & De Pry, R. (2015). *Individual positive behavior supports: A standards based guide to supports in school and community settings.* Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

Christensen, L. L., Fraynt, R. J., Neece, C. L., & Baker, B. L. (2012). Bullying adolescents with intellectual disability. *Journal of Mental Health Research in Intellectual Disabilities, 5,* 49–65.

Cook, C. R., Williams, K. R., Guerra, N. G., & Kim, T. E. (2010). Variability in the prevalence of bullying and victimization. In S. R. Jimerson, S. M., Swearer, & D. L. Espelage (Eds.), *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 347–362). New York: Routledge.

Copeland, W. E., Wolke, D., Angold, A., & Costello, E. J. (2013). Adult psychiatric outcomes of bullying and being bullied by peers in childhood and adolescence. *Journal of the American Medical Association Psychiatry, 70,* 419–426.

Crone, D. A., & Horner, R. H. (2003). *Building positive behavior support systems in schools: Functional behavioral assessment.* New York: Guilford Press.

Domitrovich, C. E., Bradshaw, C. P., Berg, J. K., Pas, E. T., Becker, K. D., Musci, R., … Ialongo, N. (2016). How do school-based prevention programs impact teachers? Findings from a randomized trial of an integrated classroom management and social-emotional program. *Prevention Science*, *17*, 325–337.

Elliott, S. N., & Gresham, F. M. (Eds.) (1991). *Social skills intervention guide.* Circle Pines: American Guidance Service.

Farmer, T. W., Reinke, W. M., & Brooks, D. S. (2014). Managing classrooms and challenging behavior: Theoretical considerations and critical issues. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 22,* 67–73.

Fisher, E., Shortell, S., & Savitz, S. (2016). Implementation science: A potential catalyst for delivery system reform. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 315,* 339–340.

Fixsen, D. L., & Blase, K. A. (2018). The teaching-family model: The first 50 years. *Perspectives on Behavior Science*, 1–23.

Fixsen, D. L., Naoom, S. F., Blasé, K. A., Friedman, R. M., & Wallace, F. (2005). *Implementation research: A synthesis of the literature.* Tampa, FL: University of South Florida, Louis de la Parte Florida Mental Health Institute, The National Implementation Research Network. Retrieved from http://nirn.fmhi.usf.edu/resources/detail.cfm?resourceid=31

Flannery, K. B., Fenning, P., McGrath Kato, M. M., & McIntosh, K. (2014). Effects of school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports and fidelity of implementation on problem behavior in high schools. *School Psychology Quarterly, 29,* 111-124.

Garbacz, S. A., McIntosh, K., Vatland, C. H., Minch, D. R., & Eagle, J. W. (2018). Identifying and examining school approaches to family engagement within schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports. *Journal of Positive Behavioral Interventions, 20,* 127-137.

Graham, S., Parmer, R., Chambers, L., Tourkin, S., & Lyter, D. (2011*). Documentation for the 2008–09 Teacher Follow-up Survey (NCES 2011-304).* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Horner, R. H., Newton, J. S., Todd, A. W., Algozzine, B., Algozzine, K., Cusumano, D., & Preston, A. (2018). A randomized waitlist controlled analysis of team-initiated problem solving professional development and use. *Behavioral Disorders, 43,* 444-456.

Horner, R. H., Sugai, G., & Fixsen, D. L. (2017). Implementing effective educational practices at scales of social importance. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 20,* 25–35.

Horner, R. H., Sugai, G., Smolkowski, K., Eber, L., Nakasato, J., Todd, A., & Esperanza, J. (2009). A randomized, waitlist-controlled effectiveness trial assessing school-wide positive behavior support in elementary schools. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 11*, 133–144*.*

Irvin, L., Tobin, T., Sprague, J., Sugai, G., & Vincent, C. (2004). Validity of office discipline referral measures as indices of school-wide behavioral status and effects of school-wide behavioral interventions. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 6,* 131-147.

Kelm, J. L., McIntosh, K., & Cooley, S. (2014). Effects of implementing school-wide positive behavioural interventions and supports on problem behaviour and academic achievement in a Canadian elementary school. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 29*, 195–212.

Kittelman, A., Eliason, B. M., Dickey, C. R., & McIntosh, K. (2018). *How are schools using the SWPBIS tiered fidelity inventory (TFI)?* OSEP Technical Center on Positive Behavioral Interventions and Support. Retrieved from www.pbis.org

Lassen, S., Steele, M., & Sailor, W. (2006). The relationship of school-wide positive behavior support to academic achievement in an urban middle school. *Psychology in Schools, 43,* 701–712.

Latham, G. (1992). Interacting with at-risk children: The positive position. *Principal, 72,* 26–30.

Maggin, D. M., Zurheide, J., Pickett, K. C., & Baillie, S. J. (2015). A systematic evidence review of the check-in/check-out program for reducing student challenging behaviors. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 17,* 197–208.

May, S., Talmadge, N., Todd, A. W., Horner, R. H., McGovern, S., Morris, J.,…Cave, M. (2018). *Individual SWIS 6.3.0 b20.* Eugene: University of Oregon.

McIntosh, K., Bennett, J. L., & Price, K. (2011). Evaluation of social and academic effects of school wide positive behaviour support in a Canadian school district. *Exceptionality Education International, 21,* 46–60.

McIntosh, K., & Goodman, S. (Eds.). (2016). *Integrated multi-tiered systems of support: Blending RTI and PBIS.* New York: The Guilford Press.

McIntosh, K., Massar, M. M., Algozzine, R. F., George, H. P., Horner, R. H., Lewis, T. J., & Swain Bradway, J. (2017). Technical adequacy of the SWPBIS tiered fidelity inventory. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 19,* 3–13.

McIntosh, K., & Turri, M. G. (2014). Positive behavior support: Sustainability and continuous regeneration. In C. R. Reynolds, K. J. Vannest, & E. Fletcher-Janzen (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of special education: A reference for the education of children, adolescents, and adults with disabilities and other exceptional individuals* (pp. 2061–2064). Hoboken: Wiley.

Mercer, S. H., McIntosh, K., & Hoselton, R. (2017). Comparability of fidelity measures for assessing Tier 1 school-wide positive behavioral interventions and supports. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions, 19,* 195–204.

Metzler, C. W., Biglan, A., Rusby, J. C., & Sprague, J. R. (2001). Evaluation of a comprehensive behavior management program to improve school-wide positive behavior support. *Education and Treatment of Children, 24,* 448–479.

Monzalve, M., & Horner, R. H. (2015). An examination of classroom management training in K-12 teachers and administrators in the Maule region of Central Chile. *International Journal of Positive Behavioural Support, 5*, 16–24.

Nelson, J. R., Benner, G. J., Reid, R. C., Epstein, M. H., & Currin, D. (2002). The convergent validity of office discipline referrals with the CBCL-TRF. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 10,* 181–188.

Newton, J. S., Algozzine, B., Algozzine, K., Horner, R. H., & Todd, A. W. (2011). Building local capacity for training and coaching data-based problem solving with positive behavior intervention and support teams. *Journal of Applied School Psychology, 27,* 228–245.

Reinke, W. M., Stormont, M., Herman, K. C., Wang, Z., Newcomer, L., & King, K. (2014). Use of coaching and behavior support planning for students with disruptive behavior within a universal classroom management program. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, *22*(2), 74–82.

Ross, S. W., Endrulat, N. R., & Horner, R. H. (2011). Adult outcomes of school-wide positive behavior support. *Journal of Positive Behavioral Interventions, 13*, 1–12.

Ross, S. W., & Horner, R. H. (2009). Bully prevention in positive behavior support. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 42,* 747–759.

Rumberger, R. W., & Losen, D. J. (2017). *The hidden costs of California's harsh school discipline: And the localized economic benefits from suspending fewer high school students.* Los Angeles: The Center for Civil Rights Remedies at the Civil Rights Project of the University of California at Los Angeles.

Simonsen, B., Fairbanks, S., Briesch, A., Myers, D., & Sugai, G. (2008). Evidence-based practices in classroom management: Considerations for research to practice. *Education and Treatment of Children, 31*, 351–380.

Simonsen, B., & Myers, D. (2015). *Classwide positive behavior interventions and supports*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Sprick, R., Booher, M., & Garrison, M. (2009). *Behavioral response to intervention: Creating a continuum of problem-solving and support.* Eugene: Pacific Northwest Publishing.

Stormont, M., & Reinke, W. M. (2012). Using coaching to improve classroom implementation fidelity within school-wide positive behavior support systems. *Beyond Behavior, 21,* 11–19.

Sugai, G. (May 2018). *Getting Started with PBIS*. Presentation delivered at the Northeast PBIS Forum, Mystic, CT.

Sugai, G., Horner, R. H., & Lewis, T. (2015). *Behavioral interventions and supports implementation blueprint.* Retrieved from www.pbis.org

Walker, H. M., Colvin, G., & Ramsey, E. (1995). *Antisocial behavior in schools: Strategies and best practices.* Pacific Grove: Brooks/Cole.

Walker, H. M., & Gresham, F. M. (Eds.) (2014). *Handbook of evidence-based practices for emotional and behavioral disorders: Applications in schools.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Walker, H. M., Horner, R. H., Sugai, G., Bullis, M., Sprague, J. R., Bricker, D., & Kaufman, M. H. (1996). Integrated approaches to preventing antisocial behavior patterns among school-age children and youth. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 4,* 194–209.

Walker, H. M., Kavanagh, K., Stiller, B., Golly, A., Severson, H., & Feil, E. (1998). First Step to Success. An early intervention approach for preventing school antisocial behavior. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 6*, 66–80.

Authors

Robert H. Horner, Ph.D., Special Education, 1235 University of Oregon, Eugene, OR. 97405, e-mail: robh@uoregon.edu

Manual Monzalve Macaya, Ph.D., Special Education, Universidad Catolica Del Maule, Chile, e-mail: mmonzalve@ucm.cl

Rámec pro budování bezpečného a efektivního prostředí ve škole: Pozitivní intervence a podpora chování (PBIS)

Abstrakt: Školy po celém světě se snaží vytvářet bezpečné a efektivní učební prostředí. Neustálou výzvou je agrese studentů, jejich nekázeň a absence. Tradičním přístupem k problémovému chování byl trest a náprava. V poslední době se ale objevují možnosti charakteristické pozitivním, proaktivním a komplexním přístupem. Pozitivní intervence a podpora chování (Positive Behavioral Interventions and Support; PBIS) je jedním z možných rámců, které spojují celoškolní preventivní přístup a víceúrovňovou podporu chování. Tato studie shrnuje logiku a základní znaky PBIS, výzkumnou literaturu týkající se realizovatelnosti a efektivnosti PBIS a také poznatky z implementace PBIS na více než 26 000 školách v USA. Diskuse se pak soustředí na problémy spojené s adaptací programu v odlišném kulturním prostředí mimo USA a v různých sociálních kontextech.

Klíčová slova: pozitivní podpora chování, implementace, školní kázeň, kulturní adaptace

Self-discipline:
A Challenge for Personality-oriented Education

Michal Zvírotský

Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education

While a well-behaved individual can be brought up by simple disciplining or external pressure, self-discipline can only be achieved by a systematic and reflective upbringing and self-upbringing[1]. This paper presents self-discipline as an important educational category and at the same time a virtue which, despite its complexity and internal contradictions, shouldn't disappear from the educational discourse of our current time.

1   Self-upbringing: An Overlooked Goal of Education

Many theoretical papers about education state that self-upbringing is the goal of educational activity. Self-upbringing comes at a moment when the subject begins to strive for the self-improvement of his/her own personality in accordance to goals set under the influence of education, and therefore he/she starts a process of self-education (compare e.g. Vorlíček, 2000, p. 21). Self-discipline can be perceived in a similar manner. The subject sets himself/ herself a task, chooses a path to follow, subordinates to himself/herself and also defends himself/herself against his/her own bad inclinations (Uher, 1924). Considering that in fact these are the goals of education across contemporary educational paradigms, they are given only marginal attention in today's educational theory (and practice).

It is telling that self-upbringing has not even been included in the most influential Czech educational dictionary of recent years (Průcha, Walterová, & Mareš, 1995 and onwards) and in the similarly popular dictionary of psychology (Hartl & Hartlová, 2000 and onwards) self-upbringing takes up only two rows of text. It is also worth noting that self-upbringing is not included in the Czech version of Wikipedia. A similar situation occurs in the field of periodical and non-periodical specialized literature in both the Czech

---

[1]   I intentionally use the less common term of *self-upbringing* in the text, mainly because the more commonly used term of *self-education* is often understood in the sense of *self-instruction*. The subject of this text is, however, the real educational effect on oneself. The term *upbringing* seems more suitable also because the subject of education, even when concerning adult individuals, is the "child" aspect of their personality – to be explained later.

Republic and neighboring countries. The last Czech monograph dealing with self-upbringing was published in the seventies and interestingly was written by a psychologist. The book title is *Self-education and mental health* written by Libor Míček (1976). During this time period, besides Míček's book, the only other books in this area were a couple of ideologically-tinted handbooks about the "self-upbringing" of frontier guards, the remarkable *How to improve by yourself* written by Jiří Toman (1980), and a Czech translation of the popular work *The art of self-mastery* by Russian psychiatrist Vladimir Levi (1981).

2   From Upbringing to Controlling: Inconspicuous Dehumanization

The topic of self-upbringing and self-discipline hasn't vanished from professional nor non-professional discourse. Quite the opposite, it is flourishing, although in a slightly altered form. When modern educational science renounced self-upbringing and self-discipline, management theory took it up. The substitution of self-upbringing with self-management or self-coaching is not just the disguising of traditional content behind a modern garment, as might initially be perceived. This change also reflects a fundamental shift of paradigm: from upbringing to controlling, from protecting to manipulating. It would be a great mistake to underestimate this danger with the justification that when a person is managing himself/ herself, he/she acts freely. As has been pointed out by Michel Foucault, the person who manages himself does not usually act of their own free will but is rather conforming to norms set by society (Foucault, 1991). He considered *normalization* to be an extremely effective form of so-called pastoral power which, since the beginning of modern times, has gracefully replaced harsher forms of oppression. The interests of the institutions of power are not manifested solely by *laws* that govern people from the outside, but above all by *norms* which are being interiorized and therefore are acting from within. Hence, self-discipline can also be involuntary, forced. The oppression by norms is ubiquitous, especially apparent in institutions that are constantly evaluating people, thus also at school. Conformation and its product – the conforming person – were born after normalization. Today the omnipresent dictate of norms is greatly supported by the mass-media through the employment of visualization (a repressive technique paralyzing the imagination) and by spreading fear. Foucault's observation, that even the innermost and freest – that is our own self-relation – could be entirely

governed by outside mechanisms, is still underestimated. Nevertheless, the path to freedom still exists and, according to Jaroslav Puchmertl, the key is in the process of inner transformation (Puchmertl, 2008), by which he means the restoration of cooperation between critical thinking and the imagination. It is possible to achieve this solely by creative self-upbringing.

3 Healthy (self)discipline as a top Educational Category

Discipline is quite a complicated term which has a lot of different, often even contradictory, nuances (Bendl, 2001). We can talk about inner discipline, outer discipline, as well as blind, slavery, critical and other forms of discipline. In his school discipline works, Stanislav Bendl uses discipline in a strictly positive sense, with the objective of protecting every actor in the educational process and he suggests labelling it as healthy discipline. It is that emphasis on protection which anchors discipline in the pedagogy domain. We can briefly summarize that while the core of upbringing and self-upbringing is (at least in humanistically-oriented education) protection and cultivation, the essence of management and self-management is to control and shape. If we disregard the fact that in the phrase healthy discipline the current omnipresent tendency to medicinalize various areas of everyday life is reflected (which also relates to social control), this phrase probably best captures the desirable naturalness of discipline.

Self-upbringing and self-discipline are absolutely natural concepts because a person is not a machine, even though he/she may still be looked upon in that way in the Cartesian tradition. Somewhat more probable is that a person is an auto-poetic system, that realizes himself/herself in a complicated interaction with the environment. A person being brought up has to be in fact bringing himself up much the same way as a successfully treated person is in fact treating (healing) himself. It is not about being able to do it alone; it cannot be done because one always exists in a relationship (compare e.g. Buber, 2005, p. 37). The one being educated has to open up to the educational action, he/she has to absorb it, whether coming from another person, his/ her own conscience or from the environment. It can also be explained by the psychological concept of self-regulation. External influences do not affect person's behavior directly but are mediated through his self-regulation processes (compare e.g. Mareš, 2013, p. 225). A developed ability to pursue self-education, self-regulation and self-control is therefore a solely human skill of relationship development, therefore a virtue, which has to be constantly taken care of.

4 The Key to Healthy (Self)discipline is a Healthy Environment

The danger of manipulation most likely could be overcome by the educational sciences taking up self-upbringing and self-discipline, namely via a humanistic education which puts an emphasis on the self-relation and self-development of the subject being educated. A self-relation is focused on the young and undeveloped aspect of a personality. In popular literature this is sometimes labeled as the inner child. Eric Berne, for instance, emphasizes that a person has to understand his inner child, and not only because it will be with him for his entire lifetime, but also because it is the most valuable part of his/her personality (Berne, 1972). This fact disqualifies not only management from the field of self-education, but also andragogy (theory of adult education) and other progressive disciplines which have parted from educational science. A child cannot be managed like a machine or a company, a child has to be brought up. Upbringing and self-upbringing therefore belong to the sovereign field of pedagogy, which of course shouldn't limit its scope to youth or school but has to focus on all educationally relevant situations regardless of environment or the age of the participating subjects.

However, according to Ondrej Kaščák and Branislav Pupala, postulating (radical) self-development in individualized conditions opens up further questions, most notably a question of what will happen to the teacher in such a conceptualized education? (Kaščák & Pupala, 2009). Will there remain enough room for his/her actions? The teacher's position in education doesn't have to necessarily be weakened, despite the fact that this tendency can be observed in today's schools. The teacher has to focus increasingly on adjusting and arranging conditions suitable for upbringing and education. He/she has to work with the educational and aesthetical modification of the environment. He/she has to be a role model of the desired behavior to the educated. All this in no way means the reduction of the teacher's role. Quite the opposite, it is more demanding than that which has traditionally been seen as the role of the "preacher" and discipliner. This concept opens up a wide field of applications for social education which is conceptually focused on the environment and its influence on upbringing. Let us add that it can't be a value-neutral science, but a social education that is personally oriented, thus humanistic in the true sense of the word (compare e.g. Helus & Pavelková, 1992, p. 197). Only a truly free school will create the conditions for healthy discipline.

5 Sit Venia Verbo

The topic of self-discipline brings up many theoretical and practical questions; some of which are so vital that they should be repeated over and over in future discussions about education and school. It is a paradox that even though the European family has moved much of the responsibility for a child's education to schools, the parental public is strongly against schools raising children too. However, since education is inseparable from upbringing, one possible solution could be to remove the school's responsibility for both the upbringing of the child and his/her education. Can we imagine a school, that would focus "only" on creating the ideal conditions which would enable a child to work on himself/herself and realize his/her potential? Can we imagine a school that would stop controlling and forming people (as is inherent to management) and instead start to cultivate and protect them (as a personally-oriented education assumes)?

References

Bendl, S. (2001). *Školní kázeň: metody a strategie.* Praha: ISV.

Berne, E. (1972). *What Do You Say After You Say Hello? The Psychology of Human Destiny.* New York: Grove Press.

Buber, M. (2005). *Já a Ty.* Praha: Kalich.

Foucault, M. (1991). *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison.* London: Penguin.

Hartl, P., & Hartlová, H. (2000). *Psychologický slovník.* Praha: Portál.

Helus, Z., & Pavelková, I. (1992). Vedení žáků ke vzdělávací autoregulaci a humanizaci školy. *Pedagogika, 42*(2), 197–208.

Kaščák, O., & Pupala, B. (2009). *Výchova a vzdelávanie* v *základných diskurzoch.* Prešov: Rokus.

Levi, V. (1981). *Umění sebevlády.* Praha: Mladá fronta.

Mareš, J. (2013). *Pedagogická psychologie.* Praha: Portál.

Míček, L. (1976). *Sebevýchova a duševní zdraví.* Praha: SPN.

Průcha, J., Walterová, E., & Mareš, J. (1995). *Pedagogický slovník.* Praha: Portál.

Puchmertl, J. (2008). *Michel Foucault: fatální nedocenění významu konformity.* Praha: Triton.

Toman, J. (1980). *Jak zdokonalovat sám sebe.* Praha: Svoboda.

Uher, J. (1924). *Problém kázně.* Praha: Dědictví Komenského.

Vorlíček, Ch. (2000). *Úvod do pedagogiky.* Jinočany: H&H.

Author

PhDr. Michal Zvírotský, Ph.D., Charles University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education, Magdalény Rettigové 4, 116 39, Praha 1, e-mail: michal.zvirotsky@pedf.cuni.cz

Call for Papers: Passes and fails

in technology-based methods in educational research

The editors of Pedagogická orientace / Journal of the Czech Pedagogical Society would like to invite authors to contribute to the English special issue 4/2019 entitled *Passes and fails in technology-based methods in educational research*.

New advances in technology have provided us with new ways of looking at educational reality. Multiple new methods have been tried and tested – eye tracking technology, virtual reality, sociometric badges, etc. However, oftentimes researchers are faced with fails before the method can be implemented successfully and bring interesting and valid results.

We believe that to advance further as a research community, we need to share and draw not only on each other's findings, but also on the ways that lead to them – or not. Exploration has always been a part of research, and so have twisted paths and dead ends. Thus, in this special issue, we would like to provide space to present both the successes and the fails of using technology-based methods in educational research.

The special issue aims to address:

- affordances and benefits of using technology-based methods in educational research;
- real or potential threats, disadvantages or dead-ends of using technology-based methods;
- issues connected to using technology-based methods in laboratory settings;
- issues connected to using technology-based methods in real-life settings;
- the balance between method precision and ecological validity;
- the constraints of using technology-based methods in specific settings (classroom, outdoors etc.).

The timeframe is as follows:

- Abstracts in English language (1–2 pages long) are to be sent by 15th December 2018 to minarikova@ped.muni.cz. Please state the following: author/s and the name of the paper, type of the paper (article – 20–30 pages; discussion paper or essay – 10–15 pages), aim and content of the paper.
- The abstracts will be reviewed by the editors of the issue and the authors will be notified by 15th January 2019.
- The papers are to be submitted by 30th May 2019.
- The papers will then be subject to double-blind peer review. The authors will be notified about the results and asked for changes to their papers by 30th October 2019.
- The issue then will go through editorial and type-setting process.

Guest editors: Čeněk Šašinka, Zuzana Baričová Šmideková, Eva Minaříková

Pedagogická orientace

Journal of the Czech Pedagogical Society

Pedagogická orientace is a peer reviewed scholarly journal which aims to support the development of pedagogical thinking. It comprises articles on current issues in theory and practice in education, curriculum and instruction, educational psychology, educational research, educational policy and teacher education. The Journal provides a forum for distinguished authors as well as young researchers from within the Czech Pedagogical Society as well as from outside.

ČESKÁ PEDAGOGICKÁ SPOLEČNOST

9 771211 466008