



Department
for Education

Research Report DFE-RR218

Pupil behaviour in schools in England

**Education Standards Analysis and Research
Division**

The views expressed in this report are the authors' and do not necessarily reflect those of the Department for Education.

Executive summary

Aim

The aim of this topic note is to bring together the evidence around pupil behaviour in schools in England. It examines what is known about the nature and standard of behaviour in English schools; the impact of poor behaviour on pupils and teachers; and what schools and teachers can do to promote good pupil behaviour. Where possible it also draws on international evidence to compare what is happening in England with other nations or to expand the available research.

Summary of key findings

Chapter 2: The standard and nature of pupil behaviour in school

- According to Ofsted inspection data, the majority of schools have Good or Outstanding levels of behaviour. As at December 2011, 92.3% of all schools in England were judged Good or Outstanding for standards of behaviour. A further 7.5% were judged Satisfactory and less than one per cent (0.3%) were judged Inadequate (Ofsted, 2012).
- There is some variation by school type, where 93.9% of primary schools, 84.4% of secondary schools, 92.9% of special schools and 83.2% of Pupil Referral Units (PRUs) were judged by Ofsted to have Good or Outstanding standards of behaviour.
- There is mixed evidence on the extent of poor behaviour reported by teachers. Surveys of teachers show that pupils are mainly regarded as behaving well, with around 70% reporting good behaviour (NFER, 2012, forthcoming; NFER, 2008; Wilson et al, 2007; COI, 2005). However, another earlier survey showed 69% of members of the National Union of Teachers (NUT) reported experiencing disruptive behaviour weekly or more frequently (Neill, 2001).
- Defining poor behaviour is not straightforward and there are many alternative definitions (Cameron, 1998; Watkins and Wagner, 2000; Beaman et al, 2007).
- The types of classroom misbehaviour regularly cited in the literature range in nature from (most commonly) low-level misbehaviour through to much rarer assaults on pupils and staff. Much of the literature suggests that it is 'low-level' frequent disruption that is the most common form of pupil misbehaviour (ATL, 2010; ATL, 2011; Munn et al, 2004 and Scottish Executive 2006, both cited in Hallam and Rogers, 2008; Continental Research, 2004, Ofsted, 2005).
- Evidence from Ofsted suggests that although verbal or physical abuse aimed at pupils does occur, it is less frequently directed towards teachers and extreme acts of violence in schools are very rare (Ofsted, 2005).
- There are some reports of violence or threats directed at teachers from union surveys (e.g. ATL, 2010; Neill, 2001) but there is no direct evidence on the number of incidents in schools.

- Surveys have shown that between a fifth and just over a quarter of children report being bullied in school but violence or physical aggression are less commonly reported (Hoare et al, 2011; Chamberlain et al, 2010; Green et al, 2010).
- The evidence on changes in pupil behaviour over time is mixed, with no conclusive perceptions of behaviour improving or worsening over time. Perceptions of changes over time differ according to the phase of schooling and the role of staff within schools (NFER, 2008; NFER, 2012; Neill, 2001; Derrington, 2008; COI, 2005; ATL, 2011).
- The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) showed that disruptive pupil behaviour in the classroom is perceived by head teachers to be the most frequently occurring problem for most countries. However, there was a geographical difference in reports of disruptive behaviour with the US, England, Scotland and Italy reporting higher rates than Japan and the Russian Federation (Miller et al, 2009).
- International studies also differ on whether independent schools have a better disciplinary climate than state-funded schools (OECD 2009, 2010 and 2011b).

Chapter 3: Pupils' perceptions and characteristics

- Surveys of children and young people have shown that they see behaviour in their schools as generally good (BMG Research, 2008) but a majority state that there is disruption to their learning (Chamberlain et al, 2010; Ofsted, 2007 and 2008; Chamberlain et al, 2011; DfES, 2003).
- International evidence shows that pupils in other countries perceive varying levels of disruption to lessons. The OECD average for answering 'never or hardly ever' or 'in some lessons' to the statement 'The teacher has to wait a long time for students to quieten down' was 72%. The United Kingdom proportion was similar to the OECD average, Japan had the highest figure (93%) and Greece and Argentina the lowest figures at 62% (OECD, 2011a).
- Characteristics of pupils showing challenging behaviour include those with Special Educational Needs (SEN); those joining the school at times other than the usual admission points; pupils being looked after by a Local Authority and pupils with poor language and social skills (Ofsted, 2005). Other groups with higher levels of self-reported misbehaviour and poorer social-behavioural outcomes (measured by hyperactivity, anti-social behaviour, pro-social behaviour and self-regulation) include boys; those from disadvantaged families or with multiple risk factors; and those from disadvantaged neighbourhoods (Sammons et al, 2008a; Sylva et al, 2012; Sabates and Dex, 2012).
- Studies have estimated that between 5% and 8% of younger children¹ in Britain have serious behaviour problems and a further 6% are clinically borderline² (Hansen et al (Eds), 2010; Bradshaw and Tipping, 2010). In

¹ Studies of children aged seven years or younger.

² Using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, both studies calculated an overall 'total difficulties' score. For the MCS, scores between 14 and 16 were classified as borderline, and scores of 17 and above were classified as serious behaviour problems (Hansen et al (Eds),

addition, the children's psychiatric morbidity surveys of 1999 and 2004 estimated that 5% to 6% of children and young people in Great Britain had clinically significant conduct disorders - characterised by awkward, troublesome, aggressive and antisocial behaviours (Meltzer et al, 2000; Green et al, 2005; Tennant et al, 2007).

- In England, there are 158,000 pupils in mainstream state-funded primary, secondary and special schools with a primary SEN of behavioural, emotional and social difficulties (BESD) (DfE, 2011a). In recent years there has been a rise in BESD (from 1.7% of all pupils in 2004 to 2.1% in 2011) (DfES, 2004; DfE, 2011a).
- Of pupils with statements, those with BESD were most likely to be: boys; older pupils (aged 11-15); in receipt of free school meals (FSM); and looked after children. At School Action Plus, Black and mixed race pupils were more likely to have BESD as their primary SEN type of need (DfE, 2011a).

Chapter 4: Consequences of poor behaviour

- Results from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) indicate that most pupils enjoy orderly classrooms in the 65 countries and economies who participated, with the majority reporting that they attend classrooms where they feel they can work well most of the time (OECD, 2010). In England, the PISA results were similar to the OECD averages for most questions, with the majority reporting orderly classrooms.
- However, PISA results also showed that a sizeable minority reported some disruption in classrooms – for example, 31% of pupils in England felt that 'in most or all lessons' that 'there is noise and disorder' (Bradshaw et al, 2010).
- According to the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), up to 25% of teachers in most of the 23 countries surveyed report losing at least 30% of their lesson time to disruptions or administrative tasks, with an international average of 13% of teacher time spent on maintaining order in the classroom (OECD, 2010).
- Analysis of data from the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) shows that after controlling for a wide range of pupil and school factors self-reported misbehaviour in most classes has a negative impact on predicted Key Stage 4 (KS4) attainment: predicting a capped GCSE score of 29 points fewer than those who did not report their own misbehaviour (equivalent to gaining one grade lower in five subjects).
- Analysis shows that after controlling for a range of factors there are some associations between reports of self and others' misbehaviour and being not in education, employment or training (NEET) between the ages of 16 and 18: for example, misbehaviour or troublemaking by others in classes was amongst factors associated with being NEET at age 17.
- LSYPE data also show associations between self-reported misbehaviour (at age 14) and both intentions towards staying on in education post-16 and actual destination at age 18. For example, pupils who self-reported

2010; Bradshaw and Tipping, 2010).

their own frequent misbehaviour in class at age 14 were less likely to say at that time that they intended to stay on in full-time education after age 16.

- There is evidence to suggest that individuals who display problematic behaviour in childhood or adolescence, for example through having a conduct disorder, are more likely to have few, or no, educational qualifications in later life (Richards et al, 2009; Colman et al, 2009).
- In the latest data available (2009/10 academic year), there were 5,740 permanent exclusions from maintained primary, state-funded secondary and special schools in England. This translates to an exclusion rate of 0.08% for all pupils. For the same period, there were 331,380 fixed period exclusions, a rate of 4.46% for all pupils (DfE, 2012b).
- The most common reason recorded for all exclusions for all types of school in 2009/10 was persistent disruptive behaviour, which accounted for 29.0% of permanent exclusions and 23.8% of fixed period exclusions (DfE, 2012b).
- Issues around pupil behaviour and discipline may also impact on teacher recruitment (Barmby, 2006) and retention (House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2004; Smithers and Robinson, 2003; Hobson et al, 2009). Although it should be noted that other factors, such as teacher workload and pay, were often found to be more influential in teacher recruitment and retention than pupil behaviour.
- There is some evidence to suggest that poor pupil behaviour may also impact negatively on teachers' stress levels and mental and physical health (ATL, 2008 and 2009).

Chapter 5: The role of schools in improving behaviour

- Studies (mainly in the US) have shown that there is a positive link between school climate (beliefs, values and attitudes) and pupil behaviour (LeBlanc et al, 2007; Chen, 2007; McEvoy and Welker, 2000). However, the exact extent and nature of the relationship remains disputed.
- Analysis of the Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE) 3-14 study showed that a poor school behaviour climate as perceived by pupils was a significant predictor of poorer social-behavioural outcomes in Year 9 and of poorer social-behavioural developmental progress between Year 6 and Year 9 (Sylva et al, 2012).
- School climate is also linked in the literature to the effectiveness of school leadership (Day et al, 2009).
- In the literature, there is a distinction made between proactive approaches (those that aim to prevent bad behaviour) and reactive approaches (those that deal with bad behaviour after it has happened) to discipline. However, the evidence suggests that combining aspects of both approaches is particularly effective. For example, the use of both (proactive) clear and consistent rules and (reactive) disciplinary policies are required to ensure that pupils know what behaviour is expected of them and what the consequences are of not meeting these expectations (Roy Mayer, 2002; Gottfredson, 1997, quoted in Skiba and Peterson, 2003; Scott, 2012).
- Gregory et al (2010) propose an authoritative approach to improving behaviour, with both structure (involving consistent and fair enforcement of

- The LSYPE included questions on pupils' attitudes towards the number of rules and level of discipline in their school. Around three-fifths of pupils thought their schools had the right number of rules and level of discipline.
- Analysis of data from LSYPE shows that after controlling for a wide range of pupil and school factors pupils who thought that discipline in their school was not strict enough were predicted to get a capped GCSE score of six points more than those who thought the level of discipline was about right (equivalent to gaining one grade higher in one subject).
- There is evidence that in-school provision for pupil behaviour management, such as learning support units, removal rooms and internal exclusions may result in positive pupil outcomes (Ofsted, 2006; Ofsted, 2003a, Hallam and Castle, 2001; Wakefield 2004, Becker et al, 2004).
- A review of the evidence on effective strategies for children with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) in mainstream education showed some evidence of effectiveness for children of primary age for strategies based on behavioural models (including reward systems). Approaches based on cognitive behavioural models showed positive effects for children aged between eight and 12 (including counselling programmes, social skills training and a role-reversal programme) (Evans et al, 2003).
- Other school-level strategies shown in the literature to improve pupil behaviour to a lesser or greater extent include: the use of token systems for delivering rewards and sanctions; arranging seating in rows and the use of seating plans; and the use of support staff (Blatchford et al, 2009; Evans et al, 2003; Wannarka and Ruhl, 2008; Ofsted, 2005). The evidence on the effect of school uniforms is mixed (Brunsmas and Rockquemore, 1998; Han, 2010).
- The direct involvement of parents with their child's school (e.g. through meetings with teachers or volunteering in school) has also been shown to be positively related to their child's behaviour (Pomerantz et al, 2007).

Chapter 6: The role of teachers in promoting good behaviour

- Analysis of data from the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) for this topic note, shows that although there is a relationship between perceptions of teacher discipline (at age 14) and later attainment, once a range of factors are controlled for only some aspects of teacher classroom management continue to have a link with Key Stage 4 attainment.
- Analysis of the Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE) 3-14 study does not show a relationship between teacher discipline factors and social-behavioural outcomes. However, it does show that pupils' views on the quality of teachers' support for pupils predicted improved self-regulation and reduced hyperactivity in Year 9 and better social-behavioural progress during Key Stage 3 (KS3) (Sylva et al, 2012).
- Over 70% of NQTs report that their Initial Teacher Training (ITT) had prepared them to establish and maintain a good standard of classroom

behaviour (TDA, 2011). Teachers with more than five years' experience were less likely than NQTs and less experienced teachers to rate the behaviour training during their ITT as 'good or very good' (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).

- Now somewhat dated reports by Ofsted showed mixed inspection evidence and concerns about the quality of the behaviour management content of ITT courses (Ofsted, 2005, 2003b and 2003c).
- In a 2012 survey of 1,600 serving teachers, half of respondents agreed that appropriate training was available for teachers in their school who were struggling to manage pupil behaviour. A quarter of respondents disagreed (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).
- In the TALIS survey, 'student discipline and behaviour' was the third most frequently cited area in which surveyed teachers reported a development need (OECD, 2009).
- The results of the 2012 NFER survey showed that a range of strategies were used by respondents to manage pupil behaviour. Those used most often included praising desired behaviour; having a system to follow through with sanctions; and using a reward system (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).
- Key strategies identified in the literature for effective classroom management include: providing structure through teacher directed activity and classroom design; establishing clear rules and expectations (whether for individuals or the whole class); reinforcing positive behaviour and providing consequences for negative behaviour (e.g. removing rewards or tokens; withholding attention if pupils are exhibiting undesired behaviours; removing pupils from environments that reinforce negative behaviours); providing specific feedback and establishing high-quality teacher relationships. Using a combination of strategies is also a theme of the literature (Simonsen et al, 2008; Stage and Quiroz, 1997; Swinson and Knight, 2007; Marzano and Marzano, 2003; Pinta and Stuhlman, 2004; Thomas et al, 2011).

Glossary

ATL	: Association of Teachers and Lecturers
CPD	: Continuing Professional Development
DfE	: Department for Education
EPP(S)E	: Effective Pre-School, Primary (and Secondary) Education Project
FSM	: Free School Meals
IDACI	: Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index
ITT	: Initial Teacher Training
KS1	: Key Stage 1
KS2	: Key Stage 2
KS3	: Key Stage 3
KS4	: Key Stage 4
LA	: Local Authority
LSYPE	: Longitudinal Study of Young People in England
NASUWT	: National Union of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers
NPD	: National Pupil Database
NQT	: Newly Qualified Teacher
NS-SEC	: National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification
OECD	: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSTED	: Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills
PISA	: Programme for International Student Assessment
SEN	: Special Educational Needs ³
SFR	: Statistical First Release
TALIS	: Teaching and Learning International Survey
TIMSS	: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

³ The three categories of SEN are: School Action – a teacher identifies a child with SEN and provides interventions; School Action Plus – as with school action, but with help from external Services; Statemented – the Local Authority provides a written statement of SEN for the child.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Aim

The aim of this topic note is to bring together the evidence around pupil behaviour in schools in England. It examines what is known about the nature and standard of behaviour in English schools; the impact of poor behaviour on pupils and teachers and what schools and teachers can do to promote good pupil behaviour. Where possible it also draws on international evidence to compare what is happening in England with other nations or to expand the available research.

Much of the evidence in this topic note was brought together during the development of the White Paper “The Importance of Teaching” (DfE, 2010a) and to support the progress of the Education Act 2011. The context for this note is therefore the emphasis on behaviour in education policy. In addition, the approach taken in the White Paper was to make information available to schools to enable them to choose for themselves how best to improve attainment and address issues such as pupil behaviour.

This note is not intended to be a regular publication and aims only to provide a current view of behaviour based on evidence available at the time of writing.

Scope

The literature shows that there are a range of factors (often interlinked) which are associated with pupil behaviour. These range from parenting styles; parental background and family characteristics and circumstances (including social disadvantage), through to pupil temperament and pupil characteristics such as gender or social or emotional disorders; through to school and classroom level factors such as school climate and teacher classroom-management (Atzaba-Poria et al, 2004; Green et al, 2005; McEvoy and Welker, 2000).

Due to the vast range of the subject matter, this topic note is only concerned with pupil behaviour in school and will focus on what schools and teachers can do to promote good behaviour. Therefore, this topic note will only touch on issues such as parenting, parental involvement and early interventions within the context of what schools can do to improve behaviour once children have started attending school.

There are other factors relevant to pupil behaviour that will not be extensively discussed in this note. These are as follows:

- **Bullying:** Bullying is included in the research evidence describing the nature of misbehaviour and levels of violence. However, this note will not go into detail about the characteristics of victims of bullying or specific interventions to reduce or prevent bullying. For further evidence on the characteristics of victims of bullying, see Green et al (2010).

- **Alternative provision (AP):** Alternative provision is educational provision for pupils outside of mainstream schools. Pupils may be in AP for a range of reasons including medical needs (including teenage mothers); not being able to cope in mainstream schools, or being temporarily without a school place. However, it is estimated that just under half of the pupils in AP are permanent excludees or those at risk of exclusion (DCSF, 2008). The chapter in this topic note on the consequences of poor behaviour touches upon the impact of being placed in AP as a result of poor behaviour; it does not go into detail about the nature of provision and outcomes for pupils placed in AP for poor behaviour or other reasons.

Data sources

Much of this topic note describes existing analysis and research on pupil behaviour, whether previously published by the DfE or other organisations and academics. Where possible, new previously unpublished analysis is also included. In particular, new analyses of data from the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) are presented in Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6. More information on the LSYPE and the data included in the analysis e.g. from the National Pupil Database (NPD) are described in further detail in Annex A.

Chapter Outlines

This section gives a brief outline of the nature and content of the topic note chapters. In addition, each chapter has its own key findings section.

Chapter 2: The standard and nature of behaviour in schools

This chapter outlines the current research on the standard of pupil behaviour in schools and the nature of that behaviour. The level of pupil behaviour is described using Ofsted inspection data and the perceptions of teachers and other school staff. This chapter also describes teacher perceptions of changes in the standard of behaviour over time. It includes evidence on what constitutes pupil misbehaviour in schools (including pupil bullying and violence towards teachers) and what teachers view as the most problematic types of behaviours. The chapter ends with international evidence on teachers' and head teachers' views of the level and types of misbehaviour and the evidence on behaviour in independent schools.

Chapter 3: Pupils' perceptions and characteristics

This chapter looks at the national and international evidence on pupils' self-reported or observed misbehaviour and the characteristics of pupils with higher levels of misbehaviour. It includes evidence on pupils' perceptions of other pupils' behaviour; links with Special Educational Needs; and the extent of conduct and other behaviour disorders.

Chapter 4: Consequences of poor behaviour

This chapter looks at the short and long-term impact of poor behaviour, including the impact on:

- Misbehaving pupils (their attainment; links with disengagement; associations with attendance, employment and higher education outcomes);
- Pupils with conduct disorders (long-term outcomes and life consequences);
- Other pupils (lost teaching time and the impact on their attainment);
- Teachers (stress; job satisfaction; recruitment and retention); and
- Exclusion from school (briefly looks at the evidence on rates of exclusion and the reasons why schools exclude pupils).

Chapter 5: The role of schools in improving behaviour

This chapter describes the evidence on the associations with behaviour at the school level and what works at the school level to influence pupil behaviour.

The main areas covered are:

- School climate, including the links with school leadership;
- The association between the perception of rules and discipline and attainment;
- School-level strategies to improve behaviour;
- Specific punishments/reactive measures; and
- Working with parents.

Chapter 6: The role of teachers in promoting good behaviour

This chapter outlines the importance of teachers in maintaining good behaviour. It looks at pupils' perceptions of teacher classroom management and the association between these and later attainment. The chapter also includes evidence on teacher training in behaviour management and teachers' use of powers to discipline. It finishes with an assessment of the effectiveness of different classroom management techniques.

June 2012

Chapter 2: The standard and nature of behaviour in school

Key findings

- According to Ofsted inspection data, the majority of schools have Good or Outstanding levels of behaviour. As at December 2011, 92.3% of all schools in England were judged Good or Outstanding for standards of behaviour. A further 7.5% were judged Satisfactory and less than one per cent (0.3%) were judged Inadequate (Ofsted, 2012).
- There is some variation by school type, where 93.9% of primary schools, 84.4% of secondary schools, 92.9% of special schools and 83.2% of Pupil Referral Units (PRUs) were judged by Ofsted to have Good or Outstanding standards of behaviour.
- There is mixed evidence on the extent of poor behaviour reported by teachers. Surveys of teachers show that pupils are mainly regarded as behaving well, with around 70% reporting good behaviour (NFER, 2012, forthcoming; NFER, 2008; Wilson et al, 2007; COI, 2005). However, another earlier survey showed 69% of members of the National Union of Teachers (NUT) reported experiencing disruptive behaviour weekly or more frequently (Neill, 2001).
- Defining poor behaviour is not straightforward and there are many alternative definitions (Cameron, 1998; Watkins and Wagner, 2000; Beaman et al, 2007).
- The types of classroom misbehaviour regularly cited in the literature range in nature from (most commonly) low-level misbehaviour through to much rarer assaults on pupils and staff. Much of the literature suggests that it is 'low-level' frequent disruption that is the most common form of pupil misbehaviour (ATL, 2010; ATL, 2011; Munn et al, 2004 and Scottish Executive, 2006 both cited in Hallam and Rogers, 2008; Continental Research, 2004; Ofsted, 2005).
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- There are some reports of violence or threats directed at teachers from union surveys (e.g. ATL, 2010; Neill, 2001) but there is no direct evidence on the number of incidents in schools.
- Surveys have shown that between a fifth and just over a quarter of children report being bullied in school but violence or physical aggression are less commonly reported (Hoare et al, 2011; Chamberlain et al, 2010).
- The evidence on changes in pupil behaviour over time is mixed, with no conclusive perceptions of behaviour improving or worsening over time. Perceptions of changes over time differ according to the phase of schooling and the role of staff within schools (NFER, 2008; NFER, 2012; Neill, 2001; Derrington, 2008; COI, 2005; ATL, 2011).
- The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) showed that disruptive pupil behaviour in the classroom is perceived by head teachers to be the most frequently occurring problem for most countries. However, there was a geographical difference in reports of

disruptive behaviour with the US, England, Scotland and Italy reporting higher rates than Japan and the Russian Federation (Miller et al, 2009).

- International studies also differ on whether independent schools have a better disciplinary climate than state-funded schools (OECD 2009, 2010 and 2011b).

Introduction

This chapter outlines recent research on the standard and nature of pupil behaviour in school.

2.1 Ofsted data on the level of behaviour in schools

The starting point for gaining an overview of the national level of behaviour in schools in England is the inspection data published by Ofsted. Although commentators have queried the robustness of the behaviour data when compared with teachers' perceptions (House of Commons Education Select Committee, 2010), this remains the only national source of statistical data on pupil behaviour in schools. Annex A provides more detailed information on the Ofsted behaviour inspection judgements and the changes in the framework over time.

Ofsted publish their inspection judgements, which list the outcomes for those schools inspected in a given period. Schools are awarded grades for the behaviour of their learners on a scale from 1-4 (where 1= Outstanding; 2= Good; 3= Satisfactory; 4=Inadequate). For maintained schools⁴ with a most recent inspection as at 31st December 2011, the latest figures showed that 92.3% of all schools in England were judged Good or Outstanding for standards of behaviour. A further 7.5% were judged Satisfactory and less than one per cent (0.3%) were judged Inadequate (Table 2.1) (Ofsted, 2012)⁵.

When looking at school type, there is some variation, where 93.9% of primary schools, 84.4% of secondary schools, 92.9% of special schools and 83.2% of Pupil Referral Units (PRUs) were judged by Ofsted to have Good or Outstanding standards of behaviour. At the other end of the scale, there is also a difference by school type where secondary schools and PRUs are more likely to have Satisfactory or Inadequate grades: 14.9% of secondary schools and 15.8% of PRUs were judged Satisfactory and 0.7% and one per cent respectively were judged Inadequate (Ofsted, 2012).

Comparisons in the level of pupil behaviour over time are very difficult due to the fact that Ofsted's inspection framework and the cycle of inspections have changed several times. These changes mean that it is not advisable to compare judgements between years as the differences in the level of behaviour may be a result of the modified framework rather than any *real change* in the standards of behaviour. Further detail on the changes in the inspection framework are shown in Annex A.

⁴ Nursery schools are excluded from the figures in this note.

⁵ These are provisional figures published March 2012.

Table 2.1: Ofsted behaviour grades by school type as at December 2011 (1)

	Behaviour grade at most recent Ofsted inspection as at December 2011 ⁽²⁾⁽³⁾⁽⁴⁾			
	Outstanding	Good	Satisfactory	Inadequate
Maintained Primary, Secondary, Special and Pupil Referral Units	35.9	56.4	7.5	0.3
Maintained Primary schools	36.7	57.2	6.0	0.1
Maintained Secondary schools	27.9	56.5	14.9	0.7
Maintained Special schools	50.4	42.5	6.4	0.7
Pupil Referral Units	25.1	58.1	15.8	1.0

Source: Ofsted inspection judgements (see also Annex A).

(1) Includes middle deemed primaries and secondaries, academies and city technology colleges

(2) The latest behaviour grade has been given for inspections that have taken place since September 2005 up to 31 December 2011. Data are provisional.

(3) Only schools open at 31 December 2011 have been included. Sponsor-led academies are treated as new schools and are therefore only included in the data if they have had an Ofsted inspection since opening. Converter academies are treated differently in the data. If a converter academy has not been inspected since conversion then the most recent judgement for the predecessor school is included in the data. Some schools may have had an inspection but no numerical behaviour grade was given. In this case the inspection and school have been excluded from the analysis, along with schools with no inspection data.

(4) The data includes inspections carried out under the old Section 5 framework (for inspections carried out prior to September 2009) and the new Section 8 deemed 5 framework. The inspection data also include outcomes from pilot inspections.

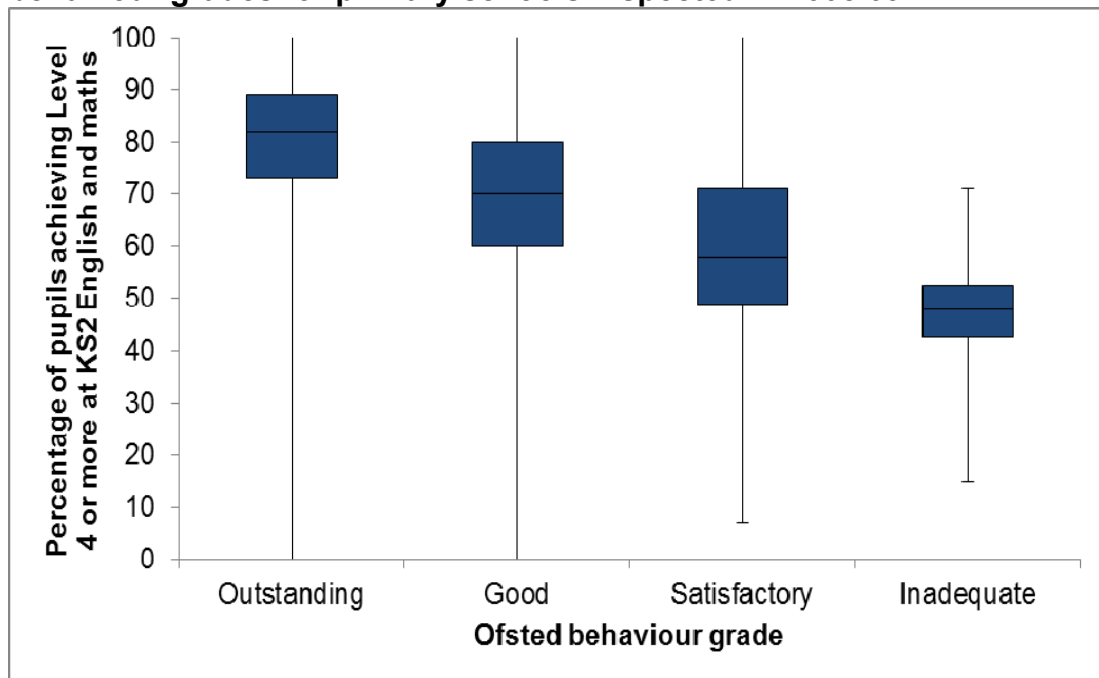
2.1.1 Links between Ofsted behaviour grades and school-level attainment or eligibility for Free School Meals

Analysis was carried out linking Ofsted behaviour grades (Outstanding, Good, Satisfactory, and Inadequate) for schools inspected in the period 2008/09, to the attainment level or Free School Meals (FSM) eligibility for that school in the same year. Charts 2.1 to 2.4, show box and whisker plots of Ofsted behaviour grades by school-level attainment or FSM. The horizontal lines within each box show the median percentage of pupils achieving the relevant attainment level or who are eligible for FSM. The top and bottom of the boxes give the range of percentages within which the middle fifty per cent of pupils lie (25th and 75th percentiles). The extremes of each vertical line (or whiskers) show the maximum and minimum values in each behaviour grade.

Chart 2.1 shows that primary schools with good or outstanding behaviour judgements have on average higher percentages of pupils achieving level 4⁶ or above in English and maths at Key Stage 2, compared with schools with satisfactory or inadequate behaviour judgements.

⁶ Level 4 is the expected standard of attainment in Key Stage 2 (Holmlund et al, 2008)

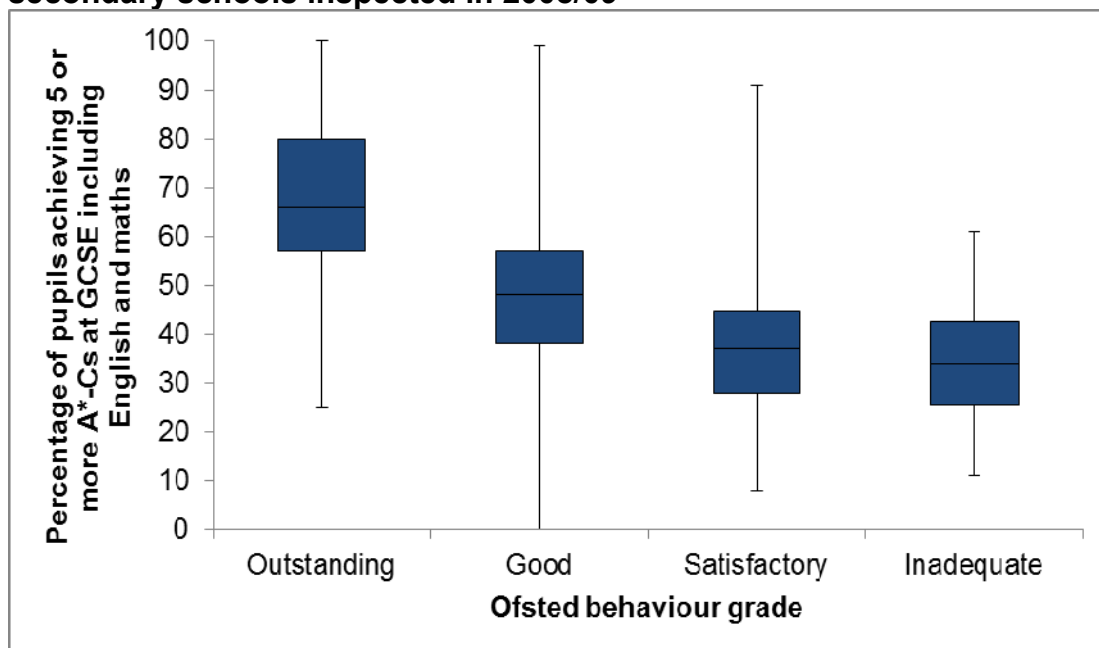
Chart 2.1: Key Stage 2 achievement in English and maths by Ofsted behaviour grades for primary schools inspected in 2008/09



Source: Ofsted inspection judgements 2008/09

For secondary schools the pattern was similar; schools judged Good or Outstanding had higher average percentages of pupils achieving 5 or more A*-Cs (including English and maths) at GCSE level compared with secondary schools with poorer judgements (Chart 2.2).

Chart 2.2: Key Stage 4 achievement by Ofsted behaviour grades for secondary schools inspected in 2008/09

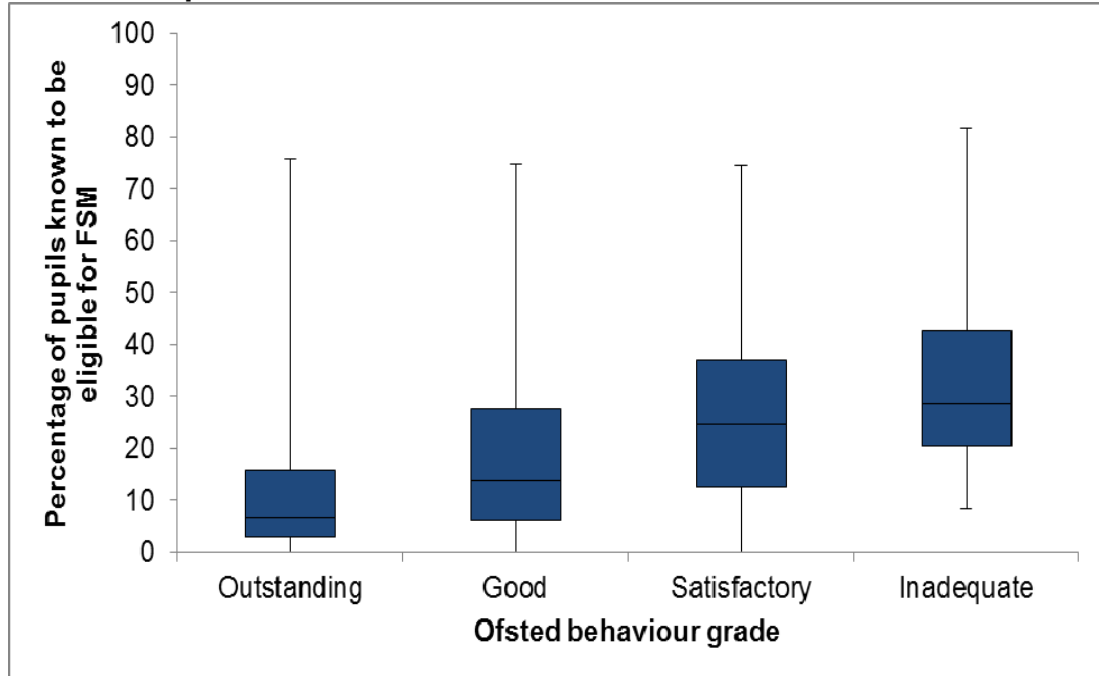


Source: Ofsted inspection judgements 2008/09

Similar analysis was also carried out linking Ofsted behaviour judgements and the percentage of pupils in the same school known to be eligible for FSM. For

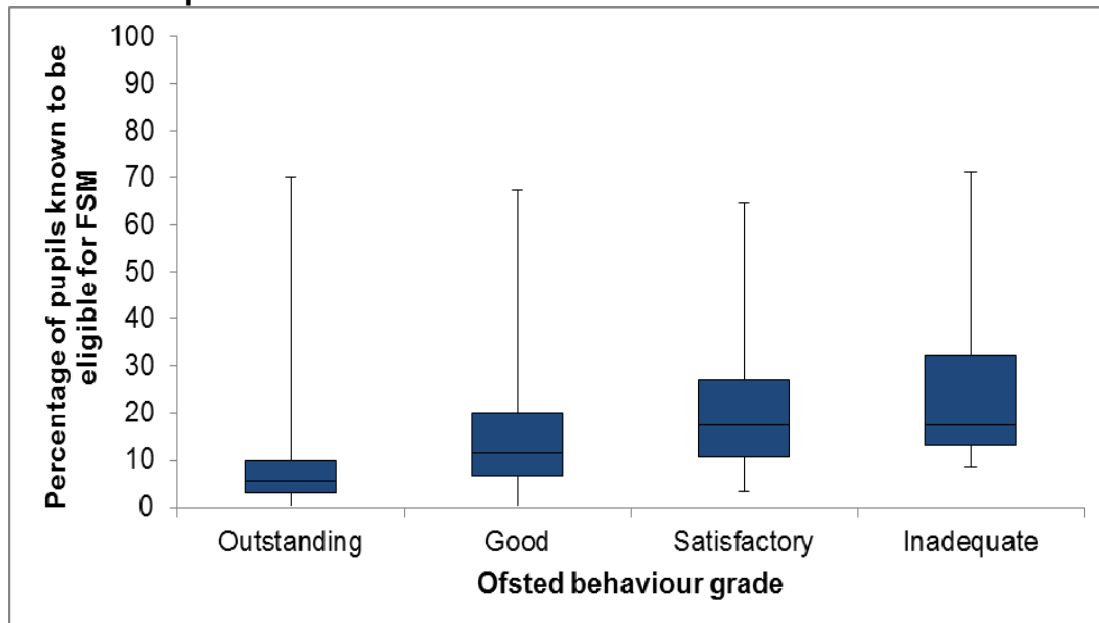
both primary and secondary schools, there was an association between a school's behaviour judgement and their FSM eligibility, with schools with Good or Outstanding behaviour judgements having lower average percentages of FSM pupils (Charts 2.3 and 2.4).

Chart 2.3: FSM eligibility by Ofsted behaviour grades for primary schools inspected in 2008/09



Source: Ofsted inspection judgements 2008/09

Chart 2.4: FSM eligibility by Ofsted behaviour grades for secondary schools inspected in 2008/09



Source: Ofsted inspection judgements 2008/09

The next stage of this analysis was to investigate whether a link existed between Ofsted behaviour judgements and school-level attainment, after

controlling for factors such as the proportion of FSM pupils in a school. A linear regression analysis was undertaken on the behaviour judgements for primary and secondary schools that were inspected by Ofsted during 2008/09 (excluding pilot inspections). Please note that these findings **cannot prove any causation** or the direction of the relationship between Ofsted judgements and school-level attainment, instead they show the nature of the relationship between these two factors.

For secondary schools, after controlling for a range of factors (including KS2 attainment, deprivation, level of Special Educational Needs and other Ofsted judgements such as 'how well do learners achieve' etc.), the model found that a school's Ofsted behaviour judgement has a statistically significant relationship with good attainment at KS4, specifically:

- The difference between a school with an Outstanding behaviour judgement compared with a school with a Good behaviour judgement is worth just four GCSE points (i.e. half a subject grade per pupil)⁷.
- The difference between a school with an Outstanding behaviour judgement compared with a school with a Satisfactory or Inadequate behaviour judgement is worth more than nine GCSE points (i.e. a whole extra subject grade per pupil).

For primary schools, using a similar model, it was again found that a school's Ofsted behaviour judgement had a statistically significant relationship with good KS2 attainment, but the impact was smaller:

- The difference between a school with an Outstanding behaviour judgement compared with a school with a Good behaviour judgement is worth 0.1 of a National Curriculum point – the equivalent of just over a week's extra progress⁸.
- The difference between a school with an Outstanding behaviour judgement compared with a school with a Satisfactory or Inadequate behaviour judgement is worth 0.2 of a National Curriculum point – the equivalent of around two weeks' extra progress.

2.2 Defining problematic behaviour

Before looking at teacher and school staff perceptions of pupil behaviour in schools as an alternative to the Ofsted data, we should look at what defines behaviour that is seen as being problematic in school.

The literature identifies a wide range of behaviour that can be viewed as problematic. Much of the discussion over definitions revolves around what is perceived to be disruptive, which includes both perceptions of the frequency

⁷ To interpret these figures, one grade in one GCSE subject is worth six points (DfE, 2012a).

⁸ National Curriculum levels are worth 6 points each. Pupils are expected to make one level of progress every two years. Therefore, three points are equivalent to one year's progress and (as there are three terms in a year) one point is equal to one term's progress. In this modelling, the difference between Outstanding and Good schools is 0.1 National Curriculum points, which (using the reasoning above) is equal to 0.1 of a term, which is actually just over 1 week's progress.

of certain behaviours along with their seriousness. Another issue which is raised by some researchers is that of context, which can in turn affect the perception of the types and seriousness of behaviours.

Cameron (1998) reviews classifications of problematic pupil behaviour in schools, and of strategies and techniques employed to address these behaviours. As part of this, he proposes a grouping of disruptive behaviour into five categories:

- 1) aggressive behaviour (e.g. hitting, pulling hair, kicking, pushing, using abusive language);
- 2) physically disruptive behaviour (e.g. smashing, damaging or defacing objects, throwing objects, physically annoying other pupils);
- 3) socially disruptive behaviour (e.g. screaming, running away, exhibiting temper tantrums);
- 4) authority-challenging behaviour (e.g. refusing to carry out requests, exhibiting defiant verbal and non-verbal behaviour, using pejorative language);
- 5) self-disruptive behaviour (e.g. daydreaming, reading under the desk).
(Cameron, 1998 p2).

Moreover, 'frequency, magnitude and multi-category characteristics' are noted as important dimensions which determine the severity of 'bad' behaviour. With the possible exception of category five, above, Cameron's (1998) categorisations portray a group of behaviours which may be seen fairly unequivocally as problematic, and obviously disruptive. However, in an alternative review of evidence on school behaviour and of effective interventions, Watkins and Wagner (2000) describe low-level disruption as one of the most frequently occurring troublesome behaviours, with 'talking out of turn' being mentioned by teachers as being particularly difficult to deal with (Watkins and Wagner, 2000 p1).

The setting or context of misbehaviour is also an issue for some researchers who use it to assist in their definition or describe the context as integral to how others define misbehaviour. Finn et al (2008) create a distinction between classroom misbehaviour or indiscipline (including disrupting instruction and failing to complete assignments) and misbehaviour outside the classroom (truancy, bullying and gang activity). Behaviour can be perceived as unacceptable in one setting and be quite acceptable in another setting, therefore, differences in the observer, location or situation of the incident may alter perceptions (Watkins & Wagner, 2000). For example, shouting in the playground might be acceptable but not in a classroom. Beaman et al (2007) summarise the context of misbehaviour as influencing what teachers view as most serious (i.e. those behaviours that affect teachers and their teaching practice rather than those which impact on the pupils they teach).

Definitions of 'bad' behaviour, and evidence on what constitutes the problem, therefore present a spectrum of types of conduct which are perceived to interrupt learning in schools. This spectrum can be seen as ranging from 'low-level' chatter and inattention in the classroom, to more serious actions, such as physical violence, which will also disrupt learning. This spectrum and the

context for them will influence the perceptions that are discussed in the next section.

2.3 Surveys of teachers and school staff about the standard of behaviour

The additional evidence on the standard of behaviour in schools mainly comes from surveys of teachers and other school staff, both in an academic context and on behalf of teaching services and teaching unions. Another source is the views of pupils which are covered in the next chapter.

In establishing estimates of the standard of behaviour or classroom disruption, surveys reference not only the standard but also the main types of poor pupil behaviour experienced by teachers as it affects themselves, their ability to teach and their pupils. The types of poor behaviour most commonly experienced are also described in the following section.

The evidence for the extent of poor behaviour as measured by teachers is mixed. At the lowest level, only 2% of calls and e-mails to the charity Teacher Support Network are said to focus on pupil indiscipline (Teacher Support Network, 2008). However, other surveys have shown a range of perceptions by teachers and other school staff of the standard of behaviour in schools.

A survey of over 1,600 serving secondary and primary teachers from the maintained sector in England found that although 76% of teachers rated pupil behaviour in their school as either 'good' or 'very good', 5% rated it as 'poor' and a further 1% as 'very poor' (NFER, 2012, forthcoming). Furthermore, there was a difference between the perceptions of primary and secondary teachers:

- Only 22% of secondary teachers said that pupil behaviour was 'very good', compared with 35% of primary teachers;
- Twenty-six per cent of secondary teachers said pupil behaviour could be rated as 'acceptable' at their school, compared with 14% of primary colleagues;
- Seven per cent of secondary teachers said that pupil behaviour was 'poor' compared with just 4% of primary teachers; and
- Teachers with more experience were also more positive about pupil behaviour.

The findings from the forthcoming 2012 NFER survey are similar (although more positive) to those from an earlier NFER survey from 2008. In this survey, 70% of teachers rated pupil behaviour as either 'good' or 'very good' and primary teachers and those with more experience were more positive about pupil behaviour (NFER, 2008).

In a survey for the London Challenge, 70% of teachers in London and other metropolitan areas felt that pupils generally or always behaved well, although the proportion was markedly lower (about 54%) in the London Challenge's key boroughs, namely: Hackney, Haringey, Islington, Lambeth and Southwark (Wilson et al, 2007). The report concluded that the higher the level of overall

attainment of the school, the greater the proportion of teachers reporting that pupil behaviour was good, and pupil behaviour was also seen as good in smaller schools.

A survey of 2,575 teachers resident in 13 LAs across England aimed to explore respondents' experiences of discipline and behaviour encountered in their working life. This study stated that 69% of respondents reported experiencing disruptive behaviour from pupils in their lessons weekly or more frequently, and 47% of respondents reported experiencing persistent disruptive behaviour, including open defiance at least weekly (Neill, 2001). It is unclear whether the sample of teachers included in this survey was drawn from a general list of teachers or directly from membership lists from the sponsor of the survey the National Union of Teachers (NUT).

Continental Research (COI, 2005) undertook stakeholder surveys with nine waves in 2002, 2003 and 2004; head teachers, governors, support staff, and parents of children aged five to 19 who attended state education, and occasionally LA staff. Across the 2004 interviews, the majority (76%) of the respondents considered pupil behaviour to be generally good in their (child's) school, with 19% considering it to be acceptable. The survey found that in 2004 only 5% of respondents felt that behaviour was poor, and that these perceptions of pupil behaviour had remained fairly constant over the previous three years in which the survey was conducted.

However, the survey did find some variation in the perceptions of pupil behaviour amongst the different groups of staff, governors and parents. Head teachers and school governors were the most positive about pupil behaviour, with around 84% saying that behaviour was generally good. Teachers and LA staff were less positive, with 74% of teachers and 66% of LA staff saying that behaviour was generally good. However, support staff and parents were the least positive about standards of pupil behaviour, with 62% of parents and 70% of support staff reporting that they felt children were generally good, and 10% of parents and 11% of support staff believing that pupil behaviour was poor (COI, 2005).

2.4 Behaviour post-16

There is very little evidence about the standard of behaviour for those over the age of 16 who attend sixth forms and Further Education (FE) colleges. Ofsted (2005) undertook visits to an undisclosed number of FE colleges and independent specialist colleges in eight LAs in a study investigating challenging behaviour across different types of educational provision. After defining challenging behaviour as often including overtly aggressive behaviour and behaviour which defies authority in refusing to follow instructions, Ofsted reported that the proportion of students displaying challenging behaviour was very low in the FE settings visited. They reported that the proportion of pupils displaying challenging behaviour in the independent specialist colleges which catered for students with severe learning difficulties (SLD) and autism spectrum disorders (ASD) was higher.

Ofsted (2005) also claim that there were instances of students carrying knives or other potential weapons in about half of the FE or specialist colleges visited, but that the prevalence of weapon-carrying behaviour and also gang-related culture in educational settings varied regionally. The Ofsted report also highlighted drug abuse to be a potentially frequent problem encountered in college settings. In addition, the report claims that in one fifth of the FE colleges visited, a small proportion of students displaying the most difficult behaviours were reported as being involved in criminal proceedings.

2.5 Types of misbehaviour

The types of classroom misbehaviour regularly cited in the literature range in nature from low-level misbehaviour through to assaults on pupils and staff, with the former being far more frequent. Much of the literature suggests that it is 'low-level' frequent disruption that is the most common form of pupil misbehaviour (Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL), 2010; ATL, 2011; Munn et al, 2004 and Scottish Executive, 2006 both in Hallam and Rogers, 2008; Ofsted, 2005). Other areas of concern for teachers regarding pupil behaviour were minor violations of rules, and those which cause regular disruption to the management of the classroom (Hallam and Rogers, 2008). However, as more severe, one-off occurrences of unacceptable behaviour might impact significantly, and have lasting outcomes and consequences, it is difficult to reach a conclusion on the types of disruption that are most problematic.

In the Continental Research (2004) survey, stakeholders, teachers and support staff were asked which types of behaviour, from a prompted list, they found most disruptive to children's learning. Table 2.2 below, shows the combined responses for the question on types of disruptive behaviour over the four waves carried out between November 2002 and November 2003.

Table 2.2: Pupil behaviour believed to be most disruptive to children's learning

	Constant low-level (%)	Inattentive behaviour (%)	Verbal aggression (%)	Non - attendance (%)	Actual violence (%)	Bullying (%)	Total Sample Size (N)
Teachers	71	65	36	26	16	16	1395
Support staff	62	61	36	25	14	21	444

Source: Continental Research (2004). Stakeholder tracking survey (2002 and 2003).

Note: Respondents were able to give more than one answer, so percentages do not sum to 100%.

Overall, constant low-level disruption such as chatting and leaving seats without permission was most commonly reported as a problem by both teachers and support staff – with almost three in four teachers and two in three support staff reporting this as an issue. Inattentive behaviour was the next most commonly reported problem by both groups, with almost two-thirds of respondents reporting this as an issue. Just over a third of respondents (both teachers and support staff) highlighted verbal aggression as an issue,

while a quarter of respondents reported non-attendance and a sixth of respondents reported actual violence as problem areas.

Much of the recent evidence on teachers' perceptions of pupil misbehaviour in England has come from surveys conducted by teaching unions. Since the samples are often drawn from union membership lists rather than the whole population of teachers, there is a possible bias in the results. However, the similarity of these findings to those in the academic research suggests that this bias is less important than it might be in other contexts. One recent example of a union-based survey of teachers conducted by the Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL) in 2011 showed that 70% of their members who responded to the survey viewed low-level disruption (talking, not paying attention, horsing around) as the most common form of challenging behaviour (respondents could choose more than one category). 'Disrespect' (46%), followed by bullying (35%) were the next most common forms. Physical aggression was the most common behaviour identified for boys (40%), whilst bullying was the most common for girls (43%). However, it is unclear how the questions were worded, for example, whether respondents were asked separately about the behaviour of boys, girls and all pupils.

In a survey for the National Union of Teachers (NUT), Neill (2001) records that the most frequently witnessed serious types of pupil behaviour were threats of physical violence directed at pupils (pupil-pupil violence), with 83% of respondents claiming to have witnessed such behaviour, and 43% of respondents reporting having witnessed it on a weekly basis (Neill, 2001). When asked about the types of pupil behaviour respondents had personally experienced, the majority (60%) reported experiencing offensive language at least weekly, with 27% claiming to receive personal comments of an abusive or insulting nature or manner weekly, and a further 19% receiving such comments monthly.

2.5.1 Violence in schools

Some of the types of pupil behaviour mentioned in the previous discussion include aggressive or violent behaviour. Media coverage of school violence, whether towards pupils or staff, means that this is often the focus of public concern (Munn et al, 2007). As was shown in the previous section, violence is also a focus of surveys by teaching unions. However, other sources suggest that the extent of violence may be exaggerated. For example, violent pupil behaviour was not cited to be a pressing concern for the majority of teachers (Hallam and Rogers, 2008), and although verbal or physical abuse aimed at pupils does occur it is less frequently directed towards teachers; is likely to be carried out by a small proportion of pupils; and extreme acts of violence are very rare (Ofsted, 2005).

Although there are definite caveats to using the level of exclusions as a proxy for certain behaviours (for example, they may not accurately reflect the rates and types of behaviour that exists in classrooms, and schools and LAs may have different exclusion policies, leading to different thresholds for exclusion for the same type of incident), exclusions for violent incidents do give an overview of the types of violence found in schools. Looking at exclusions for

violence indicates that such incidents are rare. In 2009/10 (the most recent data available), there were 980 permanent and 64,030 fixed period exclusions for physical assault against another pupil, equating to approximately 17% of permanent exclusions and 19% of fixed period exclusions. In the same period, there were 580 permanent and 16,370 fixed period exclusions for physical assault against an adult (approximately 10% of permanent and 5% of fixed period exclusions) (DfE, 2012b). Chapter 4 discusses exclusions in more detail.

2.5.2 Violence against teachers

No direct evidence is available about the number of assaults by pupils on teachers. However, reports of violence against teachers feature in some surveys by teaching unions, although they are far more likely to report pupil-on-pupil violence.

A poll conducted by the ATL of 1,108 primary, secondary and further education staff working in state and independent schools and colleges in the UK found that 39% of respondents had dealt with physical aggression that academic year (ATL, 2010). Those who had said that they had dealt with physical aggression were then asked who the incidents had been directed at. Most said it was directed towards another pupil (87%), however, more than a quarter (26%) said the violence was directed at them, and a further 44% said that incidents were aimed at another teacher or a member of support staff. Although, not specified in the release of these survey details, it is assumed that the question asked allowed multiple responses to cover all of the incidents that had occurred over the past year. A more recent survey (ATL, 2012)⁹ indicated that of respondents who said they had dealt with violent pupils a similar proportion to the previous survey said that this violence was directed at themselves (28%).

In an earlier survey on behalf of the NUT, Neill (2001) found that 66% of respondents did not report experiencing direct threats of physical violence from pupils. In addition, 63% of teachers in the survey had not encountered pushing, touching or other unwanted physical contact as part of their job.

2.5.3 Bullying

In the literature, there is sometimes a blurring of the definitions used between bullying behaviour and other acts of violence or aggression (Munn et al, 2007). However, bullying takes several forms besides violence and the most common forms are name calling, verbal assault, and teasing (Hoare et al, 2011; Green et al, 2010). The aim of this section is to add to the discussion of behaviour with the evidence on bullying prevalence and the types of incidents involved.

⁹ The sample for this survey was 814 respondents (teachers, lecturers, support staff and school leaders working in primary and secondary state and independent schools in the UK in March 2012) (ATL, 2012).

Estimates of the prevalence of bullying in schools vary, mainly because of differences in the time periods used; the ages of children and young people asked; and the wording of questions. The latest evidence comes from the British Crime Survey (BCS)¹⁰ (Hoare et al, 2011), where 22% of children aged 10 to 15 reported being bullied in a way that frightened or upset them in the last year (around 90% of these children said that all or some of their reported incidents happened at school). This figure is similar to that from the TellUs 4 survey where 29% of pupils in Years 6, 8 and 10 reported being bullied at some point within the last year, either inside or outside of school (Chamberlain et al, 2010).

As already stated, the evidence shows that bullying takes a range of forms. Name calling and verbal assault are the most reported types of bullying incidents. For example, the results from the BCS showed that four in five (79%) children who had been bullied reported being called names or being sworn at; two in five (38%) reported incidents where someone physically hurt or tried to hurt them; and fewer than one in ten (7%) were made to hand over money or possessions. Only a quarter of the interviewed children who had been bullied reported any injury.

Similarly, results from the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) showed that the most common type of bullying reported was name calling (30% at age 14 reducing to 15% by age 16); followed by being threatened with violence (20% at ages 14 and 15, 13% at age 16). Around 18% of young people reported violence or social exclusion at age 14 (10% at age 16). Finally, being forced to hand over money or possessions was the least common reported form of bullying, with only 3% reporting this at age 14, falling to 1% by age 16 (Green et al, 2010).

2.6 Perceptions of changes in behaviour

Evidence suggests that there are mixed opinions about whether pupil behaviour is getting better or worse.

When the 847 teachers who had been in their current school for five years or more were asked their views on the changes in standards of behaviour over the previous five years (NFER, 2008):

- 10% felt that the general standard of behaviour had ‘substantially improved’;
- 16% felt it had ‘marginally improved’;
- 26% felt that standards had ‘remained the same’;
- 39% felt that it had ‘marginally deteriorated’; and
- 9% of teachers felt that the standard of behaviour had ‘substantially deteriorated’.

There is also a difference between the 2008 and 2012 NFER surveys. In 2008, 70% of teachers rated pupil behaviour as ‘good’ or ‘very good’ and in 2012, this figure had increased to 76% (NFER, 2008 and 2012, forthcoming).

¹⁰ Since April 2012 the survey has been known as the Crime Survey for England and Wales.

A survey of ATL members (i.e. staff in state maintained primary, secondary, further education, independent schools and colleges in the UK) asked respondents if they felt pupil/student behaviour had changed over the past two, five and 10 years (ATL, 2011). Of 703 respondents to the question, 45% felt behaviour had worsened over the past two years, 44% said it had stayed the same, and 4% felt it had improved. Over half of respondents felt that it had worsened over the previous five or 10 years (56% and 55% respectively), with fewer respondents believing behaviour to have stayed the same (23% and 11%) and only 5% thinking that it had improved over the previous five or 10 years (ATL, 2011). However, some caution should be used with these findings as no breakdown by the length of time respondents had been in post were given, and as such, some respondents may not have had experience of pupil or student behaviour in the past. Also, recall of events 10 years ago may not be very accurate and the sample is likely to have been drawn from union membership rather than a general sample of teachers.

A study of the experiences of pupil behaviour of 2,575 NUT members working as teachers in 13 English LAs found that 59% of respondents felt that pupil behaviour had become very much worse since they started teaching. Around a tenth (9.5%) of respondents felt that they were unable to comment due to their limited experience, and a further tenth felt that there had been little or no deterioration in pupil behaviour (Neill, 2001). However, caution should be adopted with these findings as no further analysis of the perceptions of pupil behaviour was given depending on the experience of respondents, and this may play a role in how teachers felt pupil behaviour may have changed (Neill, 2001).

In the 2004 waves of Continental Research's stakeholder survey, around a third (34%) of all of the staff, governors and parents interviewed felt that behaviour was improving, around half felt that it was staying the same and just under a fifth (18%) that it was getting worse (COI, 2005). Over the nine waves of the survey between 2002 and 2004, the proportion believing that behaviour was getting worse, fell from 23% in February 2002 to 17% in November 2004.

2.6.1 Perceptions of changes in the primary and secondary sectors

Most of the evidence suggests that poor pupil behaviour appears to be more of an issue for teachers in secondary schools than those in primary settings. At primary level, respondents (which also included parents), were significantly more likely than those at secondary level to say pupil behaviour is improving and less likely to believe behaviour is getting worse (COI, 2005).

Secondary teachers were also more pessimistic than primary teachers about behaviour in another survey (NFER, 2008). Of the secondary teachers asked, 14% thought that behaviour had 'substantially deteriorated' compared with 5% of primary teachers.

Derrington (2008) found that almost two-thirds of teachers in primary schools who were members of the National Union of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT) believed that pupil behaviour had worsened during the

time that they have been teaching. However, further analysis suggested that it was the *severity* of the behaviour of a *minority of pupils* that was increasing rather than the behaviour of all pupils deteriorating. The report highlighted that primary teachers working in urban/city schools and those with more than 20 years' experience were more likely to report significantly more challenging behaviour. It should be noted that the sample for this survey was drawn from the NASUWT register and therefore may have been subject to some level of bias.

However, more recent information from the ATL reflects a more negative experience of primary teachers, with members reporting that, while behaviour in secondary schools was getting better, in primary schools it was getting worse (ATL, 2010). Almost 50% of primary respondents had experienced physical aggression from pupils, with a much lower figure of 20% of secondary school teachers reporting they had faced the same in the past year (ATL, 2010).

2.7 International comparisons of the standard and nature of behaviour

This section explores the international evidence on the standard of behaviour and the types of pupil misbehaviour in schools outside of England.

The main international studies which have included questions on the extent of poor behaviour are the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The data for PISA mainly relates to pupil perceptions and are mainly included in Chapter 3 of this note. There is also the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), which asked questions about the impact of pupil behaviour on teaching time (included in Chapter 4 of this topic note). However, a discussion of behaviour in independent schools using both PISA and TALIS is included in Section 2.7.1 below.

Data from TIMSS 2007 undertaken by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) can be used to give some indication of the frequency of certain pupil behaviours amongst eighth-grade pupils¹¹ (Miller et al, 2009). As part of TIMSS, principals of eighth-graders in England, Italy, Japan, the Russian Federation, Scotland and the United States were asked questions about the frequency and severity of a set of "problem behaviours" in their school. Problem behaviours included the following: "arriving late at school; absenteeism (i.e., unjustified absences); skipping class hours/periods; violating dress code; classroom disturbance; cheating; profanity; vandalism; theft; intimidation or verbal abuse of other students; physical injury to other students; intimidation or verbal abuse of teachers of staff; and physical injury to teachers or staff" (Miller et al, 2009 p56). The authors included students at all schools in the analysis of the severity of problems, not just those in schools where the principal had reported problem behaviours as occurring at least weekly.

¹¹ The grade which corresponds to the end of eight years of formal schooling, where pupils had a mean age of 13.5 years.

In all but one of the countries in the Miller et al (2009) analysis, classroom disturbance was the most frequently occurring problem behaviour reported by principals of eighth-grade pupils. The figures for principals reporting classroom disturbance at least weekly were: Scotland (60%); the US (55%); England (54%); and, Italy (46%). Much lower levels were reported in Japan (8%) and the Russian Federation (1%). For the Russian Federation, the most commonly reported problem behaviour in TIMSS 2007 was cheating, at 19%. The second most frequently cited behaviour was “intimidation or verbal abuse of other students”, where 39% of principals in the United States reported that this problem occurred at least weekly, the highest rate for participating countries, with the lowest rate reported for the Russian Federation at 1%. The figures for England, Italy, Japan and Scotland were 23%, 20%, 5% and 23% respectively.

Research undertaken by Munn et al (2009) aimed to explore issues of positive and negative behaviours in Scottish publicly-funded primary and secondary schools. Around 550 primary and 1,460 secondary teachers were interviewed.

In both the primary and secondary classroom, teachers reported that talking out of turn was the most frequently encountered low-level disruptive behaviour from a set list. Indeed, only 4% of primary and 1% of secondary school teachers reported that they had not encountered this behaviour in the previous week. Out of the primary teachers surveyed, 51% reported encountering pupils talking out of turn several times a day, for the secondary teachers in the study this figure was 53%. For primary teachers the most common low-level behaviour reported as occurring several times a day in the last full teaching week was running in the corridors (24%), with unruliness while waiting (11%) being the second most common. For secondary school teachers the most commonly reported low-level behaviour was running in corridors (24%), followed by use of mobile phones/texting that was against school policies 22% (Munn et al, 2009).

As part of the Munn et al (2009) study, primary and secondary staff¹² were provided with a list of behaviours considered to be cases of serious indiscipline, and were asked how frequently they had encountered them around the school and in classrooms in the last full teaching week. Physical violence was rare with only three individual primary and four secondary teachers reporting experiencing physical violence towards themselves around the school and only 12 primary and four secondary teachers reporting this in the classroom. Physical aggression was slightly more frequently reported but still rare. Teachers were also asked about incidents of physical violence and aggression between pupils around the school and in their classroom. One in four primary teachers, reported encountering pupil-to-pupil physical violence at least once around the school in the previous week, compared with one in five secondary teachers. For pupil-to-pupil physical aggression, 38% of primary and 45% of secondary teachers reported encountering such behaviour around the school at least once a week. Respondents were also

¹² Support staff were only asked about the behaviour they had encountered in classrooms.

asked about incidents of serious indiscipline or violence that had occurred at least once in the past 12 months, in both primary and secondary schools general verbal abuse was the most commonly reported incident experienced by staff.

The predominance of low-level disruption is also supported by other research. In a review of international studies of classroom behaviour since 1994, Beaman et al (2007) refer to 11 surveys of teachers which showed a consensus of opinion that the most common and troublesome classroom behaviours were mild but constant in nature: mainly talking out of turn and non-attentiveness or inattention. These responses were common to both primary and secondary teachers (although non-attentiveness was sometimes seen as more of a problem amongst older pupils). This review also highlighted a picture of increasing incidents of challenging behaviour as pupils progressed from primary to secondary school.

2.7.1 International evidence on behaviour in independent schools

Little UK evidence was found on differences in behaviour between independent schools and those in the state-funded sector. This is despite a perception on the part of parents that discipline is a reason for sending their children to independent schools: for example, the proportion of parents/carers in an Ipsos-MORI survey citing the importance of discipline as a reason for sending their children to independent school doubled from 15% to 30% between 2003/2004 and 2008 (Ipsos-MORI, 2008). However, there is some international evidence (although contradictory) from both PISA and TALIS on behaviour or disciplinary climate in fee-paying schools.

The 2009 PISA included measures of the school disciplinary climate in both private¹³ and public schools in OECD countries and partner countries and economies. An index of disciplinary climate was constructed from responses to the pupil questionnaire, specifically to questions regarding the frequency of interruptions in classrooms. Respondents were asked how often the following happened in their lessons in the language of instruction:

- “Students don’t listen to what the teacher says;
- There is noise and disorder;
- The teacher has to wait a long time for students to quieten down;
- Students cannot work well; and,
- Students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins” (OECD, 2010 p121).

A better disciplinary climate was reported in independent schools compared with state schools in 14 countries, including the UK. In addition, the average index of disciplinary climate was reported to be better in independent schools compared with state schools for four partner countries and economies. The

¹³ For the analysis, PISA defined private schools as “those that are managed locally, with regard to funding sources. Under this definition, private schools may or may not require parents to pay enrolment fees”. Public schools are defined as those “managed by a public education authority or agency” (OECD (2011b) p2).

disciplinary climate was reported to be worse in independent schools compared with state schools in two OECD countries, namely Italy and Japan; it was also worse in Chinese Taipei and Trinidad and Tobago (partner countries and economies) (OECD, 2011b).

Contrasting results come from the TALIS analysis of the disciplinary climate of classrooms for independent and state schools in 23 countries (OECD, 2009). As with PISA, TALIS used an index of disciplinary climate, however, for TALIS, this was constructed using responses from a teacher questionnaire. The index is constructed from four items which asked teachers about the disciplinary climate in a randomly selected classroom. The four items are as follows:

- “When the lesson begins, I have to wait quite a long time for students to quieten down.
- Students in this class take care to create a pleasant learning atmosphere.
- I lose quite a lot of time because of students interrupting the lesson.
- There is much noise in the classroom” (OECD, 2009 p226).

The disciplinary classroom climate did not differ significantly in independent and state schools for the majority of the participating countries. In only two countries (Denmark and Malta) were state schools shown to have a less-positive disciplinary climate than independent schools, and the level of missing values for the Danish data means that these results should be used with extreme caution.

Chapter 3: Pupils' perceptions and characteristics

Key findings

- Surveys of children and young people have shown that they see behaviour in their schools as generally good (BMG Research, 2008) but a majority state that there is disruption to their learning (Chamberlain et al, 2010; Ofsted, 2007 and 2008; Chamberlain et al, 2011; DfES, 2003).
- International evidence shows that pupils in other countries perceive varying levels of disruption to lessons. The OECD average for answering 'never or hardly ever' or 'in some lessons' to the statement 'The teacher has to wait a long time for students to quieten down' was 72%. The United Kingdom proportion was similar to the OECD average, Japan had the highest figure (93%) and Greece and Argentina the lowest figures at 62% (OECD, 2011a).
- Characteristics of pupils showing challenging behaviour include those with Special Educational Needs (SEN); those joining the school at times other than the usual admission points; pupils being looked after by a Local Authority and pupils with poor language and social skills (Ofsted, 2005). Other groups with higher levels of self-reported misbehaviour and poorer social-behavioural outcomes (measured by hyperactivity, anti-social behaviour, pro-social behaviour and self-regulation) include boys; those from disadvantaged families or with multiple risk factors; and those from disadvantaged neighbourhoods (Sammons et al, 2008a; Sylva et al, 2012; Sabates and Dex, 2012).
- Studies have estimated that between 5% and 8% of younger children¹⁴ in Britain have serious behaviour problems and a further 6% are clinically borderline¹⁵ (Hansen et al, (Eds), 2010; Bradshaw and Tipping, 2010). In addition, the children's psychiatric morbidity surveys of 1999 and 2004 estimated that 5% to 6% of children and young people in Great Britain had clinically significant conduct disorders - characterised by awkward, troublesome, aggressive and antisocial behaviours (Meltzer et al, 2000; Green et al, 2005; Tennant et al, 2007).
- In England, there are 158,000 pupils in mainstream state-funded primary, secondary and special schools with a primary SEN of behavioural, emotional and social difficulties (BESD) (DfE, 2011a). In recent years there has been a rise in BESD (from 1.7% of all pupils in 2004 to 2.1% in 2011) (DfES, 2004; DfE, 2011a).
- Of pupils with statements, those with BESD were most likely to be: boys; older pupils (aged 11-15); in receipt of FSM; and looked after children. At School Action Plus, Black and mixed race pupils were more likely to have BESD as their primary SEN type of need (DfE, 2011a).

¹⁴ Studies of children aged seven years or younger.

¹⁵ Using the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire, both studies calculated an overall 'total difficulties' score. For the MCS, scores between 14 and 16 were classified as borderline, and scores of 17 and above were classified as serious behaviour problems (Hansen et al (Eds), 2010; Bradshaw and Tipping, 2010).

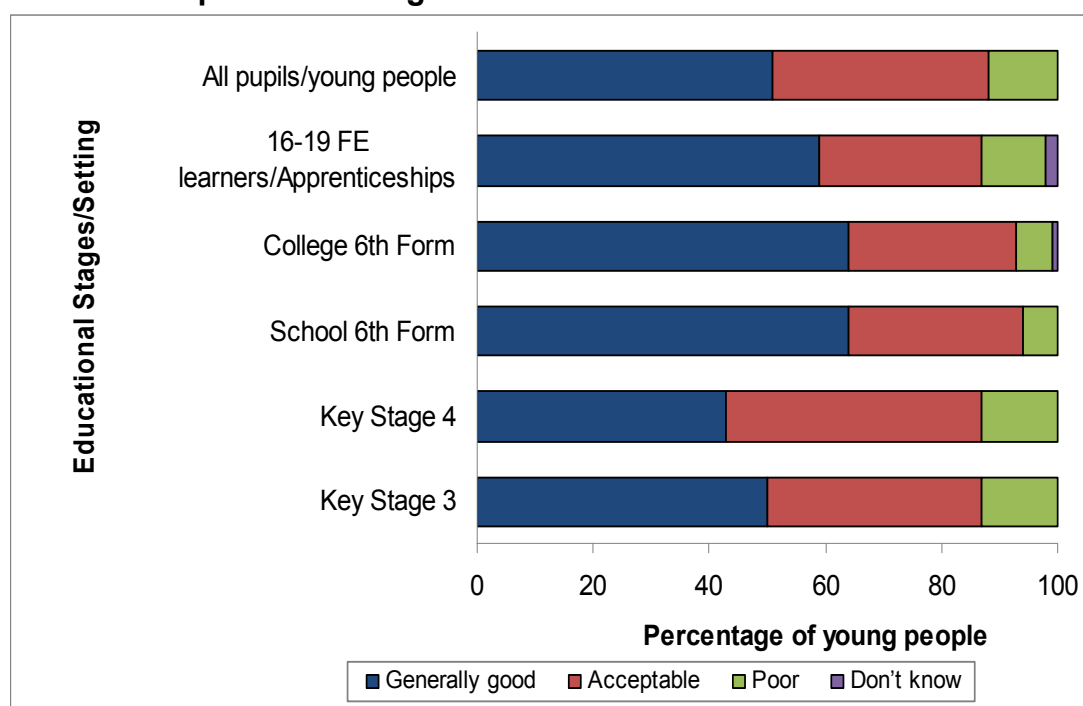
Introduction

This chapter looks at the evidence on pupils' perceptions of the misbehaviour of other pupils and the impact on their own studies. It looks at pupils' self-reported misbehaviour and the characteristics of those pupils with higher levels of self-reported or observed misbehaviour. It includes evidence on the links between behaviour and Special Educational Needs (SEN) and the extent of conduct and other behaviour disorders.

3.1 Pupil perceptions of the standard of behaviour, types of misbehaviour and the impact on learning

In a survey of a representative sample of 1,000 children and young people (BMG Research, 2008), respondents were asked how they would describe pupil behaviour at their school or college. Half felt that pupil behaviour was generally good (51%), while just over one in three (37%) felt it was acceptable, and one in eight felt it was poor (12%). There were differences by education stage: young people who attended school sixth form or college sixth form were more likely to say that behaviour in their institution was good, with 64% of both groups rating behaviour as 'good'. Children and young people aged 10-16 in Key Stages 3 or 4 were less positive about the behaviour at their school, with 13% of both groups rating behaviour as poor (Chart 3.1).

Chart 3.1: Young people's opinions on the standard of behaviour in schools and post-16 settings

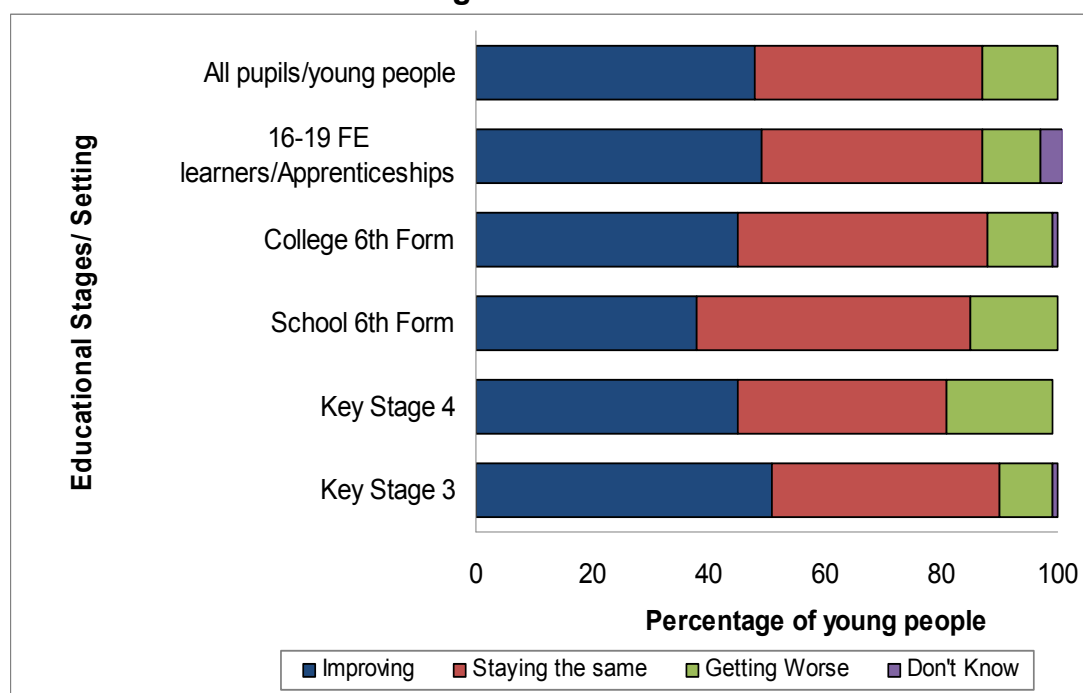


Source: BMG Research (2008)

Respondents were then asked whether they felt standards of pupil behaviour at their school or college were generally improving, staying the same or getting worse. Almost half felt that standards were improving (48%), while

39% felt that behaviour was staying the same and one in eight felt that it was getting worse (13%) (Chart 3.2).

Chart 3.2: Young people’s opinions of changes in the standard of behaviour in school and college



Source: BMG Research (2008)

Views on improvements in pupil behaviour also varied according to educational stage. The highest reported levels of improvement were at Key Stage 3 and post-16, where half of those surveyed reported improvement (51% and 49% respectively). Those most likely to report that standards of behaviour were getting worse were those at Key Stage 4 and at school sixth form (18% and 15% respectively).

Surveys have also shown that pupils believe disruptive behaviour in class has an impact on their own studies. In a survey of almost 1,400 children and young people aged nine to 16, Chamberlain et al (2011) asked whether ‘other pupils make it difficult for me to learn’. Almost a fifth (17%) answered ‘always’ and a further two-thirds (65%) said ‘sometimes’. In the 2010 TellUs survey, pupils were asked to agree or disagree with a series of statements which included ‘Other pupils often disrupt my lessons’. Just over half (54%) of pupils agreed with the statement and 16% disagreed (Chamberlain et al, 2010). In the 2007 and 2008 TellUs surveys, pupils were asked what they thought would help them to do better in school. In 2007, 40% of pupils thought that a quieter/better behaved class or group would help them to do better in school (Ofsted, 2007). In 2008, this figure was 38% (Ofsted, 2008).

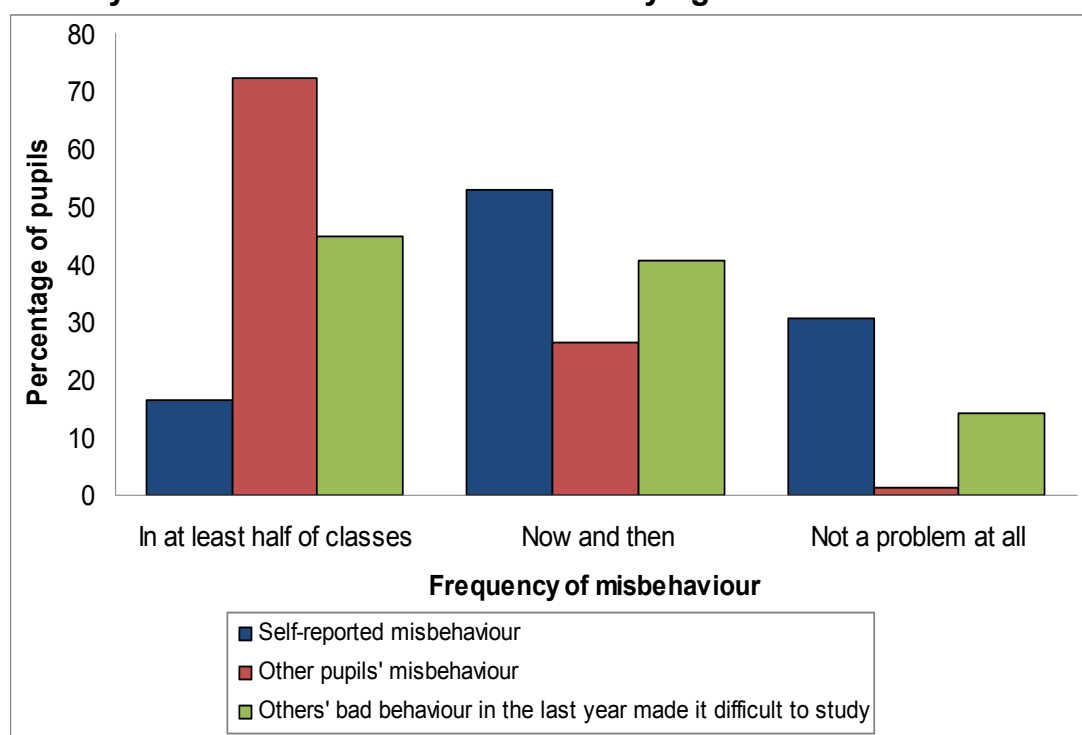
Similarly, in a different set of surveys from 2002 and 2003, pupils in two different age groups highlighted the disruption to their lessons. Two-thirds (68%) of those aged 7-11 said that they sometimes ‘found it hard to work because of noise from other children’ and almost two-fifths (38%) said that

children in their class messed around in lessons a lot (DfES, 2003). In addition, 62% of children aged 11-16 agreed or strongly agreed with the statement ‘sometimes there’s so much noise going on in my class it’s difficult for me to do my school work’ and 78% agreed or strongly agreed that ‘pupils in my class regularly try and disrupt lessons’ (DfES, 2003)¹⁶.

The Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) asked young people at age 14 about the frequency of their own and others’ misbehaviour and disruption to classes. Specifically the questions were:

- ‘How often do other pupils at your school misbehave or cause trouble in your classes...?’
- ‘How often would you say you yourself misbehave or cause trouble in your classes...?’
- Over the last year how often has bad behaviour by other pupils in your classes made it difficult for you to study or follow what the teacher was saying? (DfE iLSYPE website (undated))¹⁷

Chart 3.3: The frequencies of self-reported misbehaviour, other pupils’ misbehaviour and ‘others bad behaviour in the last year made it difficult to study or follow what the teacher was saying’



Source: LSYPE Wave 1 at age 14 (2004)

As Chart 3.3 shows respondents were more likely to say that their peers misbehaved than they themselves misbehaved. Around one sixth of pupils

¹⁶ The interviewed sample sizes were: Junior survey (7-11 year olds) - Nov 2002: 417 children, Feb 2003: 461, Jun 2003: 482); Senior survey (11-16 year olds) - Nov 2002: 578 children and Young People, Feb 2003: 586, Jun 2003: 543) (DfES, 2003).

¹⁷ <https://www.education.gov.uk/ilype/workspaces/public/wiki/Questionnaires>

(17%) reported misbehaving themselves in at least half of their lessons; whereas over two-thirds (72%) reported others' misbehaviour. Young people's responses also highlight how other pupils' behaviour can be perceived as affecting their own education, with 45% saying that others' bad behaviour in the last year made it difficult to study in at least half of lessons¹⁸.

3.2 International pupil perceptions of behaviour

According to results from the 2009 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), on average, 72% of pupils in OECD countries reported that their teachers did not have to wait a long time for them to quieten down (OECD, 2011a). For Japan, 93% of pupils reported that their teacher 'never or hardly ever' or 'in some lessons' has to wait a long time for students to quieten down, the highest rate for any of the OECD countries. For the United Kingdom this figure was 74%, just above the OECD average, and the lowest rate was 62% for both Greece and Argentina.

For some countries there appear to be some similarities in pupils' perceptions of the levels of poor behaviour. In comparing pupils in single cities in the UK, US and Russia, Elliott et al (2001) found that the US and UK pupils were more likely to rate their classes as disrupted by their peers than Russian pupils. Around four-fifths of US and UK pupils answered often or sometimes to the statement 'children in my classes do not always pay attention and lessons are disrupted by bad behaviour' compared with less than a third of Russian pupils.

In an Australian study of pupils' perceptions of troublesome behaviour and discipline methods, pupils rated the most troublesome and frequent types of behaviour as talking out of turn, talking back, being out of seats and eating. Although this reflected slight differences to what (in the literature reviewed in this article) teachers' perceive to be the most troublesome behaviours, both pupils and teachers in this study agreed that teachers devoted too much time to controlling classes, with more than 50% of pupils in this study believing this to be the case (Infantino and Little, 2005).

3.3 The spectrum of behaviour

It is important here to distinguish between children and young people with Special Educational Needs (SEN) or mental health problems and those who are not affected by any disorder or a problem that inhibits their learning. Green et al (2005), state that some of the typical symptoms that characterise conduct disorders are also 'found, to some extent, in most children'. The difference comes with the severity of the symptoms to cause distress to the child or impair their functioning. Within an inclusive classroom, there may be children who can be classed as having a behaviour disorder as well as those with other special needs which may affect their behaviour as well as those who are borderline or who are not affected. The section at the end of this chapter includes a further summary of the characteristics of children with conduct disorders and other behaviour problems.

¹⁸ See Annex A for more information on the LSYPE.

The Millennium Cohort Study (MCS) results for the cohort at age seven showed that there was a range of behaviour that could be categorised as 'borderline' or 'serious behaviour'¹⁹. Using mainly parental reported scores on the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)²⁰, 8% of seven year-olds in the overall British sample were classified as having serious problems and 6% as borderline (Hansen et al (Eds), 2010). The MCS also found that although the proportions of children classified as having serious behaviour problems were similar for individual countries within Great Britain, the proportions with borderline scores were higher for England (7% compared with 4-5% for other countries). A separate study in Scotland using similarly reported SDQ measures at entry to primary school showed equivalent figures of 5% with serious behaviour problems and 6% who were borderline (Bradshaw and Tipping, 2010).

Other studies have estimated the proportion of children with significant emotional and behaviour problems as being between 8% and 22% of pre-school children (cited in Hansen et al (Eds), 2010). Results from the evaluation of the Targeted Mental Health in Schools (TaHMS) project showed that 8% of primary and 6% of secondary pupils were above the cut-off for behaviour problems at the start of the study in 2008 (CAMHS EBPU et al, 2011).

Collishaw et al (2004) also produced evidence from longitudinal studies for there being increasing adolescent mental health problems over recent years with a consistent trend in increased conduct problems over the last 25 years. By examining associations with outcomes in later life, they also suggest that changes in parental reports of children's behaviour in longitudinal studies are due to real changes in prevalence and not just to changes in reporting thresholds. In contrast, Green et al (2005) reviewed four cross-sectional studies on the stability of mental health problems over time and found that these suggest that "the overall rate of childhood psychopathology has not changed considerably since the 1970s although there may have been small changes in specific symptomatology" (Green et al, 2005, p.3).

3.4 Characteristics of pupils who misbehave

This section investigates the characteristics of children with higher levels of self-reported or observed misbehaviour.

Ofsted (2005) identify a number of characteristics of pupils who display challenging behaviour:

- a pupil joining the school at times other than the usual admission points;
- a pupil being in public care or from a troubled family;
- a pupil having identified SEN; and

¹⁹ 'Total difficulties' scores on the SDQ of between 14 and 16 were classified as borderline, and scores of 17 and above were classified as serious behaviour problems (Hansen et al (Eds), 2010).

²⁰ The SDQ is a 25-item questionnaire, used as a clinical tool for identifying emotional and behavioural disorders (Hansen et al (Eds), 2010).

- a pupil having poor language and social skills.

The rest of this section looks at the other characteristics often cited as being associated with misbehaving pupils, such as gender; SEN; and family circumstances.

3.4.1 Gender

Research evidence from the Effective Pre-school and Primary Education 3-11 (EPPE 3-11) and the Effective Pre-school, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE 3-14) studies (Sammons et al, 2008a; Sylva et al, 2012) indicate that teachers rate boys as having lower levels of positive social-behavioural outcomes and higher negative outcomes than girls. Across the studies, teachers rated four aspects of behaviour: hyperactivity (reduced self-control, impulsiveness etc.); anti-social behaviour (verbal abuse, aggression etc.); pro-social behaviour (peer empathy, co-operation, altruism); and self-regulation (problem-solving, motivation, self-confidence). At the end of Year 6, boys displayed more hyperactivity and anti-social behaviour than girls did, whereas girls demonstrated more pro-social behaviour and self-regulation than boys (Sammons et al, 2008a).

Similarly, the most recent results from the EPPSE 3-14 project continued to show the differences between boys and girls on teacher rated behaviour, as the cohort of pupils went through secondary school. In Year 9, girls showed better social-behavioural profiles than boys did on all four aspects of behaviour. Between the ages of 11 and 14, the gender gap for social-behavioural outcomes widened, with girls improving the positive behaviours and reducing the negative behaviours to a greater extent than boys (Sylva et al, 2012).

In analysis of the LSYPE for this topic note, boys were more likely than girls to self-report misbehaving in class at age 14, with 20% saying that they misbehaved in half or more of lessons, compared with 13% of girls.

Ofsted (2005) found that boys were more likely than girls to be both physically defiant and verbally abusive across all of the educational institutions visited, including Further Education (FE) colleges. Ofsted also reported that in FE colleges, girls predominate in instances of self-harm, depression and eating disorders (Ofsted, 2005).

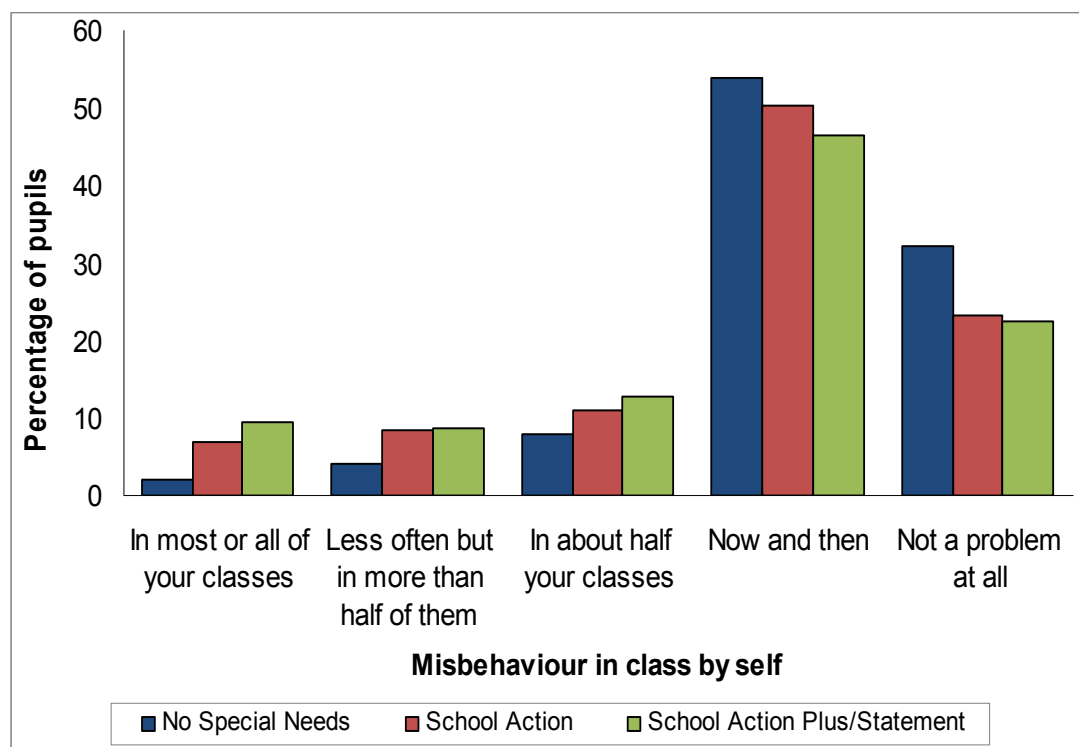
3.4.2 Special Educational Needs

For the LSYPE question on self-reported misbehaviour, pupils without SEN were less likely than those with any of the categories of SEN to self-report more frequent misbehaviour in class²¹. Nine per cent of those with SEN at school action plus or with a statement reported misbehaving in most or all of their classes compared with 2% of those without a statement. Conversely,

²¹ The three categories of SEN are: School Action – a teacher identifies a child with SEN and provides interventions; School Action Plus – as with school action, but with help from external Services; Statemented – the Local Authority provides a written statement of SEN for the child.

23% of those with School Action, School Action Plus or a Statement reported their own misbehaviour as not a problem, compared with 32% of those with no SEN status (Chart 3.4).

Chart 3.4: Pupil self-reported misbehaviour (at age 14) by Special Educational Needs Status



Source: LSYPE Wave 1 at age 14 (2004)

In the EPPSE 3-14 study, pupils with a history of SEN in secondary school showed significantly poorer behavioural outcomes at Year 9 and earlier years. However, Sylva et al (2012) also note that the link between behaviour problems and learning difficulties is often reciprocal.

3.4.3 Family measures of social disadvantage

In the EPPE 3-11 study, at Year 6, both family earned income and Free School Meals (FSM) were significant predictors of behavioural outcomes. Children from families with medium and high earned income had higher teacher-rated levels of pro-social behaviour and self-regulation than those with lower income levels. Children from families with low-medium income had lower levels of hyperactivity than those with no or low earned income. Similarly, those who were eligible for FSM had higher levels of hyperactivity and anti-social behaviour and lower levels of self-regulation than those who were not eligible for FSM (Sammons et al, 2008a). In the more recent data from this study, Sylva et al (2012) showed that higher family socio-economic status and income were strong predictors of better social-behavioural profiles.

Similarly, Goodman and Gregg (2010) found evidence from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC) that primary school pupils from poorer backgrounds were more likely than pupils from more

affluent backgrounds to have behavioural problems such as conduct disorders and hyperactivity (based on mothers' assessments of behaviour). Using a range of data from different longitudinal data sources, Goodman and Gregg (2010) also highlighted the links between behavioural problems and the attainment gap for disadvantaged pupils. In an analysis of data from ALSPAC, they found that conduct disorders and hyperactivity were amongst the factors accounting for the test score gap between the richest and poorest at age 11, even after taking account of prior attainment. Overall, differences in attitudes and behaviours during primary school represented 12% of the attainment gap, with maternal aspirations, attitudes and behaviours contributing to a greater extent than children's attitudes and behaviours at this age.

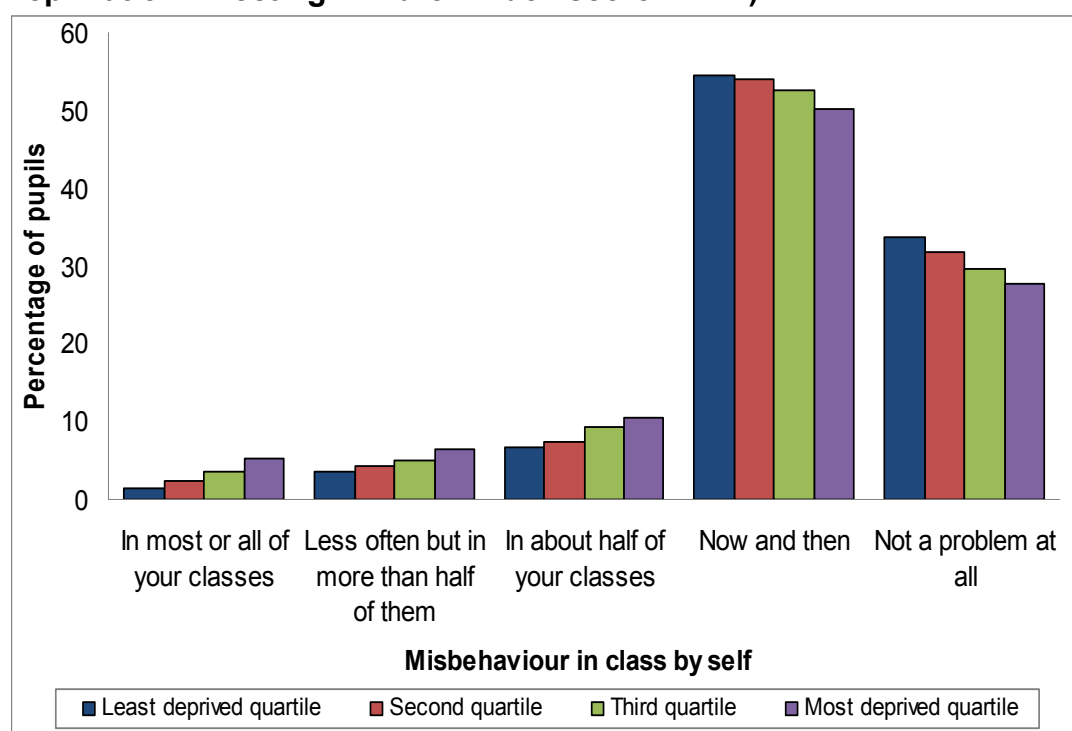
LSYPE data shows that pupils in receipt of FSM were more likely at age 14 to self-report misbehaviour more frequently in class (26% of pupils eligible for FSM said that they misbehaved in at least half of classes compared with 14% of non-FSM pupils).

3.4.4 Neighbourhood measures of social disadvantage

Pupils who self-reported their own frequent misbehaviour in LSYPE at age 14 were more likely to come from more deprived areas (as measured by the Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index (IDACI) score²²) and those who misbehaved only 'now and then' or 'not at all' were more likely to come from less deprived areas (Chart 3.5).

²² IDACI is a measure of deprivation for children aged between 0-15 in small geographical areas in England. It covers children living in income deprived households defined as "either families receiving Income Support or income-based Jobseeker's Allowance or Pension Credit (Guarantee) or those not in receipt of these benefits but in receipt of Child Tax Credit with an equivalised income (excluding housing benefits) below 60% of the national median before housing costs" (McLennan et al., 2011 p5). The IDACI is expressed as the proportion of all children aged between 0 and 15 living in income deprived families.

Chart 3.5: Pupil self-reported misbehaviour (at age 14) by Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index score IDACI)



Source: LSYPE Wave 1 at age 14 (2004)

Similarly, the EPPSE 3-14 study showed that there was a weak but significant association between teacher rated behavioural outcomes and neighbourhood measures of disadvantage. Higher levels of disadvantage (measured by the Index of Multiple Deprivation and IDACI) predicted poorer 'self-regulation' and increased 'hyperactivity' and 'anti-social behaviour' measures (Sylva et al, 2012).

3.4.5 Multiple disadvantage/risk factors

Sabates and Dex (2012) undertook a study examining the nature and prevalence of various risk factors for children in the MCS. The risk factors were selected on the basis of their potential to impact upon child development, and included risks such as a mother having smoked during pregnancy, overcrowding or that the mother or partner often felt depressed. The authors looked at children's developmental outcomes at ages three and five, and used the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) to measure behavioural development. When looking at the five indicators of the SDQ (pro-social, peers, hyperactivity, conduct, emotional and cognitive), children who were exposed to two or more risk factors were more likely to have higher than average negative outcomes on all five indicators at ages three and five than children exposed to fewer risks early in their lives.

In the EPPSE 3-14 study, experience of multiple disadvantage at an early age continued to be reflected in poorer behaviour ratings in Year 9. A multiple disadvantage index was created during the pre-school years of the study which included child and parental factors such as English as an Additional Language (EAL); low birth weight; family characteristics; parental

qualifications, employment and social class and home learning environment (Sylva et al, 2008). In Year 9, scores for hyperactivity and anti-social behaviour were poorer for those with higher scores on this index and pro-social behaviour and self-regulation ratings were lower (Sylva et al, 2012).

3.4.6 Differences in behavioural self-image

In the EPPE 3-11 longitudinal study (Sammons et al, 2008b) pupils in Year 2 (age 7) and Year 5 (age 10) were asked questions which covered aspects of their 'behavioural self-image' (including their perceptions about their own behaviour in class and whether they talk to their friends when they should be working). In Year 5, 13% of children said they behaved some of the time and 2% said they never behaved. When asked whether they talked to friends when they should be working, 12% of Year 5 children said all of the time and 22% said most of the time. Between Year 2 and Year 5, children's behavioural self-image was less likely to change than other measures such as attainment.

There were a range of factors associated with poorer behavioural self-image at Year 5:

- Gender (boys had a poorer self-image);
- Pupils who needed support for English as an Additional Language (EAL) had a poorer self-image than those who did not need support;
- Children who were second born (i.e. with one older sibling);
- Those eligible for FSM; and
- Ethnicity (Black Caribbean pupils had a poorer self-image than White UK pupils, who in turn had a poorer self-image than those of Pakistani and Bangladeshi heritage – although small sample sizes mean that these differences should be interpreted with caution).

Behavioural self-image also was associated with attainment and social-behavioural development. Pupils who had a higher 'behavioural self-image' in Year 2, had all round better social-behavioural development and higher cognitive attainment and progress by Year 5. In addition, 'behavioural self-image' at Year 2 had a significant effect on academic progress and social-behavioural development. Children with medium and high levels of 'behavioural self-image' measured in Year 2 made better progress in reading, mathematics and 'self-regulation' between Year 1 and Year 5 (Sammons et al, 2008b).

3.5 Children and young people with SEN and behavioural disorders

The Steer Review stated that "the links between behavioural standards and SEN and disabilities are intricate and profound" (Steer, 2009a p22). The links are made more complex by the many differing types of SEN. The British Psychological Society's (2005) submission to the House of Commons Select Committee Special Educational Needs Inquiry included a review of the psychology literature. This suggested that individual pupils who exhibit problematic behaviours should not be classed as an homogenous group: "students can be typified under at least eight headings, including: delinquency, emotional difficulties, behavioural difficulties, emotional and behavioural difficulties, social problems, challenging behaviour associated

with learning difficulties, and mental health problems. Individual students rarely fall under one category and they therefore require different and targeted interventions”.

Studies have linked developmental delays and learning disabilities with problematic peer relations and problems with social behaviour. Different types of learning disabilities may affect the development of behaviours in different ways, for example by increasing aggressive-disruptive behaviours (Bellanti and Bierman, 2000). Similarly, inattentiveness is linked to aggressive-disruptive behaviour. One explanation for this may be that attention problems increase child frustration and negative reactions, leading to disruptive behaviour (Thomas et al, 2008).

The Ofsted review of SEN and disability (Ofsted, 2010) highlighted that schools classify a wide range of pupils as having SEN, from those whose needs could be met through good quality teaching to those with complex and severe needs requiring significant additional support. The report states that inspectors saw schools that identified pupils as having special educational needs when, in fact, their needs were no different from those of most other pupils. These were underachieving pupils who could be helped by better mainstream teaching provision and higher teacher expectations.

In a study of 30 teachers undertaken by NASUWT (2006), it was found that teachers often felt unable to distinguish between mental health problems and emotional/behavioural difficulties in pupils, and they felt that inadequate support for children with mental health needs affected the wellbeing and performance of all pupils. However, there is evidence from the literature that the focus on behaviour in schools means that schools and teachers are more likely to identify behaviour problems than emotional ones (CAMHS EBPU et al, 2011). Using vignettes describing the characteristics of children with different needs, the evaluation of the TaHMS project indicated that in both primary and secondary schools, children with behavioural problems would be more likely than those with emotional problems to be offered specialist mental health input (CAMHS EBPU et al, 2011).

3.5.1 Pupils with behavioural, emotional and social difficulties (BESD)

The latest figures on the number of pupils with behavioural, emotional and social difficulties (BESD) in England show that there are 158,000 pupils in mainstream state-funded primary, secondary and special schools who have this primary SEN type (DfE, 2011a)²³. In recent years there has been a rise in BESD (from 1.7% of all pupils in 2004 to 2.1% in 2011)²⁴ (DfES, 2004; DfE, 2011a).

²³ Figures are for those at School Action Plus or with a statement of SEN. “School Action Plus” – the school consults specialists and requests help from external services and a statement of SEN – when it is necessary for the Local Authority to determine the nature of provision for the child.

²⁴ The number of pupils with BESD as a primary need as a proportion of those on roll in State-funded primary and secondary schools and maintained and non-maintained special schools.

There are also differences by pupil characteristics in the distribution of BESD as a primary type of need:

- Gender (17% of boys with statements have BESD as their primary type of need compared with 6% of girls);
- Age (BESD is the most common type of primary need for those aged 11 – 15 with statements);
- Ethnicity (Black and mixed race pupils were most likely to have BESD of the different ethnic groups at School Action Plus);
- FSM (those with BESD were most likely to be eligible for FSM); and
- Of pupils with statements, looked after children were more likely to have this primary type of need (DfE, 2011a).

However, pupils with EAL were least likely to have BESD (DfE, 2011a).

3.5.2 Estimates of the proportion of pupils with conduct disorders

Conduct disorders are characterised by awkward, troublesome, aggressive and antisocial behaviours (Tennant et al, 2007). The children's psychiatric morbidity survey of 1999 estimated that among children and young people in Great Britain aged five to 15 years, 5% had clinically significant conduct disorders (Meltzer et al, 2000) and the 2004 survey had a similar figure for those aged five to 16 of 6% (Green et al, 2005). In a separate Scottish study, at entry to primary school, 12% of children in the sample had scores which indicated conduct problems and a further 15% were borderline (Bradshaw and Tipping, 2010).

Results from the 2004 children's psychiatric morbidity survey showed that the groups most likely to have a conduct disorder were: boys; older children and young people (aged 11 – 16); those living in families with four or more children; those living with a step-parent; those whose parents have no educational qualifications; and those living in lower income households. Children of lone parents and those in reconstituted families (i.e. those with stepchildren present) were also more likely than children in married or cohabiting families to have a conduct disorder. The research also showed that children with conduct disorders were more likely than others to have a written statement of SEN (Green et al, 2005).

In the follow-up to the 2004 survey, 43% of the children and young people who had been assessed in 2004 as having a conduct disorder were also rated as having a conduct disorder three years later. There were a range of factors from the 2004 survey which were associated with persistence of conduct disorder, they included: age (11-13); gender (boys); having SEN; families with lower socio-economic status or middle range income; mother having no educational qualifications; mother having poor mental health status; and having three or more siblings (Parry-Langdon (Ed), 2008).

Chapter 4: Consequences of poor behaviour

Key findings

- Results from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) indicate that most pupils enjoy orderly classrooms in the 65 countries and economies who participated, with the majority reporting that they attend classrooms where they feel they can work well most of the time (OECD, 2010). In England, the PISA results were similar to the OECD averages for most questions, with the majority reporting orderly classrooms (Bradshaw et al, 2010).
- However, PISA results also showed that a sizeable minority reported some disruption in classrooms – for example, 31% of pupils in England felt that ‘in most or all lessons’ that ‘there is noise and disorder’ (Bradshaw et al, 2010).
- According to the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), up to 25% of teachers in most of the 23 countries surveyed report losing at least 30% of their lesson time to disruptions or administrative tasks, with an international average of 13% of teacher time spent on maintaining order in the classroom (OECD, 2010).
- Analysis of data from the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) shows that after controlling for a wide range of pupil and school factors, self-reported misbehaviour in most classes has a negative impact on predicted KS4 attainment: predicting a capped GCSE score of 29 points fewer than those who did not report their own misbehaviour (equivalent to gaining one grade lower in five subjects).
- Analysis shows that after controlling for a range of factors there are some associations between reports of self and others’ misbehaviour and being not in education, employment or training (NEET) between the ages of 16 and 18. For example, misbehaviour or troublemaking by others in classes was amongst factors associated with being NEET at age 17.
- LSYPE data also show associations between self-reported misbehaviour (at age 14) and both intentions towards staying on in education post-16 and actual destination at age 18. For example, pupils who self-reported their own frequent misbehaviour in class at age 14 were less likely to say at that time that they intended to stay on in full-time education after age 16.
- There is evidence to suggest that individuals who display problematic behaviour in childhood or adolescence, for example through having a conduct disorder, are more likely to have few, or no, educational qualifications in later life (Richards et al, 2009; Colman et al, 2009).
- In the latest data available (2009/10 academic year), there were 5,740 permanent exclusions from maintained primary, state-funded secondary and special schools in England. This translates to an exclusion rate of 0.08% for all pupils. For the same period, there were 331,380 fixed period exclusions, a rate of 4.46% for all pupils (DfE, 2012b).
- The most common reason recorded for all exclusions for all types of school in 2009/10 was persistent disruptive behaviour, which accounted

for 29.0% of permanent exclusions and 23.8% of fixed period exclusions (DfE, 2012b).

- Issues around pupil behaviour and discipline may also impact on teacher recruitment (Barmby, 2006) and retention (MORI, 2004; Smithers and Robinson, 2003; Hobson et al, 2009). Although it should be noted that other factors, such as teacher workload and pay, were often found to be more influential in teacher recruitment and retention than pupil behaviour.
- There is some evidence to suggest that poor pupil behaviour may also impact negatively on teachers' stress levels and mental and physical health (ATL, 2008 and 2009).

Introduction

This chapter looks at the short- and long-term impact of poor behaviour. It includes the impact of those pupils who misbehave on other pupils and teachers, as well as the impact on pupils who misbehave and those with behaviour problems.

4.1 Lost teaching time

Misbehaviour by some pupils may impact negatively on the classroom environment, and consequently lead to a loss of teaching time.

4.1.1 Teacher reports of lost teaching time

According to the 2008 Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), across 23 countries²⁵, between 8-18% of lesson time was spent on maintaining order in the classroom, with an international average of 13%. Furthermore, up to 25% of teachers in most countries lost at least 30% of their lesson time through disruptions or administrative tasks (OECD, 2009).

NASWUT undertook a survey of teachers and head teachers working in primary and secondary schools, and over 10,000 responses to the survey were received. The survey found that an average of 30 minutes of available teaching time was lost per teacher per day in primary schools, whilst in secondary schools the figure for lost teaching time was 50 minutes per teacher per day (NASWUT, 2010). Although it is unclear exactly what questions were asked and how the averages were calculated for these figures, other research also justifies the figures in the NASUWT survey. Beaman et al (2007) report that research consistently shows "that around 50% of teachers, at all levels, typically claim to spend more time on problems of order and control than they believe they should" (p.51). They quote two further international surveys that estimated the time spent on order and control: in one example, teachers spent an average of 25% of their time managing behaviour and in the other example, the majority of primary teachers reported spending more than 10% of their time managing behaviour.

4.1.2 Pupil reports of lost teaching time

As with the measures of the standard of behaviour from Chapter 2, the overall picture is a good one but there is still evidence for a minority of cases where

²⁵ England did not participate in the 2008 study.

poor behaviour can be perceived as impacting on teaching time. Results from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) undertaken by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), which surveyed 15 year- olds in 65 countries and economies, indicate that the majority of pupils in OECD countries enjoy orderly classrooms (OECD, 2010). For example, pupils rated the frequency of different statements about classroom disciplinary climate, from ‘never or only in some lessons’ to ‘in all lessons’. The average proportions answering never or only in some lessons for OECD countries were:

- Students don’t listen to what the teacher says (71%);
- There is noise and disorder (68%);
- The teacher has to wait a long time for students to quieten down (72%);
- Students cannot work well (81%); and,
- Students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins (75%) (OECD, 2010 p91).

Table 4.1 shows that there was still a sizeable minority of pupils across the OECD and in England who perceived a poor disciplinary climate. For example, almost a third of pupils in England (31%) felt that ‘in most or all lessons’ that ‘there is noise and disorder’. For most of the questions, the responses from pupils in England were similar to the OECD average, apart from on the last two categories ‘students cannot work well’ and ‘students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins’ where pupils in England gave a slightly more positive picture. (Bradshaw et al, 2010).

Table 4.1: Student ratings of classroom disciplinary climate, OECD average and England proportions, PISA 2009

	England (%)	OECD (%)
How often do these things happen in your English lessons? <i>In most or all lessons</i>		
Students don’t listen to what the teacher says	27	29
There is noise and disorder	31	32
The teacher has to wait a long time for the students to settle down	26	28
Students cannot work well	14	19
Students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins	18	25

Source: Bradshaw et al (2010).

4.2 Impact of poor behaviour on the learning of other pupils

As well as the evidence around lost teaching time, there is some evidence that poor behaviour impacts directly on the learning or attainment of other pupils. According to the OECD, students who reported that there were few disciplinary problems in their classes performed better in the PISA 2009 tests than those who reported a lack of discipline in class that disrupts learning (OECD, 2011a). Similarly, in international surveys of 15 year-old pupils’ beliefs and expectations by Elliott et al (1999), the belief that classmates had poorer behaviour and disrupted lessons was linked to lower levels of

perceived work rates for pupils in the UK and US (Sunderland and Kentucky) compared with the Russian sample. A similar pattern was shown in a later survey of nine and 10 year-old pupils, although they tended to be more positive in their ratings of their classmates' behaviour (Elliott et al, 2001).

However, there is also evidence that disruptive pupils may not affect the attainment of others in the classroom. Bru (2009) investigated the degree to which academic outcomes in Norwegian secondary school classes were associated with the inclusion of markedly disruptive pupils (based on teacher and pupil reports). It was found that a relatively large percentage of Norwegian secondary pupils wanted less classroom disruption, with pupils in classes with markedly disruptive pupils reporting significantly less opportunity to learn in peace. However, the variation between classes in the level of perceived peace was relatively low, which Bru (2009) concluded indicates that this may be a general problem across all Norwegian classes, regardless of whether the class has markedly disruptive pupils. Furthermore, academic outcomes (based on pupil self-reports and teacher assessments and using a combined score for written Norwegian, English and for maths) were not found to be significantly lower among pupils in classes with markedly disruptive pupils.

4.3 Analysis of the impact of self-reported or others' misbehaviour and KS4 attainment from LSYPE

In Chapter 3, findings from LSYPE relating to the prevalence of misbehaviour reported by pupils at aged 14 were discussed. It was found that self-reported misbehaviour was associated with pupil characteristics such as SEN status and IDACI. As these characteristics tend to be associated with low KS4 attainment, this section attempts to disentangle the different impacts of behaviour on KS4 attainment by controlling for prior attainment and other characteristics that might also be associated with KS4 attainment. As Sylva et al (2012) highlighted, there is also likely to be a reciprocal relationship between pupils' ratings of their own behaviour and their academic outcomes, with each reinforcing the other.

The analysis presented in this section follows a similar methodology to previous analysis of attainment gaps (DCSF, 2010) in which multiple linear regression was used to build a model of KS4 attainment (using capped GCSE scores²⁶) which controlled for prior (KS2) attainment and a wide range of other characteristics. The previous report showed that deprivation, parental background and engagement, family composition and employment status, pupil aspirations, school composition and school effectiveness each contributed significantly to the variation observed in pupil attainment at Key Stage 4 (DCSF, 2010). The analysis produced for this report extends the work conducted previously by including the relative importance of pupil behaviour in the attainment model as well as the wider pupil characteristics²⁷.

²⁶ These are calculated using a pupil's best eight GCSE scores or equivalent grades (DfE, 2012a).

²⁷ See Annex B for a list of the variables included in this modelling.

Including behaviour characteristics in the model did not change the impact that the pupil background characteristics mentioned above were found to have on KS4 attainment. What the model did show was that in addition to these factors, pupil attainment at KS4 was also significantly associated with their reports of their own and their peers' behaviour. In particular, pupils who reported misbehaving in lessons achieved significantly lower at KS4 than their peers, as did those who said it was difficult to follow the teacher in most or all of their lessons due to the misbehaviour of others.

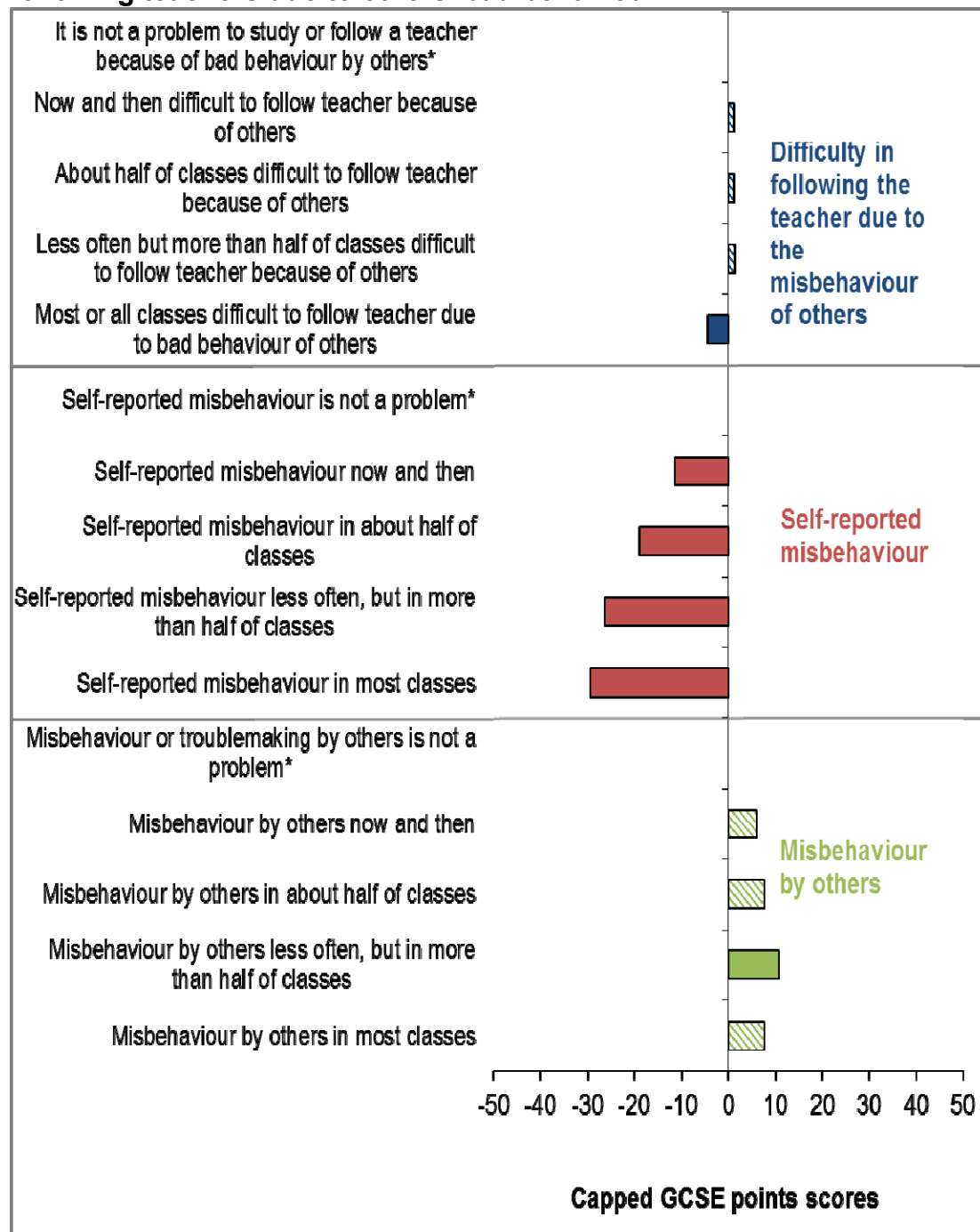
Chart 4.1 shows the size of the effect on a pupil's KS4 attainment that each aspect of misbehaviour was found to have. When looking at the chart, attention should be focussed on the size of the bars as much as the direction. In each case the size of the impacts are relative to pupils who reported that type of misbehaviour was not a problem. The effects are additive, which means that the impact on attainment for a pupil who has more than one characteristic (for example, has frequent self-reported misbehaviour and finds it difficult to follow the teacher due to bad behaviour of others) is equal to the combined impact for each of these characteristics. Therefore, pupils with lots of 'negative' characteristics can have very low expected scores once the impacts of all of the characteristics have been taken into account.

The results of the modelling shown in Chart 4.1 show that different types of misbehaviour among pupils have different impacts on Key Stage 4 attainment. In particular:

- Self-reported misbehaviour in most or all of the classes is seen to have the most negative impact on pupil attainment. Pupils for whom this applies are predicted to attain 29 fewer GCSE points, on average, than those who said they do not misbehave (a grade lower in five GCSE subjects)²⁸. The other three categories for self-reported misbehaviour are also shown to have significantly negative impacts on the pupils' KS4 outcomes.
- Those who reported that in most or all of their classes the bad behaviour of other pupils made it difficult to study or follow the teacher were predicted to achieve almost six points (a grade in one subject) fewer at KS4 compared with those who said this was not a problem.
- Perhaps surprisingly, misbehaviour by others (regardless of frequency) is associated with better KS4 outcomes than for pupils who reported misbehaviour by others as not being a problem; the chart shows that this association is only significant for pupils who reported misbehaviour among their peers in more than half their classes. One possible explanation for this trend may be that pupils who notice misbehaviour among their peers are also those who are more motivated.

²⁸ To interpret these figures, one grade in one GCSE subject is worth six capped GCSE points. Therefore, 29 points equates to the equivalent of getting at least a grade higher in five subjects, e.g. five A grades as opposed to five B grades.

Chart 4.1: Effects on KS4 outcomes of components of self-reported misbehaviour, others' misbehaviour and difficulty in studying or following teachers due to others' bad behaviour



* Factors marked with an asterisk represent the reference group for each category. Block colours represent statistically significant effects; shaded cells represent those which are not significantly different from 0.

Source: LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 3 (2006).

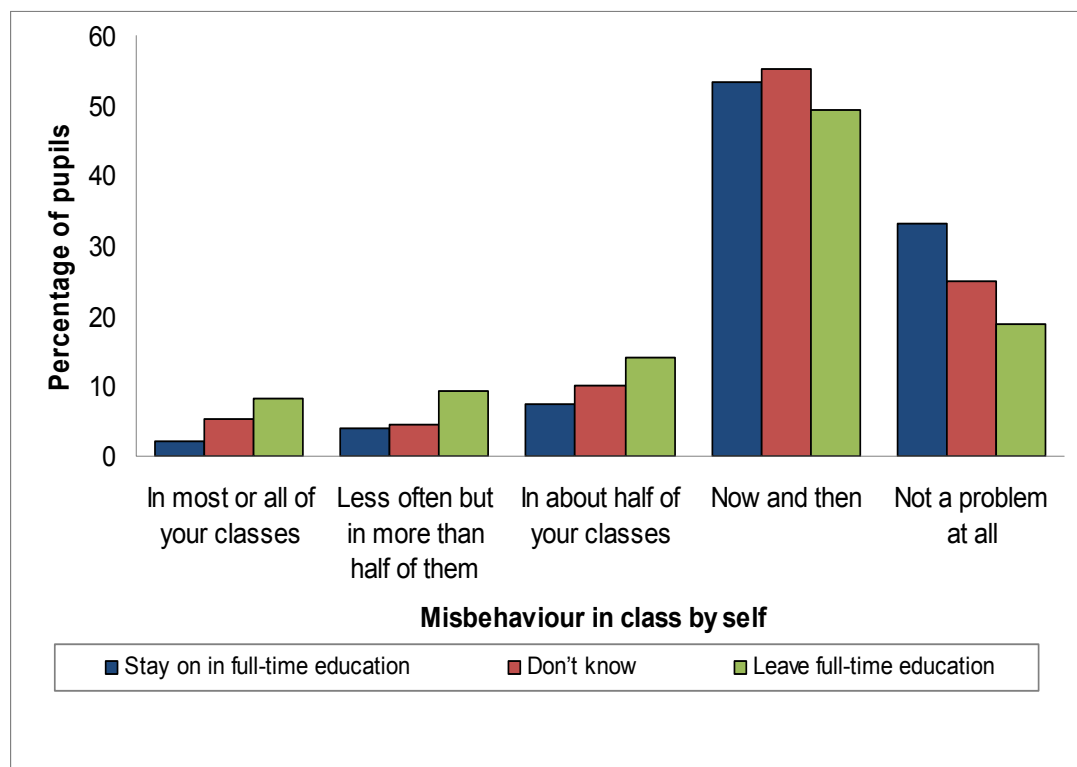
4.4 Disengagement

This section aims to explore some of the issues around behaviour and school engagement/disengagement.

4.4.1 Pupil self-reports of misbehaviour and educational disengagement

Chart 4.2 shows that at age 14 pupils in the LSYPE who self-reported that they misbehaved in most or all of their classes were less likely to say that they intended to stay on in full-time education, and were more likely to indicate that they wished to leave full-time education post-16. The chart also shows that most of the respondents who indicated that their own misbehaviour was not a problem at all, also intended to stay on in full-time education²⁹.

Chart 4.2: Pupil self-reported misbehaviour by post-16 aspirations at age 14



Source: LSYPE Wave 1 (2004).

The links to aspirations can also be seen in the wider context of a disengagement from education. Ross (2009) developed four typologies of young people who were engaged or disengaged from school or education based on the cohort of 14-16 year olds from LSYPE. Typologies were based on post-16 and Further Education (FE) aspirations as well as attitudes to school and self-reported truancy. The group who were most disengaged from education had the highest levels of self-reported misbehaviour (40% reported misbehaving in half or more of their classes compared with just 7% of 'engaged' young people).

Qualitative research with primary school pupils showed that pupils disengage with their education when they feel bored with the general curriculum or

²⁹ The original question in LSYPE included the category "leave full-time education but return later". For the purposes of this analysis, this is included in the question category shown as "Stay on in full-time education".

specific learning tasks – something not mentioned by parents or teachers in their equivalent interviews. The pupils also displayed their disengagement by misbehaving (Ravet, 2007). Similarly, qualitative work with primary pupils in Wales also showed that they attributed some of their misbehaviour to boredom and un-stimulating lessons or “robotic” teachers (Reid et al, 2010).

4.5 Behaviour and attendance

Although the exact causal relationship with misbehaviour can be disputed, poor or low attendance can be seen as one risk factor for anti-social behaviour in school and out (Millie and Moore, 2009). Research shows that persistent absentees returning to schools can become disruptive in turn and take up teacher time as they try to catch up. In case studies of 27 schools (13 primary and 14 secondary schools) located across seven English LAs, Malcolm et al (2003) found recurring themes of the effect of absence on poor attendees, teachers and other pupils. Teachers reported a loss of confidence on the part of returning pupils that was reflected in disruptive behaviour. Primary school staff indicated that poor attendees could become “frustrated, bad-tempered, undisciplined and insecure” (Malcolm et al, 2003 p16). Secondary school staff in four of the seven LAs reported that poor attendees “lost their confidence, showed behavioural problems including attention seeking through disruptive behaviour and personality changes” on their return to school (Malcolm et al, p16). Teachers also believed that when poor attendees returned to school, the subsequent disruption and diversion of teachers’ time as pupils tried to catch up impacted negatively on the other children in classes. Similarly, some pupils who were regular attendees also resented the diversion of teacher time.

Another link to poor behaviour in the research is that other pupils’ misbehaviour can be one of the reasons why pupils may become absentees. A qualitative study undertaken by Attwood and Croll (2006) included interviews with 17 “persistent truants”³⁰ aged 15 or 16. In three of the interview cases, a change of school had led to the pupil engaging in persistent truanting, with reasons given by respondents for the change in their attendance being that they did not like the atmosphere or pupils at the new school, including bullying from other pupils or a general dislike of the disruptive behaviour of other pupils. In these three cases, the pupils had previously enjoyed and liked school. A dislike of aspects of other pupils’ behaviour was mentioned by nearly half of the interview sample, including pupil misbehaviour, disruptive behaviour and other pupils preventing respondents from concentrating in class (Attwood and Croll, 2006).

Similar results were also found in another small-scale qualitative study which interviewed 13 secondary pupils in one LA who had been identified as having “severe attendance problems”³¹ (Davies and Lee, 2006). Some pupils in the study reported that bullying and intimidation from other pupils was a factor

³⁰ Self-identified truancy of at least one day per week or its equivalent in the past year (Attwood and Croll, 2006).

³¹ No definition was given as to what constitutes ‘severe’.

that preceded their decision not to attend school. The same study also identified difficult pupil-teacher relationships and interactions as being a factor which may lead some pupils to self-exclude.

4.6 Long term outcomes

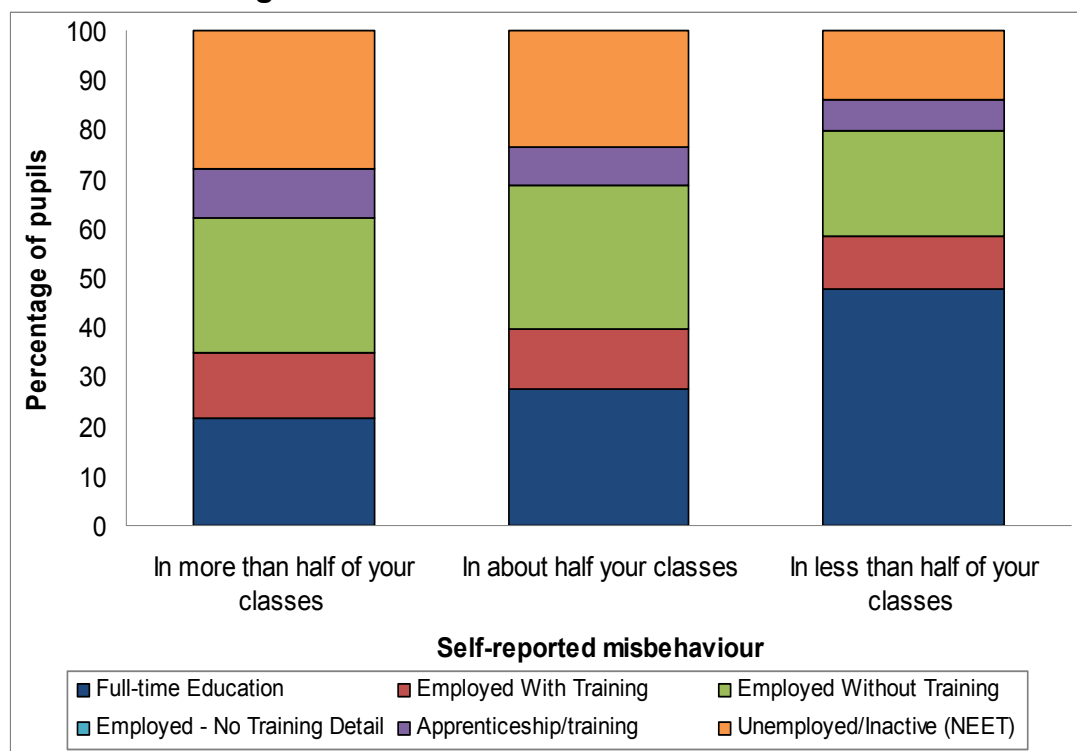
This section looks at the long term outcomes following poor behaviour in school or for those pupils with conduct problems.

4.6.1 Poor behaviour and the risk of being not in education, employment or training

This section looks at the association between behaviour and the risk of being not in education, employment or training (NEET) after leaving school using data from the LSYPE.

As can be seen in Chart 4.3, pupils who self-reported misbehaviour in more than half of their classes were less likely than others to be in full-time education at age 18. Pupils who reported misbehaving in more than half of their classes were also more likely to be unemployed/inactive (NEET) at age 18 compared with pupils who reported misbehaving in about half or in less than half of their classes. A similar, though less distinctive pattern was also seen for pupils who reported others' misbehaviour in classes (chart not shown).

Chart 4.3: Pupil self-reported misbehaviour in class at age 14 by destinations at age 18



Source: LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 6 (2009).

Further analysis for this topic note of LSYPE data shows that different aspects of pupil behaviour are associated with the likelihood of being NEET. Three

separate logistic regression models were run for NEET status in the May of each year at ages 16, 17 and 18. A wide range of different pupil, family and school factors were included in this analysis as well as the misbehaviour and attitudes towards school factors included in the other analysis in this chapter.

There were some predictors of NEET status which were common to the three models: being a child looked after by an LA at age 14; low prior attainment at KS2; being eligible for FSM at age 14; persistent absence from school; and having parents with a socio-economic class lower than 'Higher Professional'. English as an Additional Language (EAL) status predicted a lower likelihood of being NEET. Previous exclusion from school were also common predictors in the models for ages 16 and 17. Self-reported misbehaviour was only significant in the model for age 16, and only for those reporting their misbehaviour in half of classes or 'now and then'.

This section will now concentrate on the results for NEET status at age 17 (where NEET status is less affected by other confounding factors like gap years at age 18 (Britton et al, 2011)). Although, a number of wider factors were also associated with increased likelihood of being NEET, there were some significant behaviour and attitude factors (Chart 4.4). Pupils who reported misbehaviour by others in most of their classes (at age 14), had 3.5 times the odds of being NEET at the age of 17 compared with those who said it was not a problem. Those who felt at age 14 that 'most of the time I don't want to go to school'; or that discipline in their school was 'too strict' were also more likely to be NEET at age 17 (Chart 4.4).

Chart 4.4: Odds of young person being NEET at age 17 controlling for different pupil characteristics



* Factors marked with an asterisk represent the reference group for each category.

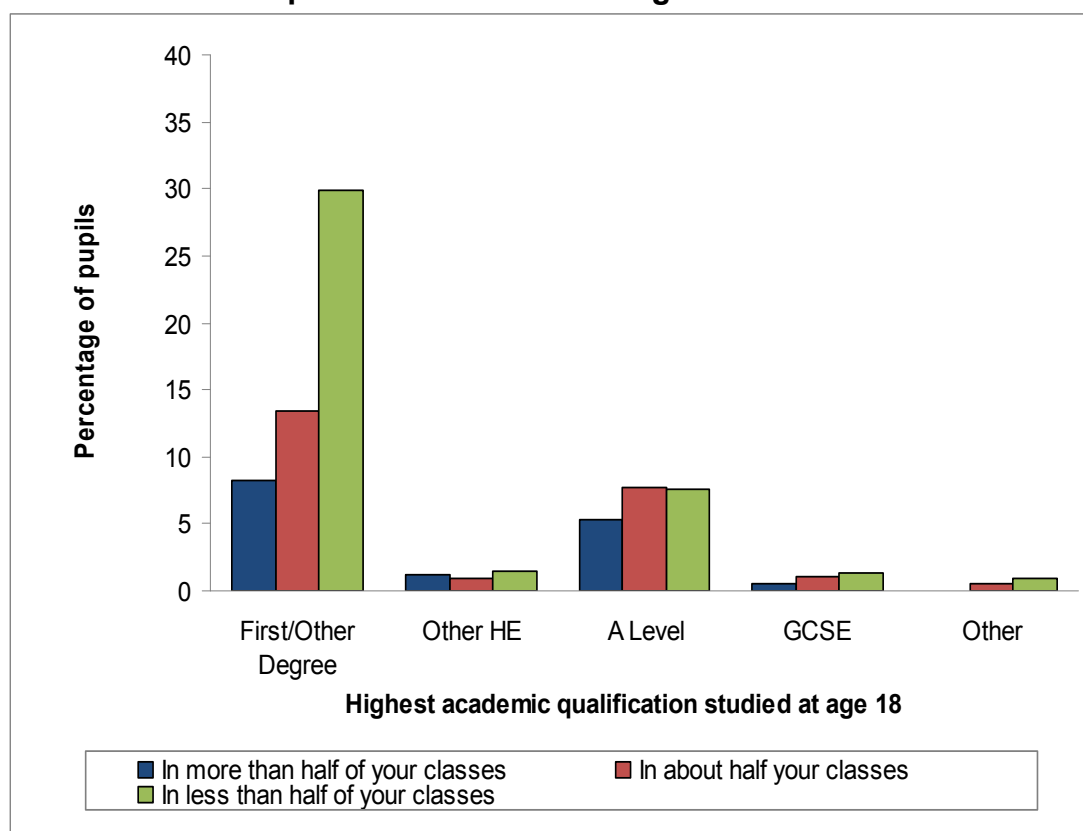
Source: LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 5 (2008)

4.6.2 Poor behaviour and higher education at age 18

This section looks at the type of higher education attended by pupils in the LSYPE when they are 18, according to their levels of self-reported misbehaviour in class at age 14. The data is taken from wave one of the

LSYPE when pupils were aged 13/14 and wave six, where they were aged 18/19.

Chart 4.5: Pupil self-reported misbehaviour in class at age 14 by highest level of academic qualification studied at age 18

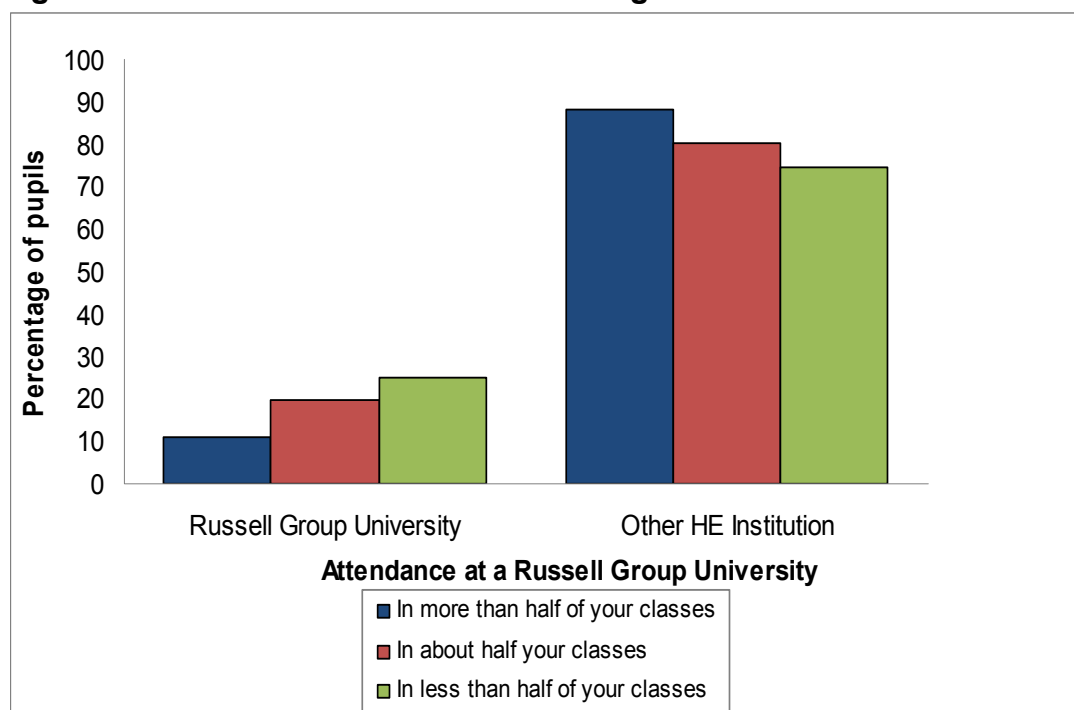


Source: LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 6 (2009)

Chart 4.5 shows that pupils who self-reported misbehaviour in less than half of their classes were more likely than those who reported their own misbehaviour in more than half of their classes to go on to study for a first/other degree at age 18. Indeed, of pupils who reported misbehaving in less than half of their classes around 30% were studying for a first/other degree and at age 18, compared with less than 10% of pupils who reported misbehaving in more than half of their classes at age 14.

The LSYPE also allows analysis of the type of higher education institution attended by pupils in the cohort at age 18 and their self-reported misbehaviour in class when they were 14. As can be seen in Chart 4.6, pupils who self-reported misbehaving in less than half of their classes were more likely to be attending a Russell Group university at age 18 compared to those who reported misbehaving in more than half of their classes. However, this does not show a direct relationship between misbehaviour and type of HE entry because pupils who self-report misbehaviour tend to have other characteristics associated with low attainment.

Chart 4.6: Pupil self-reported misbehaviour in class at age 14 by type of higher education institution attended at age 18



Source: LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 6 (2009)

4.6.3 Long term outcomes for pupils with conduct problems

This section looks at those studies which have investigated the long term outcomes for children and young people with conduct or emotional problems. Much of the evidence comes from the three earliest British birth cohort studies where the cohorts have reached adulthood: the National Survey of Health and Development (NSHD) following a cohort born in 1946; the National Child Development Study (NCDS, born in 1958) and the British Cohort Study (BCS70, born in 1970). It should be noted that although there is evidence to suggest a link between behavioural problems in childhood and adolescence with less positive outcomes in later life, there are potentially many other factors which influence long-term and adult outcomes. As such, it is not necessarily that these problems ‘cause’ or ‘lead to’ certain outcomes in the short and long term, and that it is possible that other factors may contribute to its impact, or have a greater impact than behaviour in childhood and adolescence.

According to secondary analysis of the three longitudinal birth cohort studies, adolescent conduct and emotional problems were associated with increasing severity of emotional problems experienced in adulthood (Richards et al, 2009). The authors report a wide range of adverse outcomes in adult life for those identified as having conduct problems in childhood, arguing that most of the effects could not be accounted for by either socio-economic background or childhood IQ.

Richards et al (2009) found that people who had mild conduct problems in childhood were twice as likely to have no educational qualifications in early adulthood, and that those with severe conduct problems were up to four times

less likely to have any educational qualifications. Mild and severe conduct problems were associated with reduced economic activity, and those with conduct problems in work earned up to 30% less than others. In addition, experiencing an adolescent conduct problem was associated with never marrying in women, and with divorce and teenage parenthood. The authors also report that those with conduct problems during adolescence were up to four times more likely to have been arrested in early adulthood and were also up to three and a half times more likely to have a court conviction.

Colman et al (2009) undertook an analysis on various lifestyle and personal outcomes of children included in the 1946 longitudinal study (the NSHD) at ages 36, 43 and 53. The study included teacher ratings of participants' behaviour at ages 13 and 15³². The study found that those aged 13 or 15 who had either mild or severe externalising behaviour (for example, aggression and oppositional defiance) were more likely to leave school with no qualifications compared with other adolescents. Indeed, 65% of those with severe externalising behaviour left school without any qualifications and 52% of those with mild externalising behaviour left school without any qualifications, compared with 31% of participants with no externalising behaviour. Colman et al (2009) also reported that symptoms of depression and anxiety were more common among adults who had been identified at ages 13 and 15 as having severe externalising behaviour, and that such individuals were more likely to report a history of nervous trouble. The authors also report that those with mild or severe externalizing behaviour in adolescence were more likely to become parents during their teenage years.

Analysis of the outcomes for the NCDS and BCS70 cohorts also showed that for adolescents with high levels of conduct problems there were associations with a range of other poor outcomes, including homelessness, dependence on state benefits and teenage parenthood (Collishaw et al, 2004).

However, caution should be adopted when asserting correlations between conduct problems in childhood and adolescence with longer term or adult outcomes, as other factors may also play a role in adult outcomes. Indeed, in a similar longitudinal study of young people identified by their teachers and parents at ages seven, eight and nine as presenting with disruptive, oppositional and conduct behaviour tendencies in New Zealand, Ferguson et al (2005) reported that other factors may in part explain the potentially negative adult outcomes of childhood behavioural problems. They found that those in the Christchurch Health and Development Study who were identified as being in the most disturbed 5% of the cohort³³ had lower levels of educational achievement in adulthood (ages 21-25) and higher rates of unemployment and welfare dependence. However, the authors were keen to point out that the significance and strength of this association weakened after

³² Teachers were asked to rate the frequency of certain behaviours, such as disobedience, lying, lack of punctuality, restlessness, truancy, day dreaming in class and poor response to discipline, as occurring more frequently, with about the same frequency, or less frequently than other pupils in the class.

³³ The sample size was 973.

control for covariates was undertaken. The authors found that once confounding factors which included measures of child and family adversity and measures of individual statistics were taken into account, the associations between conduct problems reported at ages seven, eight and nine and later educational and occupational outcomes became small and statistically insignificant.

4.7 Exclusion from school

This section looks briefly at the evidence on exclusion from school. It summarises the evidence on the rate of and reasons for exclusion, the characteristics of those most likely to be excluded and the outcomes for those excluded from school. A more detailed report of the data related to exclusion from school can be found in the recent DfE report on pupil exclusions (DfE, 2012b).

4.7.1 Permanent exclusions

In the latest data available data (2009/10 academic year), there were 5,740 permanent exclusions from maintained primary, state-funded secondary³⁴ and special schools in England. This translates to an exclusion rate of 0.08% or eight out of every 10,000 pupils. For the 2008/09 academic year, there were 6,550 permanent exclusions from maintained primary, state-funded secondary and special schools, a rate of 0.09% of pupils (DfE, 2012b).

The majority of permanent exclusions were in the secondary sector. In 2009/10, there were 5,020 permanent exclusions in state funded secondary schools, equating to 0.15% of the secondary school population (of which 590 were from Academies equating to 0.30% of the academy population). In the same period, there were 620 permanent exclusions from primary schools, equating to 0.02% of the primary school population, and there were 100 from special schools, equating to 0.11% of the special school population (DfE, 2012b).

4.7.2 Fixed period exclusions

In 2009/10 there were 331,380 fixed period exclusions from maintained primary, state-funded secondary and special schools in England, equating to 4.46% of the school population. This is down from 363,280 exclusions in 2008/09 (a rate of 4.89%) (DfE, 2012b).

As with permanent exclusions, the majority of fixed period exclusions occur in the secondary sector. In 2009/10, there were 279,260 fixed period exclusions from state funded secondary schools, 8.59% of the state-funded secondary school population (of which 28,440 were from Academies, 14.72% of the academy population). There were 37,210 fixed period exclusions from maintained primary schools equating to 0.91% of the primary school population and 14,910 for maintained and non-maintained special schools, equating to 16.46% of the school population (DfE, 2012b).

³⁴ Maintained secondary schools, City Technology Colleges and Academies are collectively referred to as state-funded secondary schools.

4.7.3 Reasons for exclusion

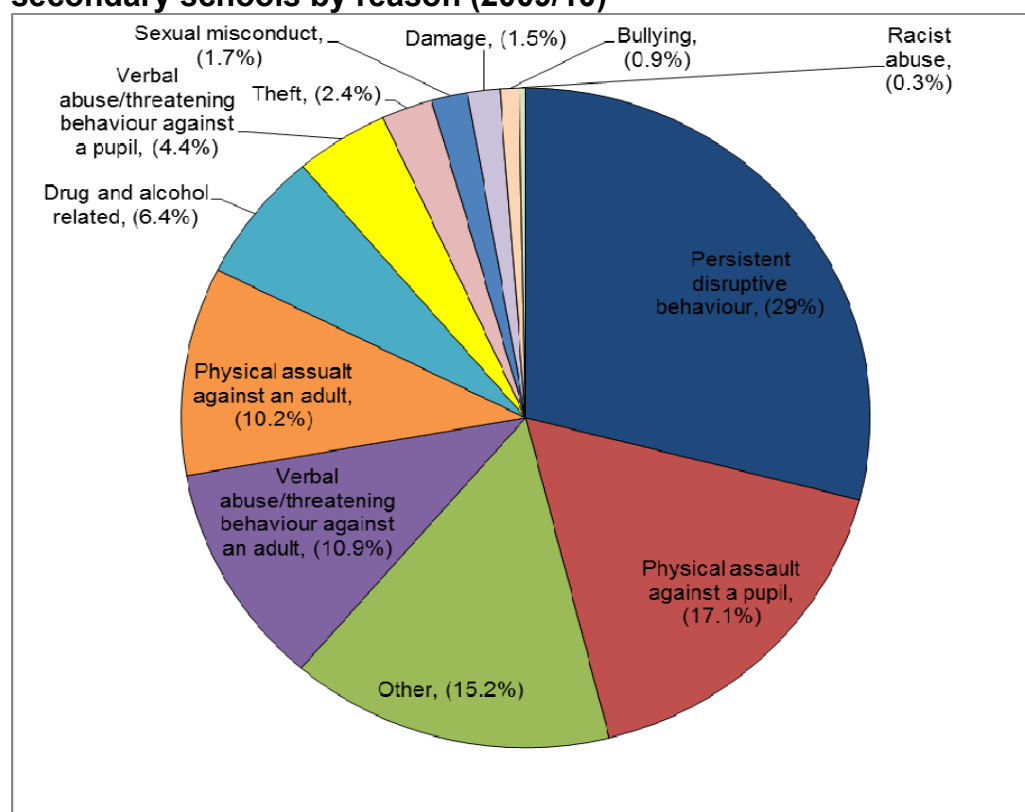
This section looks at the reasons schools provide for why a pupil has been excluded, as recorded in the School Census.

4.7.3.1 Permanent exclusions

The most common reason recorded for permanent exclusion in all state funded schools in 2009/10 was persistent disruptive behaviour (29.0%). The second most common reason was physical assault against a pupil at 17.1% (DfE, 2012b).

Persistent disruptive behaviour was the most common reason for a pupil being permanently excluded in both primary and secondary schools (30.1% and 29.0% respectively). In special schools this was the second most common reason (17.6%), the most common reason being physical assault against an adult (33.7%). The next most common reason in primary schools was physical assault against an adult (29.1%) whereas for secondary schools it was physical assault against a pupil (17.4%) (Chart 4.7).

Chart 4.7: Permanent exclusions in maintained primary and state-funded secondary schools by reason (2009/10)



Source: DfE (2012b)

4.7.3.2 Fixed period exclusions

The most common reason recorded for fixed period exclusions from maintained primary schools, state funded secondary schools, and special schools in England in 2009/10 was persistent disruptive behaviour, accounting for 23.8% of fixed period exclusions. The second most common

reason recorded was verbal abuse/threatening behaviour against an adult (20.9%), followed by physical assault against a pupil (19.3%) (DfE, 2012b).

As with permanent exclusions, the most common reason for receiving a fixed period exclusion in primary and secondary schools was persistent disruptive behaviour (27.5% and 23.4% of exclusions respectively). The next most common reason for primary schools was physical assault against a pupil (24.3%) whereas for secondary schools this was verbal abuse/ threatening behaviour against an adult (22.4%). For special schools the two most common reasons for exclusions were physical assault against an adult and persistent disruptive behaviour (accounting for 21.0% and 20.7% of fixed period exclusions, respectively) (Chart not shown).

4.7.4 Characteristics of excluded pupils

Certain groups are more likely to be excluded from school (whether permanently or for a fixed period) than others (DfE, 2012b). For the 2009/10 academic year:

- The permanent exclusion rate for boys was approximately four times higher than that for girls, and three times higher for fixed period exclusions. Boys represented 78% of the total number of permanent exclusions and around 75% of all fixed period exclusions.
- Boys were more likely to be excluded (both permanently and for a fixed period) at a younger age than girls, with very few girls being excluded during the primary years.
- The most common point for both boys and girls to be excluded was at ages 13 and 14 (equivalent to year groups 9 and 10); around 53% of all permanent exclusions were of pupils from these age groups.
- Pupils with a statement of Special Educational Needs (SEN) were around eight times more likely to receive a permanent exclusion than pupils with no SEN, and were nine times more likely to receive a fixed period exclusion. Pupils with behavioural, emotional and social difficulties (BESD) have the highest rate of fixed period and permanent exclusion.
- Pupils who are eligible for Free School Meals were around four times more likely to receive a permanent exclusion, and were around three times more likely to receive a fixed period exclusion than children who are not eligible for Free School Meals.
- The rate of exclusions was highest for Traveller of Irish Heritage, and Gypsy/Roma pupils followed by Black Caribbean pupils. Caution is recommended in interpreting the data for Traveller of Irish Heritage pupils and Gypsy/Roma pupils due to potential under-reporting and small numbers for these ethnic groups. Black Caribbean pupils were nearly four times more likely to receive a permanent exclusion than the school population as a whole and were twice as likely to receive a fixed period exclusion.

Further detail on the breakdown of characteristics is included in the DfE report (DfE, 2012b).

4.8 Impact on teacher job satisfaction, recruitment, retention, and health

This section explores the evidence on the association between poor pupil behaviour and teacher recruitment, retention, job satisfaction and health, including mental health. It should be noted that it is not possible to prove causation between pupil behaviour and factors such as teacher health and retention, and there may be other factors that impact on teacher job satisfaction, recruitment, retention and health.

4.8.1 Teacher job satisfaction

To understand how teacher attitudes towards pupil behaviour had changed over time, Klassen and Anderson (2009) examined secondary teacher job satisfaction and sources of job dissatisfaction for 210 secondary school teachers in the southwest of England, comparing the results to a similar study (Rudd and Wiseman 1962 in Klassen and Anderson, 2009) involving 416 teachers. The authors report that the teachers surveyed in 2007 rated their job satisfaction significantly lower and ordered a set of 16 sources of job dissatisfaction significantly differently compared with the 1962 respondents. In general, teachers in the 1962 survey reported being most concerned with external sources of job dissatisfaction such as poor human relations and salary, whereas teachers in 2007 were more concerned with factors related to teaching itself, including time and teaching load.

Teachers in the 2007 survey ranked 'pupils' behaviour' as second in the list of 16 sources of job dissatisfaction, after more time needed. Teachers in the 1962 study rated pupils' behaviour fourteenth. In addition, teachers in the 2007 survey ranked pupils' attitudes third, interruptions to lessons eighth and noise ninth. The corresponding rankings for the 1962 study were twelfth, fifteenth and sixteenth. Although this was a very small-scale comparative study, it is interesting to note the changes in the perceived importance of sources of job satisfaction for teachers in the 2007 and 1962 studies, with issues around pupil behaviour, attitudes, classroom noise and interruptions appearing to be more salient for the 2007 cohort compared with the teachers in the 1962 study.

4.8.2 Teacher demotivation, recruitment and retention

Surveys of teachers have suggested that pupil behaviour impacts on teacher motivation and retention. In a survey for the General Teaching Council, MORI (2003) interviewed over 70,000 teachers. Almost a third (31%) of all teachers (and 46% of secondary teachers) identified pupil behaviour and discipline as one of the main demotivating factors that they experienced at work (MORI, 2003; House of Commons Education and Skills Committee, 2004). Similarly, a small-scale study of 813 ATL members teaching in primary and secondary schools reported that 65% of respondents felt that poor pupil behaviour had ever made teachers consider changing profession. In addition, 64% of respondents also claimed that colleagues had left teaching due to poor behaviour (ATL, 2008).

In a wave of the 2008 Teacher Voice survey, the majority of respondents (68%) agreed with the statement that in their opinion 'negative pupil behaviour is driving people out of the profession' (NFER, 2008 p11). The same question

was asked again in a February 2012 wave of the survey, and a similar though slightly lower figure was reported, with 60% of respondents agreeing with the statement (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).

Smithers and Robinson (2003) asked recent leavers from the teaching profession to rate various factors they felt contributed to their decision to leave³⁵. The most common reason given by respondents was that their workload was too heavy (45%), followed by government initiatives (36%) and stress (35%). Of teachers asked, poor pupil behaviour was given as a reason for leaving the profession in 23% of responses. However, there was a difference between sectors, with 34% of recent leavers from the secondary sector citing poor pupil behaviour as a reason for leaving the profession, compared with 12% of primary leavers. Overall, for all recent leavers from all school sectors, poor pupil behaviour was ranked eighth out of 16 factors involved in their reason for leaving the profession, indicating that it was not a 'primary' factor. Similarly, other studies (Smithers and Robinson, 2001; Adams, 2001; Barmby and Coe, 2004; Barton, 2004 all in Ashby et al, 2008) have found that poor pupil behaviour is among the most common reasons for giving up a career in teaching. Other reasons included excessive workload, concerns relating to family commitments and job-related stress.

Barmby (2006) undertook a telephone survey of 246 teachers in England and Wales to explore issues around teacher recruitment and retention. Respondents rated pupil behaviour as the factor most likely to dissuade them from entering teaching, followed by workload/marking and salary. It should be noted that multiple responses were permitted for this question, and that the question was retrospective in that it asked respondents to think about factors that may have dissuaded them from entering the profession. Therefore, since respondents were teachers, these may not have been factors that they considered problematic when they were originally entering teaching. When asked for reasons that may make them consider leaving the profession, respondents rated workload/marking as the most common reason, followed by having a family, stress/exhaustion and pupil behaviour. When asked to rate the importance of suggestions on what they felt would help improve teacher retention, 94% of respondents rated support on pupil discipline as 'quite important' or 'very important', the same percentage who rated the reduction of teacher workload as 'quite important' or 'very important' (Barmby, 2006).

Barmby (2006) also undertook a literature review exploring issues around people's motivations to become teachers, reasons people may not enter teaching and factors that might influence a decision to leave teaching. Barmby (2006) cited other studies that mentioned issues such as pupil behaviour and classroom management, along with other factors such as pay and long hours, to be factors that may dissuade undergraduate students from entering the teaching profession (Rawlinson et al, 2003; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000 both in Barmby, 2006). Work by Hutchings et al (2000 in Barmby, 2006) also

³⁵ Sample size 1,051.

notes the potential for pupil behaviour to be a factor in teachers deciding to leave the profession.

The potential of poor pupil behaviour to deter entrants into teaching was also explored by Freedman et al (2008), who polled 1,282 undergraduates who were not in their final year. Indeed, 18% of respondents rated 'feeling unsafe in the classroom' as the biggest deterrent to entering teaching as a profession, compared with the next most common deterrent, which was salary at 17%. Of 1,041 professionals and managers asked, feeling unsafe was the second most common deterrent, with 13% rating it as their primary concern. Amongst this group, salary was the biggest deterrent (20%).

International studies of teachers have to some extent also linked teacher recruitment and retention problems to pupil misbehaviour. Evidence from the US indicates that behaviour had an impact on the decision of those graduates who might consider entering teaching: 54% of 802 graduates surveyed said that they would be more likely to consider becoming a teacher if they could teach pupils that were well behaved (Farkas et al, 2000, cited in Guarino et al, 2006). Ingersoll (2000 in Santiago, 2002), reported that student discipline problems were a factor in dissatisfaction-related turnover in 23% of cases for teachers in the US in 1994-95. However, the most common reason given was poor salary (54%).

4.8.3 Impact on Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs)

Owen et al (2009) undertook small scale research on behalf of the NASUWT into the experiences of 30 newly qualified teachers (NQTs) exploring their working lives before beginning their first teaching post and five years into their careers. NQTs reported that behaviour issues in their schools had impacted on their desire to remain in the profession. Some felt that poor pupil behaviour had impacted on them considering other teaching posts, such as with other pupils or at other schools; others believed that they would probably stop teaching sooner than they anticipated due to poor pupil behaviour.

In a six-year longitudinal study of trainee teachers and NQTs (Hobson et al, 2009), highlighted issues relating to pupil behaviour as one of the most frequently cited negative experiences associated with being a student teacher³⁶. Respondents who had left the profession were asked their motivations for doing so. For those who had left the teaching profession between the completion of their Initial Teacher Training (ITT) and their first four years of teaching, and who did not intend to return to teaching at any point in the future, pupil discipline was the most common reason given for leaving (around a quarter cited pupil behaviour as a cause). Other reasons given were that they could not, or believed that they would not, be able to manage the workload.

The same study indicated that one of the three key factors common to those new teachers who continued in the profession was that, "they reported 'very

³⁶ Between 1,400 and 4,700 individuals were questioned at each stage of the research

good' relationships with pupils and did not regard the behaviour of the pupils they taught as problematic or unacceptable" (Hobson et al, 2009 page 242).

Similar results were found by Purcell et al (2005), who conducted a study which looked at the experiences of graduates at 38 UK higher education institutions who graduated in either 1995 or 1999, focused primarily on the experiences of those who graduated in 1999 who qualified to teach. The authors report that one of the most common negative aspects of teaching indicated by respondents was pupils' behavioural problems. The most frequently cited reasons given for those leaving the teaching profession were workload and working hours.

4.8.4 Impact on teacher stress and mental health

Some small scale studies and teachers' union surveys have shown some evidence of the impact of poor behaviour on teachers' mental health. A survey undertaken by the Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL), found that 34% of 813 respondents claimed that dealing with a disruptive pupil had caused teachers to suffer mental health problems, such as stress (ATL, 2008). In addition, 8% claimed that dealing with a disruptive pupil had led to them taking time off from work, with 12% saying that it had led to them visiting a doctor. In another survey undertaken by ATL of its members, 41% of 1,078 respondents working as teachers in maintained primary schools, claimed to have suffered a loss of confidence at school due to dealing with disruptive pupils, with 27% claiming to have suffered mental health problems such as stress, 5% taking leave from work, and 9% making a visit to the doctor (ATL, 2009). The survey also found that 77% of respondents felt that their job had become more difficult as a result of disruptive pupils.

Chapter 5: The role of schools in improving behaviour

Key findings

- Studies (mainly in the US) have shown that there is a positive link between school climate (beliefs, values and attitudes) and pupil behaviour (LeBlanc et al, 2007; Chen, 2007; McEvoy and Welker, 2000). However, the exact extent and nature of the relationship remains disputed.
- Analysis of the Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE) 3-14 study showed that a poor school behaviour climate as perceived by pupils was a significant predictor of poorer social-behavioural outcomes³⁷ in Year 9 and of poorer social-behavioural developmental progress between Year 6 and Year 9 (Sylva et al, 2012).
- School climate is also linked in the literature to the effectiveness of school leadership (Day et al, 2009).
- In the literature, there is a distinction made between proactive approaches (those that aim to prevent bad behaviour) and reactive approaches (those that deal with bad behaviour after it has happened) to discipline. However, the evidence suggests that combining aspects of both approaches is particularly effective. For example, the use of both (proactive) clear and consistent rules and (reactive) disciplinary policies are required to ensure that pupils know what behaviour is expected of them and what the consequences are of not meeting these expectations (Roy Mayer, 2002; Gottfredson, 1997, quoted in Skiba and Peterson, 2003; Scott, 2012).
- Gregory et al (2010) propose an authoritative approach to improving behaviour, with both structure (involving consistent and fair enforcement of rules) and support (making adult assistance available and pupils being able to perceive care and concern), mirroring the effectiveness of authoritative parenting styles.
- The Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) included questions on pupils' attitudes towards the number of rules and level of discipline in their school. Around three-fifths of pupils thought their schools had the right number of rules and level of discipline.
- Analysis of data from LSYPE shows that after controlling for a wide range of pupil and school factors, pupils who thought that discipline in their school was not strict enough were predicted to get a capped GCSE score of six points more than those who thought the level of discipline was about right (equivalent to gaining one grade higher in one subject).
- There is evidence that in-school provision for pupil behaviour management, such as learning support units, removal rooms and internal exclusions may result in positive pupil outcomes (Ofsted, 2006; Ofsted 2003a, Hallam and Castle, 2001; Wakefield, 2004; Becker et al, 2004).

³⁷ Teacher ratings of hyperactivity (reduced self-control, impulsiveness); anti-social behaviour (verbal abuse, aggression); pro-social behaviour (peer empathy, co-operation, altruism); and self-regulation (problem-solving, motivation, self-confidence).

- A review of the evidence on effective strategies for children with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) in mainstream education showed some evidence of effectiveness for children of primary age for strategies based on behavioural models (including reward systems). Approaches based on cognitive behavioural models showed positive effects for children aged between eight and 12 (including counselling programmes, social skills training and a role-reversal programme) (Evans et al, 2003).
- Other school-level strategies shown in the literature to improve pupil behaviour to a lesser or greater extent include: the use of token systems for delivering rewards and sanctions; arranging seating in rows and the use of seating plans; and the use of support staff (Blatchford et al, 2009; Evans et al, 2003; Wannarka and Ruhl, 2008; Ofsted, 2005). The evidence on the effect of school uniforms is mixed (Brunsma and Rockquemore, 1998; Han, 2010).
- The direct involvement of parents with their child's school (e.g. through meetings with teachers or volunteering in school) has also been shown to be positively related to pupil behaviour (Pomerantz et al, 2007).

Introduction

This chapter describes the evidence on the associations between school climate and behaviour and what works at school level to influence pupil behaviour. The chapter explores the following four main themes: the impact of school climate, school leadership and the overall approach to discipline; how rules and discipline are perceived by pupils and the associations between these perceptions and attainment; the strategies that can be applied at school level to improve behaviour; and how schools can work with parents to improve behaviour.

5.1 School climate

The literature on school climate focuses mainly on the extent of the role that climate plays in improving academic performance and pupil behaviour, the perceptions of staff and pupils about climate and the factors which influence the positive or negative views of climate (McEvoy and Welker, 2000; Mitchell et al, 2010). Some researchers use 'climate' interchangeably with the terms 'ethos' or 'culture' and this adds to the problem with defining what it is (McLaughlin, 2005). School climate is defined by one study as the "shared beliefs, values and attitudes that shape interactions between students, teachers and administrators" (Mitchell et al, 2010 p272). Other studies have highlighted the clarity, fairness and consistency of rules as one aspect of school climate and pupils' perception of it (Welsh et al, 2000 cited in Chen, 2007; Way et al, 2007).

5.1.1 School climate and behaviour

A number of US studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between school climate and behaviour (LeBlanc et al, 2007); however, the extent of that relationship and whether it is sufficient to counter-act the influence of social disadvantage and parental/family factors is disputed. Welsh et al (2000) (cited in Chen, 2007) showed that school climate was a predictor of school disorder but that it predicted less serious misconduct more strongly

than serious offending. In Way et al's 2007 study of trajectories of students' perceptions of school climate, declines in teacher support, peer support, student autonomy, and clarity and consistency in school rules were associated with declines in psychological and behavioural adjustment. Supporters of the importance of school climate also point to the existence of high achieving schools located in diverse and economically challenged areas as evidence that schools do make a difference even if some of the models show only small effects compared with family and socio-economic factors (McEvoy and Welker, 2000).

Further evidence for the positive effect of school climate on behaviour comes from the EPPSE 3-14 study. Pupils in Year 9 were asked to rate the behaviour climate in their school with questions that included aspects such as peer pressure against those who work hard, ignoring school rules, frequent fights or the presence of weapons in school. Analysis showed that a poor behaviour climate was a significant predictor of lower scores on the positive social-behavioural outcomes (lower 'self-regulation' and pro-social behaviour) and higher scores on the negative social-behavioural outcomes (higher scores for hyperactivity and anti-social behaviour). After taking account of other individual, family and home learning environment influences, poor behavioural climate was also linked to further declines in the positive outcomes and increases in the negative outcomes for these pupils between Years 6 and 9. Pupils' attainment was also found to be higher where they perceived a more positive behaviour climate in their secondary school, and this was particularly noticeable for maths (Sylva et al, 2012).

5.1.2 School climate and leadership

School climate is also linked in the literature to the effectiveness of school leadership. A study of the impact of school leadership on pupil outcomes, identified schools which had shown significantly better academic and effectiveness outcomes than other schools between 2003 and 2005 (Day et al, 2009). Staff were asked about their perceptions of the extent of changes in practices related to school climate, culture and pupil behaviour and outcomes during the three years from 2003. Heads and staff in schools that had started from a low base and improved moderately or highly were more likely to perceive an improvement in disciplinary climate during that time. Although staff in those schools that had started from a high academic base were more likely to report no change in climate, this was possibly because they had also started with a high standard of pupil behaviour. Head teachers were shown to be contributing to better attainment through improving teacher collaborative culture, pupil motivation, behaviour and attendance.

Again, there is also evidence from EPPSE 3-14, where pupil ratings of head teacher qualities (such as being visible around school and being interested in what pupils learn) predicted better social-behavioural outcomes on the four measures ('self-regulation', pro-social behaviour, hyperactivity and anti-social behaviour) (Sylva et al, 2012).

5.2 Overall approach to school discipline

Much of the recent international literature on school discipline is split between the roles played by reactive approaches versus proactive ones. Reactive measures include the use of lectures, detentions and exclusions following pupil misbehaviour. Proactive measures include the use of praise, reward and behaviour modification programmes which aim to prevent misbehaviour (Cameron, 2006; Clunies-Ross et al, 2008). One criticism of reactive or punitive measures is that they may have unintended consequences; for example, pupils learn how to avoid punishment instead of self-discipline or reactions against punishments lead to the worsening of behaviour in the long-term (Cameron, 2006; Bear, 2011). A further criticism, particularly of the use of “zero tolerance” programmes in the US, is that disciplinary measures including exclusions have a potential racial bias, in that they are disproportionately used for African-American and Latino students (Cameron, 2006; Skiba et al, 2011). Some research has found that positive strategies can increase pupil on-task behaviour compared with the use of disapproval or reactive strategies (Houghton et al, 1990, cited in Arbuckle and Little, 2004). However, there is also evidence that while reactive strategies may be related to decreased on-task behaviour, the use of proactive strategies may not be associated with increased on-task behaviour (Clunies-Ross et al, 2008).

There is some evidence for there being benefits to combining the different approaches to school discipline. Even within the literature advocating preventative or positive policies (and especially in that advocating school-wide positive behaviour support programmes) there is an acknowledgement that clear and consistent rules and disciplinary policies are required to ensure that pupils know what behaviour is expected of them (Roy Mayer, 2002; Gottfredson, 1997, quoted in Skiba and Peterson, 2003; Scott, 2012). Bear (2011) advocates the use of positive reinforcement over the use of punishment, but also that where punishment (particularly milder forms such as verbal reprimands and removal of privileges) are already shown to be effective, these could be sparingly used in addition to positive reinforcement.

In analysing data from US school principals in the School Survey of Crime and Safety, Nickerson and Spears (2007), showed that rural schools were more prone to use approaches which could be characterised as authoritarian such as zero tolerance or use of security staff. However, large urban schools were more likely to use authoritarian alongside educational/ therapeutic measures (such as improving school climate or implementing violence prevention programmes). Gregory et al (2010) propose an authoritative (as opposed to authoritarian) approach to improving behaviour in schools. By using both structure (involving consistent and fair enforcement of rules) and support (making adult assistance available and pupils being able to perceive care and concern) and thereby mirroring the effectiveness of authoritative parenting styles, they argue that the level of bullying or victimisation in schools can be reduced more effectively than with a less flexible, authoritarian approach.

5.2.1 Whole-school behaviour policies

A school's approach to behaviour and discipline is often set out in its behaviour policy. Where in place, this describes what is expected of pupils and how good behaviour will be rewarded, poor behaviour and bullying punished, and what is expected of staff. Radford (2000) describes how this should be carefully developed to ensure that the whole school, both pupils and adults, have a consistent set of behaviour policies that match the agreed values of the school.

In a survey of NASUWT members in March 2009, the vast majority of teachers (93%) who responded to the survey said that their schools had a whole-school behaviour policy. However, not all teachers had confidence in the support they would receive from school management in dealing with disruptive pupils. Three-fifths (61%) said they lacked confidence that they would receive swift support when a disruptive pupil was referred to school management and over two-thirds (71%) lacked confidence that they would receive timely feedback about a pupil when they are returned to class (NASUWT, 2010).

A follow-up survey from December 2009 of teachers and head teachers working in special schools and other specialist settings, showed a slightly less positive picture. Eight out of ten respondents (82%) said their school had established a whole-school behaviour policy, 10% did not know if their school had a policy in place, and 7% said that their school did not have a pupil behaviour policy. When asked about whether behaviour policies had been applied consistently by all staff, only 37% felt confident that this was the case. In terms of all schools that had a pupil behaviour policy that included a referral process, around half of the respondents (54%) were confident that the school's referral system worked effectively (NASUWT, 2010).

5.3 Pupils' attitudes towards school rules and discipline

The Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) included questions on pupils' attitudes towards school climate. Pupils were asked about the number of rules and level of discipline in their school³⁸. Tables 5.1 and 5.2 show pupils' views on the number of rules and level of discipline in their school.

Table 5.1: Pupils' perceptions about the number of rules in school

	Number	Percentage
Too many rules	4,790	31%
About the right number of rules	9,280	61%
Not enough rules	1,200	8%
Total	15,270	100%

Source: LSYPE Wave 1 (2004)

³⁸ See Annex A for more information on LSYPE.

Table 5.2: Pupils' perceptions about the level of discipline in school

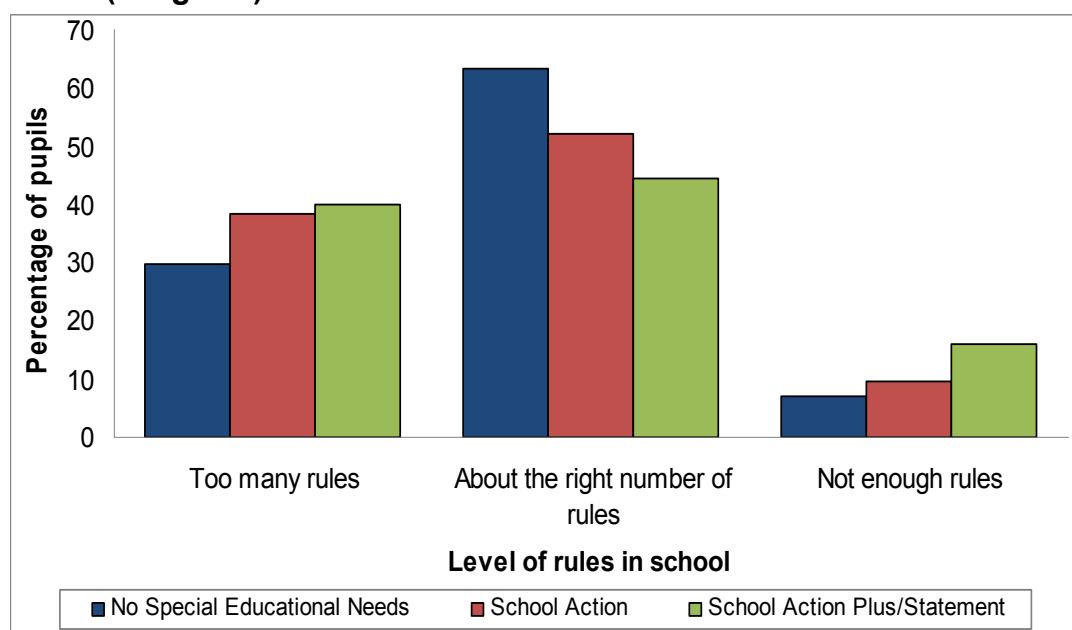
	Number	Percentage
Too strict	3,610	24%
About the right level of discipline	9,170	60%
Not strict enough	2,500	16%
Total	15,290	100%

Source: LSYPE Wave 1 (2004)

It can be seen that in both cases around 60% of pupils were positive about the number of rules and level of discipline in school. More pupils however, thought that there were too many rules in school rather than the discipline was too strict (31% compared with 24%).

Pupils in receipt of Free School Meals (FSM) were more likely to disagree with the number of rules in school than non-FSM pupils (51% compared with 37%). Similarly, FSM pupils were also more likely to agree that the level of school discipline is too strict. There is a correlation between Special Educational Needs at School Action Plus or with a Statement and negative perceptions about the level of rules in a school, which is shown in Chart 5.1.

Chart 5.1: Pupils' perceptions about the level of rules in school by SEN status (at age 14)



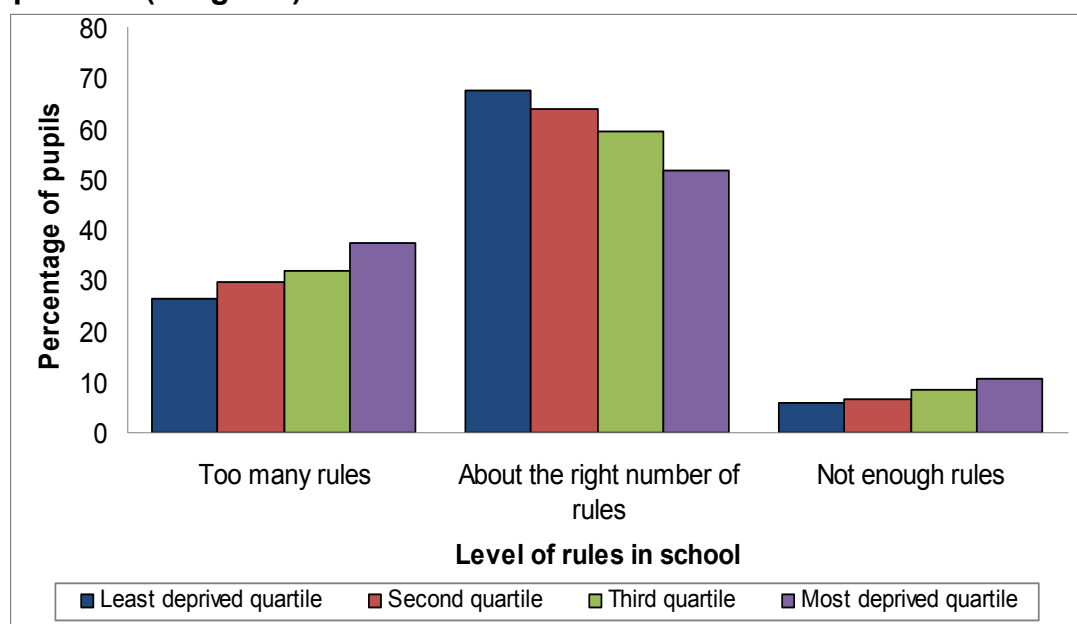
Source: LSYPE Wave 1 (2004)

The higher the level of SEN³⁹ the more pupils view their school as having either not enough or too many rules. A similar pattern can be seen in Chart 5.2, when looking at the relationship with the Income Deprivation Affecting

³⁹ The three categories of SEN are: School Action – a teacher identifies a child with SEN and provides interventions; School Action Plus – as with school action, but with help from external Services; Statemented – the Local Authority provides a written statement of SEN for the child.

Children Index (IDACI) score⁴⁰, with pupils from more deprived areas more likely to think the number of rules in their school as either too high or too low.

Chart 5.2: Pupils' perceptions about the level of rules in school by IDACI quartiles (at age 14)

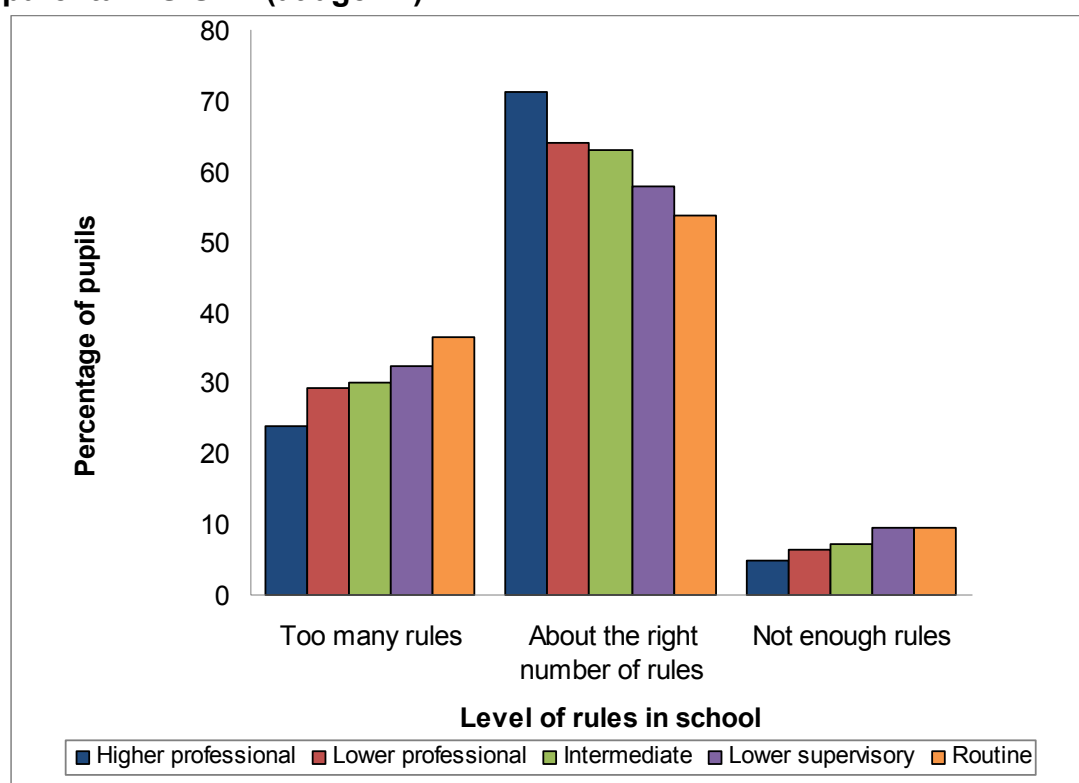


Source: LSYPE Wave 1 (2004)

There is also an association between parental socio-economic status and pupils' perceptions about the level of rules and discipline in school. A pupil with at least one parent of 'higher professional' status is more likely to think there were the right number of rules than other pupils (Chart 5.3). Those with low aspirations or who were unsure about what they wanted to do after age 16 were also more likely to have negative attitudes towards the levels of rules and discipline in school.

⁴⁰ IDACI is a measure of deprivation for children aged between 0-15 in small geographical areas in England. It covers children living in income deprived households defined as "either families receiving Income Support or income-based Jobseeker's Allowance or Pension Credit (Guarantee) or those not in receipt of these benefits but in receipt of Child Tax Credit with an equivalised income (excluding housing benefits) below 60% of the national median before housing costs" (McLennan et al, 2011 p5). The IDACI is expressed as the proportion of all children aged between 0 and 15 living in income deprived families.

Chart 5.3: Pupils' perceptions about the level of rules in school by parental NS-SEC (at age 14)



Source: LSYPE Wave 1 (2004)

5.3.1 Effect of attitudes towards school discipline or rules on KS4 attainment

Using the same model as described in Section 4.3⁴¹, which controlled for prior attainment, socio-economic background and other characteristics, it was found that pupil attitudes to the level of discipline in their schools had a significant effect on their attainment at the end of KS4⁴². As can be seen from Chart 5.4, pupils (at age 14) who thought discipline in their school was not strict enough are predicted to achieve a grade higher in one subject at KS4 compared with pupils who thought the level of discipline was about right⁴³. In contrast, pupils who thought discipline was too strict or that there were too many rules are predicted to achieve lower grades at KS4. As stated in Section 4.3, the effects in the model are additive, which means that the impact on attainment for a pupil who has more than one characteristic is equal to the combined impact for each of these characteristics. Therefore, pupils who agreed that there were too many rules and discipline was too strict are predicted to achieve a combined 10 points fewer (roughly equivalent to a

⁴¹ See Annex B for a list of the variables included in this modelling.

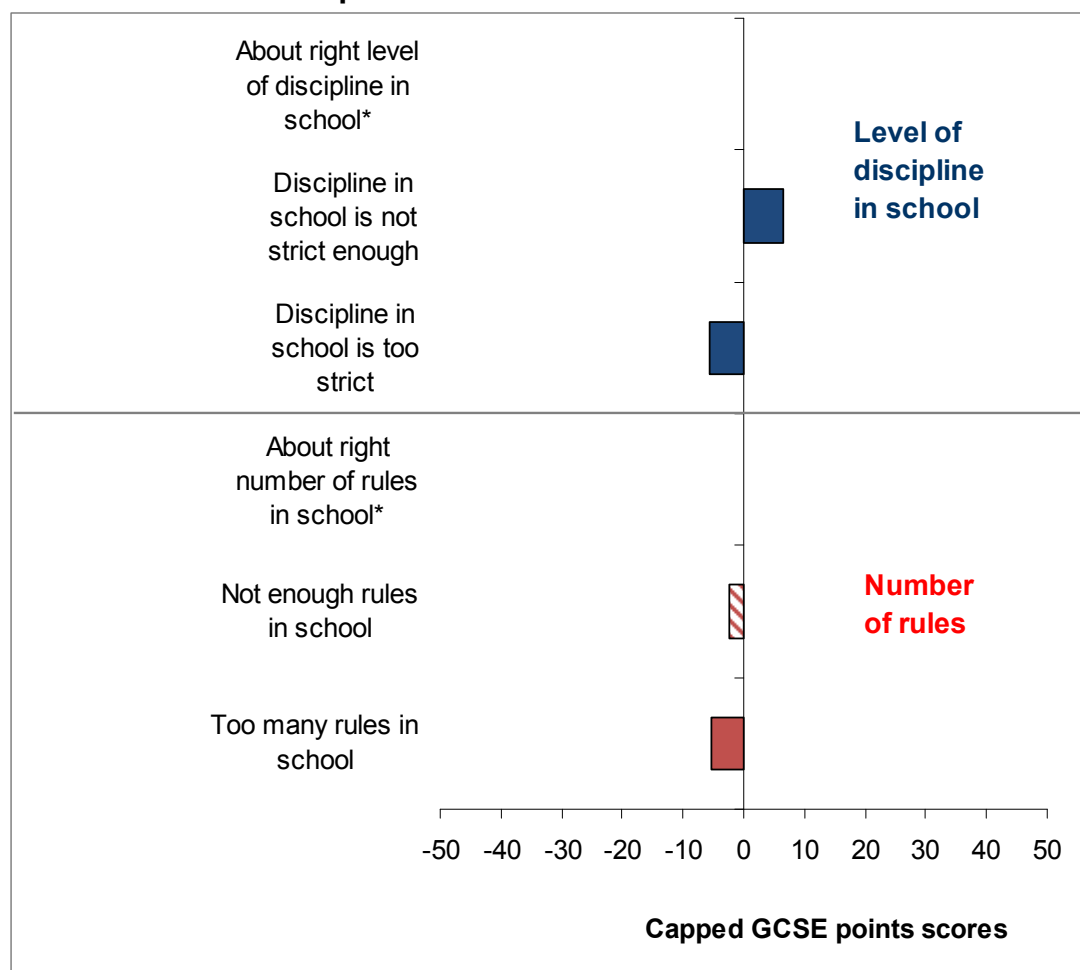
⁴² The analysis used capped GCSE scores which are calculated using a pupil's best eight GCSE scores or equivalent grades.

⁴³ To interpret these figures, one grade in one GCSE subject is worth six capped GCSE points (DfE, 2012a), i.e. the difference of six points between those who thought discipline was not strict enough and those who thought it was about right is the equivalent of getting one grade higher in one subject, e.g. an A grade as opposed to a B grade.

grade lower in two subjects) compared with peers who thought the level of discipline and number of rules in school were about right.

The analysis of the EPPSE 3-14 study (discussed in Section 5.1.2) suggested a clear positive relationship between pupil ratings of school behaviour climate (in its broadest sense) and attainment. This analysis of the LSYPE data on perceptions of discipline and rules is less clear cut. Although pupils who felt that the number of rules in their school was about right did better than those who did not, those who felt that their school was not strict enough actually had higher attainment than those who did not. As discussed in Section 4.3, this could possibly reflect the fact that pupils who notice a lack of discipline are also the ones who are more motivated (something that could not be controlled for in this model).

Chart 5.4: Effects on KS4 outcomes of components of attitudes to school rules and discipline



* Factors marked with an asterisk represent the reference group for each category. Block colours represent statistically significant effects; shaded cells represent those which are not significantly different from 0.

Source: LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 3 (2006).

5.4 School-level strategies for improving behaviour

This section explores the evidence on the use and effectiveness of various strategies used by schools in response to challenging pupil behaviour. It looks

at the research around the more widely used or effective school-level interventions. There is a distinct overlap in this section between what can be done at school and classroom-level and Chapter 6 goes into more detail about teachers' classroom strategies. However, this overlap is understandable given the belief in the literature that the use of rules, discipline measures and positive supports at both the school and classroom-level should influence and reinforce each other to ensure good behaviour (Mooij, 1999; Scott, 2012).

Some of the evidence suggests that school-level techniques for maintaining behaviour include having consistent and coherent policies and procedures which should be established with unambiguous expectations among staff. There should be systematic monitoring of behavioural issues, and specific staff training and development on implementing a school's behaviour strategy (Becker et al, 2004; Cooper et al, 2001; Cowie et al, 2003).

5.4.1 In-school provision for pupil behaviour management

There is evidence that in-school provision for pupil behaviour management, such as learning support units, removal rooms and internal exclusions may result in positive pupil outcomes such as re-engagement with mainstream education (Ofsted, 2006); reductions in the number of school exclusions (Ofsted, 2006; Ofsted, 2003a; Hallam and Castle, 2001) and improvements in pupils' emotional wellbeing (Wakefield, 2004; Becker et al, 2004). However, there are also some potential weaknesses with in-school provision, such as poor curricular provision (Ofsted, 2006); a lack of pupil targets (Ofsted, 2006); the potential for a decline in rates of attendance (Wakefield, 2004) and potential stigma (Ofsted, 2005; Wakefield, 2004).

Ofsted (2005) reported that on-site support for pupils with additional needs was successful in promoting good behaviour when used as a short-term intervention and where pupils were returned to normal class work as soon as possible. Clear procedures for referral and reintegration, and appropriate learning and behaviour plans, were suggested as key to efficient use of these measures.

A more recent Ofsted report (2011) on nurture groups used with infant and primary age pupils with challenging behaviour outlined what made for effective provision. The inspectors found that for the 29 schools visited, the successful elements were:

- A clearly defined purpose, understood by all;
- Good communication between staff;
- A coherent curriculum and personalised and relevant target-setting, which included behavioural, social and emotional elements as well as academic ones;
- Pupils continuing to belong to their mainstream class;
- Thorough tracking, monitoring and evaluation; and
- Careful reintegration back into mainstream classes.

5.4.2 Specific interventions for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties

A 2003 review (Evans et al, 2003) identified a predominantly US research literature in this area. Synthesis of results from 28 discrete studies provides some indication of which approaches are effective in providing support for pupils with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties (EBD). Some evidence of effectiveness for children of primary age is provided for strategies based on behavioural models. These strategies involved rewards for on-task (i.e. being engaged with an activity), non-disruptive behaviour and loss of rewards for off-task (e.g. wandering around, daydreaming or not being engaged in the school activity) or disruptive behaviour.

Approaches based on cognitive behavioural models for reducing aggression or improving social skills showed positive effects on children aged between eight and 12. Strategies included counselling programmes, social skills training and a role-reversal programme in which children were trained to monitor one another's' disruptive behaviour.

Some of the studies included in the systematic review examined which factors contribute to the success of a strategy. Elements identified included simplicity and consistency of implementation. Further results from this review are also included in Section 5.4.4.

5.4.3 Miscellaneous school-level strategies

In the literature, there are some examples of other strategies that might be adopted at the school-level to improve pupil behaviour:

- **Rewards.** Much of the debate on whether rewards have a positive or negative effect focuses on the impact of using them on the extent of pupils' intrinsic motivation; teacher self-efficacy; and teacher goal orientation (Hoffmann et al, 2009). Evans et al (2003) found evidence from two robust US studies which showed that strategies using token systems for delivering rewards and sanctions were effective for reducing disruptive behaviour in the mainstream classroom. One of these studies along with a further two that were reviewed also incorporated some element of peer support and pressure to these rewards schemes. Kinder (1999, cited in Shreeve et al, 2002), found that the symbolic nature of rewards meant that they held less currency, especially with older pupils and that schools struggled to find rewards with credibility.
- **Seating arrangements.** Reviewing the literature on this, Wannarka and Ruhl (2008) showed that arranging seating in rows might support an improvement in on-task behaviour but it depended on the definitions used and the success of the type of seating systems used was dependent on the nature of the task in hand. Evans et al (2003) found only one study (Hastings and Schweiso, 1995) which indicated that changing the seating arrangements in classrooms from groups to rows had a positive impact on time spent on-task, particularly for the most distractible pupils. This echoes Ofsted's (2005) recommendation that seating plans can mitigate the challenging behaviour of some pupils and the advice of the practitioner group on school behaviour and discipline (DfES, 2006) that, "all teachers

operate a classroom seating plan. This practice needs to be continued after transfer to secondary school” (DfES, 2006 p7).

- Support staff. Blatchford et al (2009) show through systematic observations that the presence of support staff has a positive effect on classroom control and a reduction in the amount that adults have to deal with pupils’ negative behaviour.
- Class size. Finn et al (2003) reviewed 10 studies that measured the effect of class size on pupils’ anti-social and pro-social behaviour. Although there were some exceptions, mainly the studies showed that smaller class sizes resulted in reduced anti-social behaviour but the evidence for the impact on pro-social behaviour was less convincing. One of the studies used was English Class Size and Pupil Adult Ratio (CSPAR) study. As part of this study, it was found that in larger classes at Key Stage 1, there was more off-task behaviour displayed by pupils, such as wandering around or doing something else (Blatchford et al, 2003 in DfE, 2011b). There was also a negative relationship between aggressive behaviour between pupils and class-size (Blatchford et al, 2003). Later research (Blatchford et al, 2004 in DfE, 2011b) also found no evidence of class size in Key Stage 2 classes affecting the amount of on-task or off-task pupil behaviour. Research undertaken by Wilson (2002 in DfE, 2011b) also found that teachers’ perceptions were that they would be better able to encourage positive pupil behaviour in smaller classes. There is also evidence that only a very large reduction in class sizes may be effective. At the secondary level, research undertaken by Blatchford (2008, in DfE, 2011b) found that a reduction in class size from 30 to 15 was associated with an increase in the probability of on-task behaviour by around 10 percentage points from 78% to 88%.
- School uniform. Although there is public support for compulsory school uniforms (YouGov, 2011) and a belief that a school uniform policy helps to improve behaviour (DfES, 2002), the evidence for a direct link is mixed at best. Evidence from the USA suggests that there is no real impact on pupils’ behaviour when they are required to wear a uniform. Brunσμα and Rockquemore (1998) in an analysis of follow up data collected through the National Educational Longitudinal Study in the US in 1994 found that school uniform requirements were not significantly associated with attendance, behaviour or substance misuse. Conversely, Han (2010) argues that there is a link - albeit not a causal one - between uniforms and the number of students’ problem behaviours. Using 2003/04 data from the US School Survey on Crime and Safety, Han (2010) found that elementary and middle schools with uniforms reported fewer incidents but that this did not hold for high schools.

5.5 Specific punishments or sanctions

There has been little research into the effectiveness of specific disciplinary measures that can be used as part of a school-level disciplinary system. Infantino and Little (2005) undertook a questionnaire study to examine the opinions of pupils as to the effectiveness of certain disciplinary measures as a means of a deterrent to poor behaviour. The authors administered a questionnaire which included sections on behaviour perceived to be

troublesome and the perceived effectiveness of deterrents and incentives to 350 secondary school pupils with a mean age of 13.8 years who attended three schools in Victoria, Australia. The respondents rated detention, being sent to the principal's office, being given a good talking to, and getting an unfavourable report sent home as the most effective deterrents for reducing disruptive behaviour. The findings support those of other researchers (Burns, 1978; Houghton, Merrett and Wheldall, 1988 in Infantino and Little, 2005) who report that sanctions that restrict a pupil's activities in school, such as detentions, are successful as a deterrent for reducing disruptive behaviour. Caution should be used with the findings due to the small sample size and the fact that only secondary aged pupils were surveyed. The study also did not measure whether or not detentions were effective in deterring or reducing disruptive pupil behaviour, or whether or not teachers feel they are an effective method.

At a classroom-level, there is evidence to suggest that a combination of approaches including both punishments and rewards can be effective. Roache (2011) summarises a study of pupils' views of effective approaches and their impact on pupils' own responsibility for their actions. Arguing that aggressive approaches such as yelling were ineffective because they undermined the teacher-pupil relationship, Roache (2011) supports the use of a combination of punishments, rewards and hinting at unacceptable behaviour as most effective in changing behaviour without affecting pupil self-regulation.

5.6 Working with parents

As well as the inherent role the quality of parenting plays in preventing and supporting children's school behaviour (McNeal, 1999; Sutton et al, 2004; Gardner, 1987), evidence shows the importance of schools working with parents to promote their child's good behaviour. The Effective Pre-School and Primary Education 3-11 (EPPE 3-11) study showed that early parental involvement with their children in home learning activities has strong effects on later behaviour in school (Sylva et al, 2008). The amount of interest fathers take in their child's learning is also associated with behaviour (Goldman, 2005).

The direct involvement of parents with their child's school (e.g. through meetings with teachers or volunteering in school) has also been shown to be positively related to pupil behaviour. Pomerantz et al (2007) discussed the evidence from a range of mainly US studies for the links between parental involvement and improvement in classroom behaviour. This applied to children from a range of family backgrounds and from pre-school through to secondary education level. It is suggested that the improvement in behaviour may happen through a variety of mechanisms including by causing children to take a leadership role at school, or by reinforcing the message that parents care for their children. However, other research has shown that the impact on improving behaviour is demonstrated for parents with higher education levels and only for certain ethnic groups (Hill et al, 2004).

Ofsted (2005) proposed two factors that can impact upon the success of school-parent working:

- treating parents/carers as partners and not blaming them for poor behaviour; and
- informing parents about their children's successes as well as about unacceptable behaviour.

Similarly, the practitioner group on behaviour and discipline recommended that schools:

- discuss with parents the school's concerns and agree a common way of working to help pupils make improvements to their behaviour;
- establish the best way of communicating with parents and provide regular feedback on progress being made;
- share values and expectations with pupils, parents and staff; and
- ensure parents and carers hear from the school when their children are doing well so that the first contact is positive (DfES, 2006).

There is also some evidence that intensive programmes working with families largely outside of the school setting, with the aim of reducing crime and anti-social behaviour, can affect pupil behaviour in school. For example, an early evaluation of Family Intervention Projects (White et al, 2008) which "use an "assertive" and "persistent" style of working to challenge and support families to address the root causes" (White et al, 2008, p.2) of their behaviour, indicated positive effects on children's behaviour at school.

Evans et al's (2008) evaluation of the use of Education-Related Parenting Contracts, which are intended as voluntary, supportive agreements between a pupil's parents and their school or Local Authority (LA), indicated that formalised approaches to building the relationship between home and school, in which reciprocal expectations can be clarified, can be useful in addressing problematic behaviour.

A more recent report on the use of parental responsibility measures (including parenting contracts and court enforced behaviour and attendance orders)⁴⁴ showed that schools and LAs were often reluctant to use the behaviour (as opposed to attendance) measures. At school level, there were concerns about the potential impact on relationships with parents. This was particularly evident for primary schools and in the use of what were felt to be more punitive measures, such as penalty notices. However, the case study research suggested that behaviour contracts were beneficial in resolving issues between schools and parents, and in some cases addressing pupils' behavioural issues (Crowther and Kendall, 2010).

Hallam et al's (2004) investigation into the use of parenting programmes indicated that, according to the parents who attended programmes, they

⁴⁴ The parental responsibility measures for behaviour were: parenting contracts (voluntary, written agreements between a parent and either a school or LA, which provide support to the parent); parenting orders (which impose requirements on parents to attend parenting courses/counselling for three months); and penalty notices (which are used as an alternative to court action for excluded children found in a public place) (Crowther and Kendall, 2010).

resulted in a very positive impact on pupils' behaviour. School staff responded positively to school-based programmes, and reported a strengthening of relationships between home and school.

Chapter 6: The role of teachers in promoting good behaviour

Key findings

- Analysis of data from the Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) for this topic note, shows that although there is a relationship between perceptions of teacher discipline and later attainment, once a range of factors are controlled for only some aspects of teacher classroom management continue to have a link with Key Stage 4 (KS4) attainment.
- Analysis of the Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE) 3-14 study does not show a relationship between teacher discipline factors and social-behavioural outcomes⁴⁵. However, it does show that pupils' views on the quality of teachers' support for pupils predicted improved self-regulation and reduced hyperactivity in Year 9 and better social-behavioural progress during Key Stage 3 (KS3) (Sylva et al, 2012).
- Over 70% of NQTs report that their Initial Teacher Training (ITT) had prepared them to establish and maintain a good standard of classroom behaviour (TDA, 2011). Teachers with more than five years' experience were less likely than NQTs and less experienced teachers to rate the behaviour training during their ITT as 'good or very good' (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).
- Now somewhat dated reports by Ofsted showed mixed inspection evidence and concerns about the quality of the behaviour management content of ITT courses (Ofsted, 2005, 2003b and 2003c).
- In a 2012 survey of 1,600 serving teachers, half of respondents agreed that appropriate training was available for teachers in their school who were struggling to manage pupil behaviour. A quarter of respondents disagreed (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).
- In the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), 'student discipline and behaviour' was the third most frequently cited area in which surveyed teachers reported a development need (OECD, 2009).
- The results of the 2012 NFER survey showed that a range of strategies were used by respondents to manage pupil behaviour. Those used most often included praising desired behaviour, having a system to follow through with sanctions and using a reward system (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).
- Key strategies identified in the literature for effective classroom management include: providing structure through teacher directed activity and classroom design; establishing clear rules and expectations (whether for individuals or the whole class); reinforcing positive behaviour and providing consequences for negative behaviour (e.g. removing rewards or tokens; withholding attention if pupils are exhibiting undesired behaviours;

⁴⁵ Teacher ratings of hyperactivity (reduced self-control, impulsiveness); anti-social behaviour (verbal abuse, aggression); pro-social behaviour (peer empathy, co-operation, altruism); and self-regulation (problem-solving, motivation, self-confidence).

removing pupils from environments that reinforce negative behaviours); providing specific feedback and establishing high-quality teacher relationships. Using a combination of strategies is also a theme of the literature (Simonsen et al, 2008; Stage and Quiroz, 1997; Swinson and Knight, 2007; Marzano and Marzano, 2003; Pinta and Stuhlman, 2004; Thomas et al, 2011).

Introduction

This chapter outlines the importance of teachers in maintaining good behaviour. It includes pupils' perceptions of teachers' ability in terms of classroom management and the association between these perceptions and later attainment and outcomes. The chapter also includes evidence on teacher training in behaviour management and teachers' use of powers to discipline. Following on from the school-level strategies included in Chapter 5, this Chapter finishes with an assessment of the effectiveness of different classroom management techniques.

6.1 Pupils' perceptions of teacher classroom management

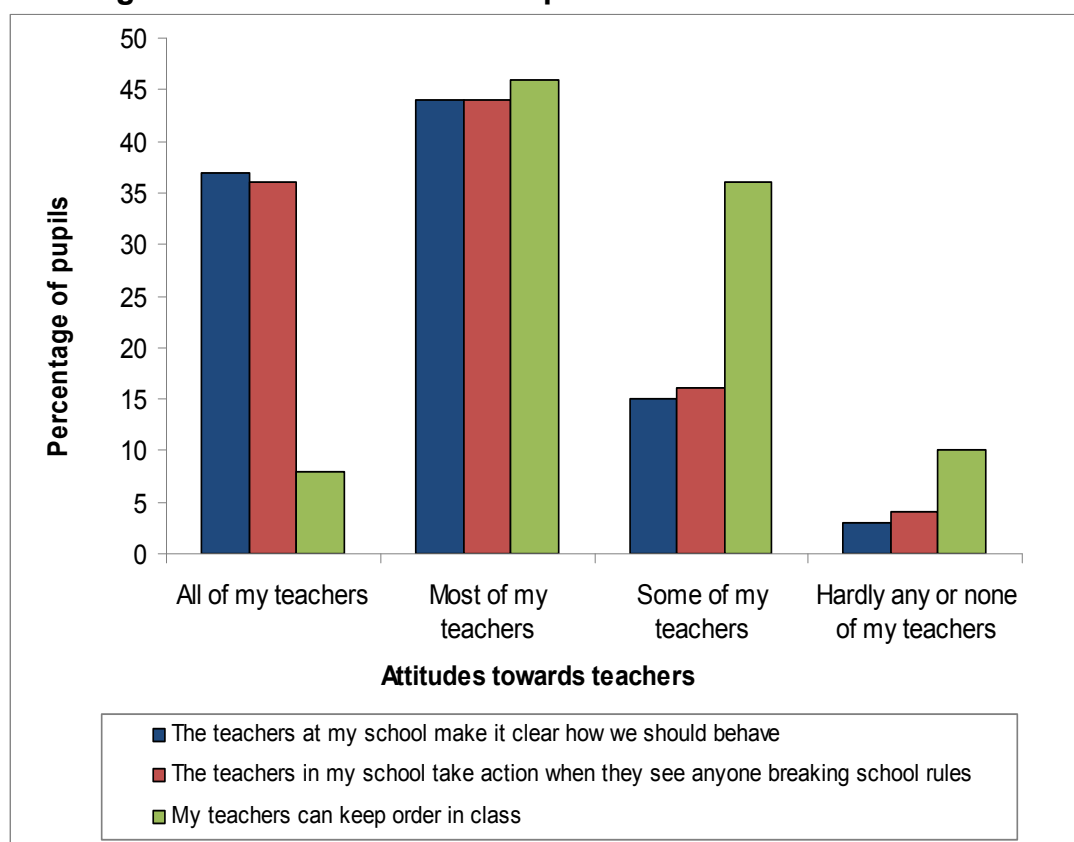
Many surveys have asked pupils about their perceptions of teachers' abilities to control a class. In a survey of almost 1,400 pupils Chamberlain et al (2011) reported that almost a quarter (23%) felt that their teachers were 'always' good at getting their class to behave and, when pupils do disrupt learning, teachers took action (23%) and about a further half felt they 'sometimes' did these things (55% and 54% respectively). In surveys from 2002 and 2003, half (49%) of the pupils aged 11-16 who were interviewed said that all or most of their current teachers could control the class and almost half (47%) that they were strict (DfES, 2003).

In the Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE) 3-14 study, pupils in Year 9 were asked a series of questions about teachers' discipline. Over nine out of ten pupils agreed or strongly agreed with the following statements: 'teachers make it clear how I should behave'; 'teachers take action when rules are broken' and 'teachers make the aims of lessons clear'. For the fourth statement 'teachers make sure that it is quiet in lessons', around two-thirds agreed or strongly agreed (Sylva et al, 2012).

The Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE) asked about pupils' attitudes towards their teachers' management of behaviour. In particular pupils were asked about teachers' ability to keep order in class, whether they made it clear how they expected pupils to behave, and whether they took action when they saw anyone breaking school rules⁴⁶. The results from LSYPE are in line with those from the surveys mentioned above. Around four-fifths believed that all or most of their teachers took action when they saw anyone breaking school rules or made it clear how to behave. However, only just over half felt that all or most of their teachers could keep order in class (Chart 6.1).

⁴⁶ See Annex A for more information on LSYPE.

Chart 6.1: Pupils' perceptions of the number of their teachers who 'make it clear how we should behave', 'take action when they see anyone breaking school rules' and 'can keep order in class'



Source: LSYPE Wave 1 at age 14 (2004)

6.1.1 Effect of perceptions of teacher classroom management and behaviour expectations on KS4 attainment

Using the same attainment model as described in Chapter 4, it can be seen that pupils' perceptions of teachers' classroom management and behaviour expectations are significantly associated with their attainment at the end of KS4.

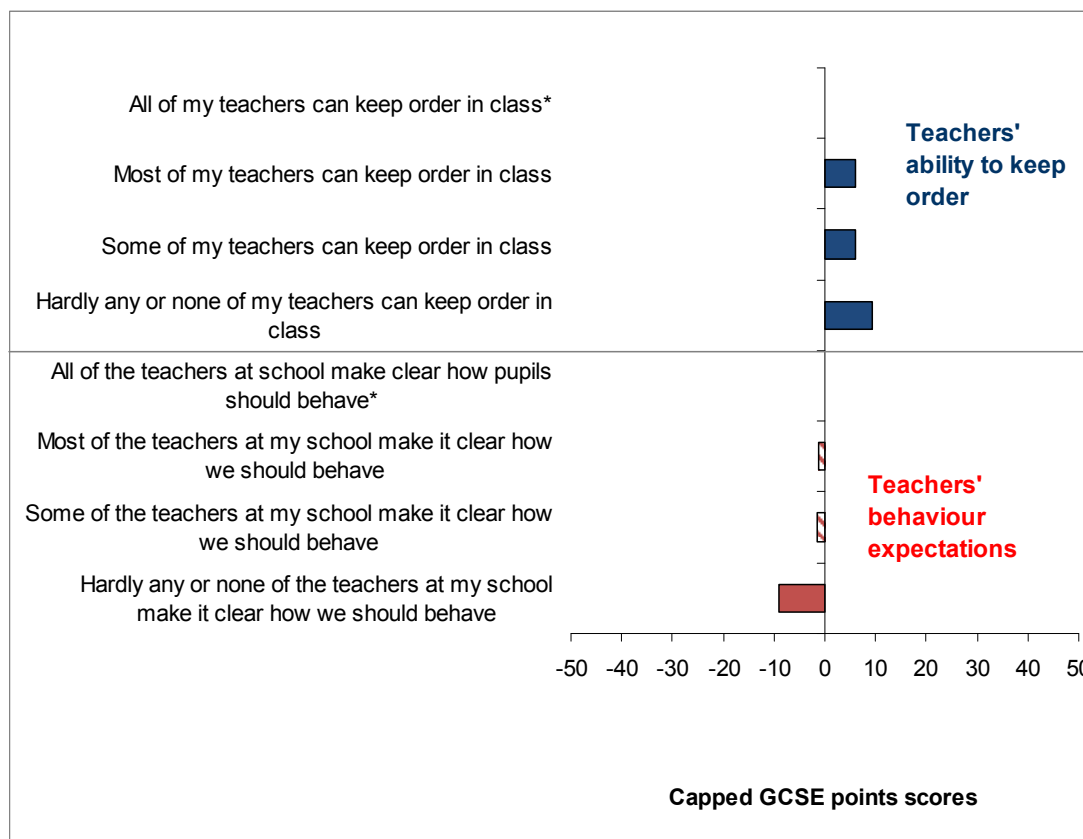
Chart 6.2 shows that, after controlling for prior attainment, socio-economic background and other characteristics⁴⁷, pupils who reported their teachers did not set high behaviour expectations performed less well at the end of KS4 than those who felt teachers set clear expectations⁴⁸. However, contrary to what one might expect pupils who felt that at least one of their teachers could not keep order in class achieved significantly higher at the end of KS4 than pupils who reported that all teachers could keep order in class. In particular, pupils reporting that hardly any or none of their teachers could keep order in class were predicted to attain just over a grade higher in one subject than

⁴⁷ See Section 4.3 for further details on the analysis and Annex B for a list of the variables included in this modelling.

⁴⁸ The analysis used capped GCSE scores which are calculated using a pupil's best eight GCSE scores or equivalent grades.

their peers who reported all teachers could keep order in class⁴⁹. As with some of the results in Section 4.3, one possible explanation for this may be that pupils who notice the misbehaviour of others (and a lack of control by teachers) are also those who are more motivated.

Chart 6.2: Effects on KS4 outcomes of components of attitudes towards teachers



* Factors marked with an asterisk represent the reference group for each category. Block colours represent statistically significant effects; shaded cells represent those which are not significantly different from 0.
 Source: *LSYPE Waves 1 (2004) and 3 (2006)*.

In the Effective Pre-School, Primary and Secondary Education (EPPSE) 3-14 study, Sylva et al (2012) also found mixed evidence for the association between behaviour and perceptions of teacher classroom management. Teacher discipline did not predict any of the social-behavioural outcomes measured at the end of Key Stage 3 (KS3). However, this analysis did show a relationship between teachers' support and pupil behaviour. Pupils in Year 9 were asked their views on their teachers' help, feedback, rewards and praise, and these were combined into a single factor of 'teacher support' for the analysis. After controlling for individual pupil, family and home influences, the findings from the study show that this factor predicted better self-regulation

⁴⁹ To interpret these figures, one grade in one GCSE subject is worth six capped GCSE points (DfE, 2012a). Therefore, in this chart those who thought hardly any or none of their teachers could keep order were predicted to get nine points more than those who thought all of their teachers could keep order and this is roughly the equivalent of getting one grade higher in one subject, e.g. an A grade as opposed to a B grade.

and reduced hyperactivity. Along with other school and behavioural climate factors, teacher support also predicted better social-behavioural developmental progress during KS3.

6.2 Teacher training in classroom management

This section explores the evidence on teacher training in classroom management strategies and techniques.

6.2.1 Professional development, teacher self-efficacy and classroom management

Training of teachers in behaviour management can take place during initial teacher training (ITT), during continuing professional development (CPD), or within a post-degree qualification.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)'s Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) provides indications that more professional development is associated with greater teacher self-efficacy (a sense of one's own competence and ability to perform a task, or to function in a role – i.e. to teach well, as a teacher). The survey questioned around 4,000 teachers across 20 schools each in 16 OECD and seven non-OECD countries (not including the UK)⁵⁰ and showed that for 11 TALIS countries the more days of professional development undertaken by teachers the greater the likelihood of higher reported levels of self-efficacy (OECD, 2009). Analysis of TALIS also showed that structured teaching practices (often categorised as 'traditional' approaches with pre-specified objectives and frequent questioning/feedback etc.) were associated with good classroom disciplinary climate in almost half of the 23 countries, and associated with higher levels of teacher self-efficacy in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Ireland, Korea, Mexico, Portugal and Spain. Pupil-oriented teaching practices (which give more autonomy to the pupil) were also associated with good classroom disciplinary climate and teacher self-efficacy, however in fewer countries (OECD, 2009).

Correspondingly, there are indications that higher levels of self-efficacy are associated with a higher level of readiness to manage challenging behaviour. In a small-scale and localised study, Baker (2005) found that teachers in Ohio reported the greatest confidence in their ability to use non-aversive techniques such as voice modulation, facial expressions, planned ignoring, proximity control, and tension release. Baker also reported that there was a statistically significant relationship between the perceived self-efficacy of teachers for classroom management and teacher readiness for managing challenging behaviours, indicating that as perceptions of teacher self-efficacy for classroom management increase, so does readiness to utilise specific behaviour intervention techniques (Baker, 2005).

⁵⁰ Surveyed countries: Australia, Brazil, Austria, Bulgaria, Belgium (Flemish Community), Estonia, Denmark, Lithuania, Hungary, Malaysia, Iceland, Malta, Ireland, Slovenia, Italy, Korea, Mexico, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Spain, and Turkey.

This suggests, on a simplistic level, that more training and professional development may lead to better classroom management. The nature of this training and of other support offered to teachers will in turn have an influence on its effectiveness.

6.2.2 Initial teacher training (ITT)

There is evidence that newly qualified teachers see their ITT courses as preparing them for managing behaviour in the classroom. The Annual Survey of Newly Qualified Teachers (NQT Survey) conducted on behalf of the then Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA) included interviews with over 13,000 NQTs who had completed their ITT in England during the 2009-10 academic year. Results indicated that:

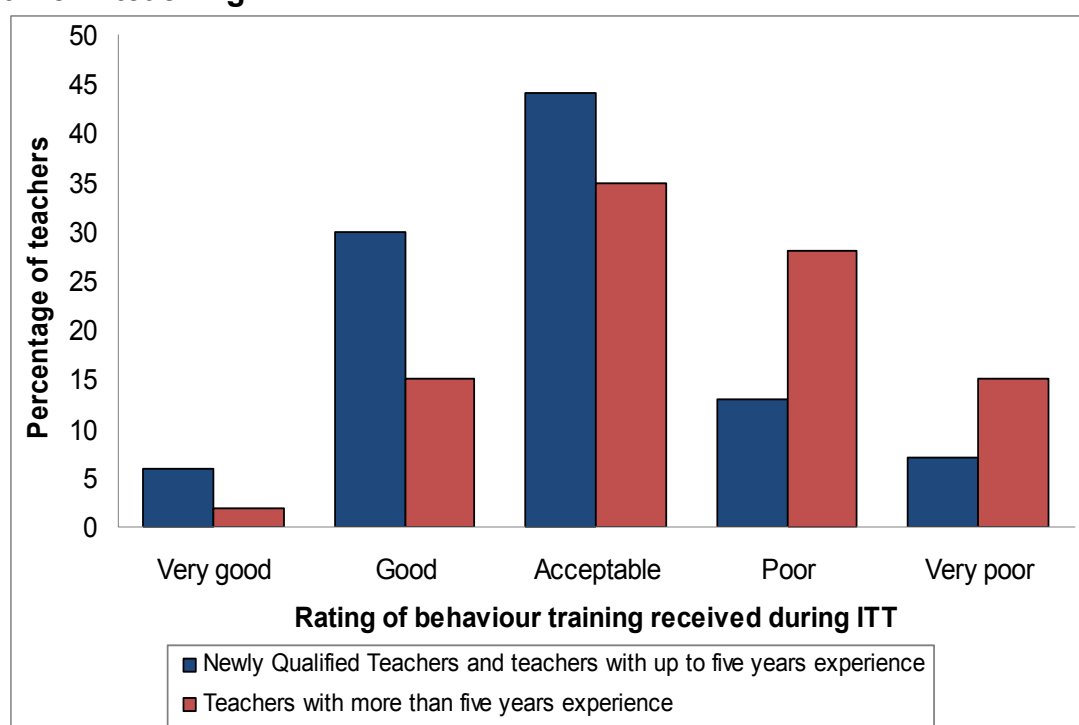
- 73% of around 6,000 primary trained NQTs rated how well their ITT had prepared them to establish and maintain a good standard of classroom behaviour as either 'very good' or 'good'; and
- 71% of approximately 7,200 secondary NQTs rated how well their ITT had prepared them to establish and maintain a good standard of classroom behaviour as either 'very good' or 'good' (TDA, 2011).

There is also a time series for the TDA NQT survey which show an improvement over time in how NQTs rated the behaviour element of their ITT courses. In 2003, the equivalent figure for primary trained NQTs was 57% ('very good' or 'good') and for secondary trained NQTs, this was 60% (TDA, 2010).

A recent Teacher Voice survey (NFER, 2012, forthcoming) of 1,600 primary and secondary teachers (including NQTs) asked respondents to rate the quality of the behaviour training they had received during their ITT. Responses were mixed; two-fifths (41%) felt that it had been 'poor' or 'very poor' and a fifth that it had been 'good' or 'very good'. Primary teachers were less likely than secondary teachers to rate ITT as 'good' or 'very good' (16%, compared with 22% of secondary teachers).

Further analysis for this topic note of the NFER 2012 Teacher Voice survey indicates that there was also a difference by the level of teaching experience. Teachers who had more than five years teaching experience were less positive about the quality of the training they had received compared with NQTs and those with between one and five years teaching experience. Indeed, 28% of teachers who had been teaching for more than five years rated the behaviour training they received during their ITT as 'poor', compared with 13% of teachers with less than five years' experience (including NQTs). NQTs and teachers with between one and five years' experience were also more likely to rate the behaviour training received during ITT as 'good' or 'very good' (6% or 30%, respectively), compared with teachers with more than five years' experience (2% and 15%, respectively). These findings could indicate that the quality of behaviour training in ITT has improved in recent years, or that NQTs may be more likely to remember the content and quality of the training they received as it would have been more recent than for teachers with more teaching experience (Chart 6.3).

Chart 6.3: Rating of behaviour training received during ITT by length of time in teaching



Source: NFER Teacher Voice Omnibus Survey (2012, forthcoming).

However, earlier studies by Ofsted showed a more negative view of ITT courses. Ofsted (2005) claimed that NQTs often reported that their initial training contained very little specific guidance as to how to understand and manage pupils' difficult behaviour. Ofsted recommended that more emphasis was needed on child and adolescent development and the application of behaviour management strategies in ITT and in-service training.

Ofsted inspections of ITT providers in 2003 (Ofsted, 2003b and 2003c) showed mixed evidence for the quality of ITT programmes. They conducted an inspection of all secondary ITT providers in England in the period 1999/2000; in total over 600 courses in 16 subjects (Ofsted, 2003b). Ofsted reported that trainees generally used a good range of teaching strategies. However, not all trainees had a clear understanding of how classroom management should support pupils' learning, with weaker trainees focussing too narrowly on managing unsatisfactory behaviour. Observed trainees were found to achieve generally good standards of discipline in class, although they also encountered difficulties with classes whose behaviour caused problems for experienced teachers. In the equivalent primary report (Ofsted, 2003c), all providers of primary ITT in England (90 providers) were inspected between 1998 and 2002. The report claims that a common strength of almost all courses in the second half of the inspection was the good behaviour of pupils in classes and the appropriateness of the range of class management strategies used by trainees. The inspection found that only the weakest trainees in a number of classes experienced significant problems of class control, and when this occurred, such difficulties were generally quickly identified by mentors, and trainees were offered appropriate support. With

both of these studies caution should be used due to the dates of the studies and their narrow focus.

6.2.3 Continuing professional development (CPD)

An NFER survey (NFER, 2008) indicated that, of over 1,400 teachers in primary and secondary schools who responded, roughly equal numbers agreed and disagreed that appropriate training was available for teachers in their school to enable them to manage pupil behaviour (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Responses to statement: “Appropriate training is available for teachers in my school who are struggling to manage pupil behaviour.”

	Primary (%)	Secondary (%)	All (%)
Agree	36	34	35
Neither agree nor disagree	24	23	24
Disagree	34	37	35
Don't know	6	7	6
Total sample size	741	707	1440

Due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100.

Due to the primary, secondary and all teacher categories being weighted separately, the number of primary and secondary respondents may not sum to the total number of teachers.

Source: *NFER Teacher Voice Omnibus Survey (2008)*.

The same question was repeated in a 2012 wave of the survey. As can be seen in Table 6.2, respondents in 2012 were more positive in their responses, with half agreeing with the statement. It is not immediately clear what is behind the difference in the 2008 and 2012 responses, but it could be that teachers are becoming more aware of the support available to them in school for managing pupil behaviour, compared with 2008 (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).

Table 6.2: Responses to statement: “Appropriate training is available for teachers in my school who are struggling to manage pupil behaviour.”

	Primary (%)	Secondary (%)	All (%)
Agree	54	45	50
Neither agree nor disagree	20	21	21
Disagree	22	30	25
Don't know	4	4	4
Total sample size	921	744	1669

Due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100.

Due to the primary, secondary and all teacher categories being weighted separately, the number of primary and secondary respondents may not sum to the total number of teachers.

Source: *NFER Teacher Voice Omnibus Survey (2012, forthcoming)*.

It is unclear whether there is a difference in the perception of the availability of appropriate training by the length of teacher experience. The 2008 NFER survey indicated that it was those teachers who were older and those who had served longer in the profession, who tended to agree that training was available (NFER, 2008). In the 2012 survey, different patterns emerged with those aged 30-39 being less likely than other age groups to agree and those

with between one and five years' experience being less likely than NQTs or the more experienced to agree (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).

In the 2008 NFER survey only, a second question was asked about teachers' views on the availability of appropriate support in their school to manage pupil behaviour. Compared with the question about appropriate training, a higher proportion of those questioned agreed that in-school support was available (though it is not possible to know how exactly respondents differentiated between the meaning of the two questions) (see Table 6.3). This question was not repeated in the 2012 survey.

Table 6.3: Responses to statement: "Appropriate support is available in my school for teachers who are struggling to manage pupil behaviour."

	Primary (%)	Secondary (%)	All (%)
Agree	52	46	49
Neither agree nor disagree	22	24	22
Disagree	24	28	26
Don't know	3	3	3
Total sample size	739	706	1435

Due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100.

Due to the primary, secondary and all teacher categories being weighted separately, the number of primary and secondary respondents may not sum to the total number of teachers.

Source: NFER Teacher Voice Omnibus Survey (2008).

International comparisons are enabled by the OECD's TALIS survey (2009). 'Student discipline and behaviour' was the third most frequently cited area in which teachers reported a development need (on average, across countries, 21% reported a need for training in this area, compared with 32% who cited the most often mentioned 'teaching special learning needs students' (data on the range of percentages around this average is not included in the TALIS report)). Furthermore, the report found a difference by teacher length of experience: "teachers with relatively less experience and stability in their contractual status are significantly less likely to be teaching classes with a positive classroom disciplinary climate or to report high levels of self-efficacy" (OECD, 2009 p220).

In the 2012 NFER survey, teachers were asked about the amount and type of CPD relating to pupil behaviour they had received in the past 12 months. As can be seen in Table 6.4, NQTs and those with between one and five years teaching experience are more likely to have received CPD on pupil behaviour through an external course or through their local authority in the last 12 months compared with more experienced teachers (NFER, 2012, forthcoming). More experienced teachers were also more likely to report not having received any CPD relating to pupil behaviour in the last 12 months, but this may reflect their greater experience and confidence in dealing with pupil behaviour compared with NQTs and less experienced teachers.

Table 6.4: Amount and type of CPD relating to pupil behaviour received in the last 12 months by level of teaching experience

	Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) and one to five years' experience (%)	More than five years' experience (%)	All (%)
Yes, through formal training at my school	26	25	25
Yes, through informal support from a colleague(s) at my school	33	13	15
Yes, from a colleague(s) from another school	3	1	1
Yes, through my local authority	9	2	3
Yes, on an external course	8	3	3
Other	3	1	2
No	41	62	60
Total sample size	179	1500	1679

Due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100. Multiple responses were permitted.

Source: *NFER Teacher Voice Omnibus Survey (2012, forthcoming)*.

6.3 Teachers' use of powers to discipline

In April 2011, the Department for Education updated guidance for teachers to reflect legislative changes and to clarify pre-existing legal powers held by teachers to discipline pupils (DfE, 2011c). These powers include:

- the power to discipline pupils even when they are not at school, in uniform, or in the charge of a member of staff;
- a specific legal power to impose detention outside school hours (including at weekends and on non-teaching days), regardless of parental consent;
- the power to confiscate, retain or dispose of a pupil's property as a punishment (legislation protects school staff from liability for damage to, or loss of, any confiscated items); and
- the power to search without consent for weapons, knives, alcohol, illegal drugs and stolen items. (These regulations were extended in guidance published by the DfE in 2012, to include tobacco and cigarette papers, fireworks, pornographic images, any article the member of staff reasonably suspects has been, or is likely to be used to commit an offence or cause personal injury to, or damage to the property of any person (including the pupil being subject to a search), and any item banned by the school rules identified in the rules as an item that may be searched for (DfE, 2012c)).

There are some indications that those powers that are longer standing have not been widely used (NASUWT, 2010), although there is a lack of nationally representative data on this. Small-scale focus groups and qualitative interviews with teachers (Anderton et al, 2010), also gave some broad indications why teachers did not use these powers, including lack of awareness or a concern over becoming vulnerable to allegations.

6.4 Classroom management

This section aims to explore issues around the classroom management techniques that teachers use and their actual or perceived effectiveness in responding to or preventing poor classroom behaviour. This is an area where there are many approaches and methods, and as such, this section was not intended, and could not be, an exhaustive exploration of all methods of classroom management and their effectiveness. Instead, the section aims to cover the evidence for the effectiveness of classroom management in improving behaviour and cites some of the major types of classroom management techniques, along with teacher attitudes towards their use.

According to Emmer and Stough (2001) there are many understandings of what constitutes behaviour management, but they broadly define the term to mean “actions taken by the teacher to establish order, engage students or elicit their cooperation” (p103). This broad definition of classroom management will be used throughout this section. In addition, Wilks (1996 in Clunies-Ross et al, 2008) maintains that classroom management techniques tend to fall into two broad categories, namely proactive strategies and reactive strategies. Proactive strategies are generally those that a teacher can use in an attempt to lessen the likelihood of a pupil engaging in an undesired behaviour. Reactive strategies are those involving teacher action following an occurrence of unacceptable behaviour. According to research (Herrera and Little, 2005; Wheldall et al, 1989; Wilks, 1996) cited in Clunies-Ross et al (2008), classroom behaviour management is most effective when proactive strategies are employed. Chapter 5 also discusses proactive and reactive approaches.

In a small-scale meta-analysis of 12 studies of behaviour and classroom management programmes, Oliver et al (2011) concluded that teachers’ “classroom management practices have a significant, positive effect on decreasing problem behaviour in the classroom” (p35). The authors report that in all of the 12 studies examined, pupils in the treatment classrooms displayed less disruptive, inappropriate, and aggressive behaviour in the classroom, compared with those in the control classrooms. However the authors point out that due to the small size of their review, it was not possible to ascertain the components of the programmes evaluated which can be considered effective, or to compare intervention effectiveness.

There is also evidence from England on the usage of different strategies by teachers. In the 2012 NFER survey, teachers were asked whether they used a list of strategies to manage behaviour ‘often’, ‘sometimes’ or ‘never’. The results showed that a range of strategies were used by respondents to manage pupil behaviour. Broadly, teachers reported using proactive strategies more than reactive ones, and this was especially the case for primary teachers.

The most commonly used strategies included praising desired behaviour (91% used often); having a system to follow through with sanctions (85%); and using a reward system (82%). Primary teachers and senior leaders were more likely than other teachers to often display classroom rules and to give

good and bad behaviour feedback to parents. A quarter of secondary teachers often used detention after school compared with only one per cent of primary teachers in the survey. Respondents who had been teaching for more than five years were more likely to often use a plan for children who were likely to misbehave. At the other end of the spectrum, those strategies that were never used were detention after school (60% of all teachers never used this) and sending misbehaving pupils to the head teacher or senior staff (32%). Secondary teachers were more likely to say that they never used the sending of misbehaving pupils to senior staff (51%, compared with 17% of primary teachers) (NFER, 2012, forthcoming).

6.4.1 Classroom management techniques/approaches

Simonsen et al (2008) undertook a literature review to identify evidence-based classroom management techniques and identified 20 techniques which they believed had enough evidence to warrant adoption in the classroom. In addition, the authors grouped these 20 methods into five broad areas which they described as being empirically-supported critical features of effective classroom management. The five areas have been reproduced below and used as a basis for describing the evidence on these and related strategies (Simonsen et al, 2008; Simonsen, 2010).

Maximize structure and predictability

Simonsen et al (2008) use this heading to include the amount of teacher directed activity; explicitly defining routines and the design or physical arrangement of the classroom. They cite evidence that classrooms with more structure promote more appropriate academic and social behaviours. The research on the use of seating arrangements already covered in Section 5.4.4 would come under this heading.

Post, teach, review, monitor, and reinforce expectations

This topic includes making rules or expectations clear or displaying (posting) them for pupils to see, following up with reminders and reinforcement of the rules, and monitoring which rules are not being followed and by whom. Simonsen (2010) also suggest limiting the number of rules to a small number (3-5).

Similarly, Marzano and Marzano (2003) cite the work of Emmer and colleagues⁵¹ who claimed that it is important for teachers to establish rules and procedures for general classroom behaviour, group work, seat work, transitions between work, work interruptions, use of materials and equipment and for the beginning and end of the day. According to Glasser (1969 and 1990, both in Marzano and Marzano, 2003) ideally such rules and procedures should be established through discussion and mutual consent between teachers and their pupils. Marzano and Marzano (2003) also claim that it is important for teachers to acknowledge pupil behaviour, by reinforcing

⁵¹ Emmer (1984); Emmer, Sanford, Everston, Clements and Martin (1981) and Everston and Emmer (1982) all in Marzano and Marzano (2003)

acceptable behaviour and providing negative consequences for unacceptable behaviour.

Actively engage students in observable ways

Here, Simonsen et al (2008) promote active engagement on the basis that “if students are actively engaged in instruction, then it is difficult to engage in incompatible behaviours” (p359). They also discuss the different practices that increase active engagement including: increasing the opportunity to respond in lessons (e.g. asking for pupils to respond in unison or response cards); direct instruction; and computer assisted instruction.

Use a continuum of strategies to acknowledge appropriate behaviour

Simonsen et al (2008) stress that both simple and more complex strategies should be used, such as:

- Praising appropriate behaviour and providing positive feedback (particularly relating the praise to specific incidents or contingent on particular behaviours). The use of teacher feedback is also supported by Swinson and Knight’s (2007) small-scale review of six studies which explored relationships between the use and types of teacher feedback, for example in the form of praise or negative feedback, and pupil behaviour. The authors found that positive feedback given by teachers to pupils was positively correlated with compliant pupil behaviour as measured by pupil on-task behaviour. On the other hand, teacher negative feedback or disapproval was negatively correlated with pupil on-task behaviour.
- Using token economies (i.e. rewards) that promote positive behaviours. See also the research included on rewards in Section 5.4.4.
- Using group reinforcement contingencies (i.e. setting expectations for the whole class in order to influence either the behaviour of the whole class or a subset of the class). This is also one of the interventions highlighted as effective in an earlier meta-analysis (Stage and Quiroz, 1997).

Use a continuum of strategies to respond to inappropriate behaviours

The range of strategies in this section covers both simple ones and the more complex and shares elements with those used to reinforce positive behaviour. The strategies under this heading include:

- Error corrections. These are brief, defined and specific statements typically provided by a teacher, when an undesired behaviour occurs. Such instructions should state the observed behaviour, and inform the pupil of the behaviour that is required of them in the future.
- Performance feedback. As with the reinforcement of appropriate behaviour, the use of feedback can help to counteract inappropriate behaviour. Simonsen et al (2008) describe teachers helping pupils to visually analyse changes in their performance, with teachers specifying a certain behaviour target for pupils to meet, with a reward if the criterion is met.
- Differential reinforcement. The strategy involves limiting the extent of future negative or disruptive behaviour by increasing desired behaviour. This was also highlighted in Stage and Quiroz’s (1997) findings.

- Planned ignoring. This strategy involves a teacher systematically withholding attention from a pupil when they are exhibiting undesired behaviour.
- Response cost. This involves the removal of a stimulus such as a token when a pupil engages in undesired behaviour.
- Time out from reinforcement. This procedure is employed when a pupil is removed from a reinforcing environment such as playing with peers, to a less reinforcing environment, such as an empty classroom following an undesired behaviour.

Despite outlining classroom management strategies that they believe are empirically-supported and can be adopted in the classroom, Simonsen et al (2008) point out that many of the studies identified in their literature review were quite old, and as such may not be relevant to contemporary classrooms.

An earlier meta-analysis (Stage and Quiroz, 1997) also demonstrated that interventions could be effective in reducing disruptive behaviour. They particularly cited three interventions: group contingencies (e.g. setting a common expectation for a class); pupil self-management (e.g. self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-reinforcement) and differential reinforcement (reinforcement of a behaviour dependent on reducing the overall level or a limited set of disruptive behaviours). However, they added the caveat that no single intervention could be assumed to be more powerful than another due to the large variability in the response of pupils to these interventions.

6.4.2 Teacher-pupil relationships

Through conducting a meta-analysis of over 100 studies, Marzano (2003b in Marzano and Marzano, 2003) claims that the quality of teacher-pupil relationships is vital in all areas of classroom management. Indeed, the author reports that on average, teachers who had high-quality relationships with their pupils had 31% fewer discipline problems, rule violations and related problems over a one year period, compared with teachers who did not have high quality relationships with their pupils. Other research has also linked the quality of teacher-child relationships to improved social-emotional development in the early years (Pianta and Stuhlman, 2004) and conversely teacher-child conflict with externalising behaviours (Whittaker and Harden, 2010). However, Thomas et al (2011) also suggest that focusing on improving classroom climate through teacher skills may not be enough on its own to counteract the influence of peer aggression. They point to the need to include additional approaches that promote non-aggressive, pro-social norms or influence peer-level behaviour or other interventions (such as changing seating arrangements), as a way of further reducing aggressive behaviour. This final point echoes the theme of much of the evidence on strategies in this Chapter and Chapter 5, that a combination of approaches is the most effective way to manage behaviour.

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Annex A: Background notes on the data used for analyses

Below is a brief description of the data sources used in this paper:

Ofsted behaviour inspection judgements

Ofsted behaviour grades are the only official source of data available on pupil behaviour within schools. It should be noted that there have been several changes to the Ofsted inspection framework and cycle of inspections over time. These issues are outlined below.

Changes to the framework over time

Comparisons in the level of pupil behaviour over time using Ofsted data are very difficult due to the fact that Ofsted have changed the inspection framework several times. Since 2004/05 there have been three changes:

- The first change in 2005/06 was a fundamental change as a result of the Education Act 2005. The new 'Section 5' framework replaced the previous 'Section 10' framework in September 2005. Under the Section 10 framework, the behaviour judgement was 'behaviour, including exclusions'; under Section 5 this changed to 'the behaviour of learners' with no reference to exclusions.
- In the second change in September 2009, Ofsted revised its Section 5 inspection framework. This revised framework introduced changes in the wording, content of, and criteria for, behaviour judgements.
- The most recent change occurred in January 2012, where Ofsted revised its Section 5 framework criteria.⁵²

In addition, the cycle of inspections also changed. From September 2005, regulations required that following its first inspection under Section 5, each school must be inspected within three school years from the end of the school year in which the last inspection took place. Regulations were amended from September 2009 to require that each school be inspected within five school years from the end of the school year in which the last inspection took place. Under the revised inspection framework introduced in September 2009, a proportionate approach was adopted to focus resources on those schools which would benefit most from inspection. Consequently, schools whose overall effectiveness is judged to be Satisfactory are inspected around every three years, while in general those whose overall effectiveness is judged to be Good or Outstanding are inspected around every five years, though may be inspected earlier. Those whose overall effectiveness is judged to be Inadequate continue to receive more frequent monitoring visits.

⁵² Ofsted (2012) *The framework for school inspection: Guidance and grade descriptors for inspecting schools in England under Section 5 of the Education Act 2005, from January 2012* Manchester: Ofsted

Regulations commenced in June 2012 to enable schools judged outstanding in their previous inspection are to be exempt from routine inspections unless risk assessment raises concerns about their performance (under Section 40 of the Education Act 2011). However, they will continue to be visited as part of subject and thematic inspections to identify the best practice.

These and other changes in the inspection framework mean that it is not advisable to compare figures between changes, as the differences in the level of behaviour may be a result of the modified framework rather than any *real change* in the standards of behaviour.

The current framework

The data in Table 2.1 was collected by Ofsted under the September 2009 Section 5 framework. Under this framework, schools are awarded grades for the behaviour of their learners on a scale from 1-4 (1= Outstanding; 2= Good; 3= Satisfactory; 4=Inadequate). This grading system will continue under the revisions of January 2012 but will be revised from September 2012 to be 1= Outstanding; 2= Good; 3= Requires Improvement; 4= Inadequate. Around one third of schools are inspected every year resulting in a typical cycle of approximately one inspection every three years; not all schools will fit this pattern, especially in the case of those issued with a notice to improve or placed in special measures, who will receive more frequent inspections. Due to the nature of the process, schools are sometimes inspected less frequently than every three years and a proportion of new schools will not yet have received their first inspection at any one time.

For more information on the current framework (from January 2012) and changes to the framework see: <http://www.ofsted.gov.uk/schools/for-schools/inspecting-schools>.

Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (LSYPE)

LSYPE is a longitudinal cohort study launched in 2004, which follows a cohort of circa 15,500 young people in England from the age of 13/14, when respondents were in Year 9 at school. The study brings together data from several sources, including annual interviews with a single cohort of young people and their parents, and administrative sources. The aim of the study is to gather evidence about transitions young people make from secondary education into higher and further education or training, and also economic activity in young adulthood. LSYPE respondents were first interviewed in the spring of 2004 and were interviewed annually until 2010, when the cohort was aged 19/20. For the first four waves of LSYPE, the parents or guardians of the respondents were also interviewed.

The analyses in this topic note primarily focus on waves one, three and six of the survey, which collected a wide range of information on the attitudes, behaviour and background of the young person taking part in the survey as well as their parent(s).

Table A.1 shows the LSYPE wave schedule and characteristics collected between waves one and seven.

Table A.1: Longitudinal Study of Young People in England, details of survey waves 1 to 7

LSYPE Wave	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respondent interviewed	Young Person Main Parent Second Parent	Young Person Main Parent Second Parent	Young Person Main Parent	Young Person Main Parent	Young Person	Young Person	Young Person
Interview method	Face to face	Face to face	Face to face	Face to face	Online Telephone Face to face	Online Telephone Face to face	Online Telephone Face to face
Age of Young Person respondent	13/14	14/15	15/16	16/17	17/18	18/19	19/20
Academic Year	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10
School Year – as reflected in questionnaires	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12	Year 13	First Year in higher education	Second Year in higher education
Interviewed in Spring/Summer of	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Key Stage/ Exams	Key Stage 3 - SATS		Key Stage 4 – GCSEs taken in summer 2006	First year of GCE/VE Applied A Levels etc	Key Stage 5 – final year of GCE/VCE Applied A Levels etc. exams taken in summer 2008		
Number of respondents (rounded to the nearest 50)	15,800	13,550	12,450	11,800	10,400	9,800	8,700

Source: DfE iLSYPE website (undated)

<https://www.education.gov.uk/ilstype/workspaces/public/wiki/Welcome>

For more information on LSYPE, see

<http://www.esds.ac.uk/longitudinal/access/lstype/L5545.asp> or

<https://www.education.gov.uk/ilstype/>.

National Pupil Database (NPD)

For much of the analysis of LSYPE in this note, data was matched to the National Pupil Database (NPD), which is a longitudinal database which

matches the attainment and characteristics of pupils in maintained schools across England.

The NPD holds pupil and school characteristics e.g. age, gender, ethnicity, attendance and exclusions (sourced from the School Census for maintained primary, state-funded secondary and all special schools only), matched to pupil level attainment data (Foundation Stage Profile (FSP), Key Stage (KS) assessments and external examinations). This data is collected from schools and Local Authorities (LAs) by the Department for Education, and the Standards and Testing Agency (formerly, the Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency (QCDA)) and awarding bodies.

The School Census collects pupil-level absence data on a termly basis (spring, summer and autumn collections) for maintained primary and state-funded secondary schools as well as City Technology Colleges and Academies, and annually for special schools.

More information on the School Census is available at

<http://www.education.gov.uk/schools/adminandfinance/schooladmin/ims/datacollections/schoolcensus>

Annex B: Variables included in the model of KS2-4 attainment

The base attainment model consisted of three sets of characteristics: prior attainment; individual pupil characteristics; and school characteristics. All the variables used come from the School Census. The model was also extended by other LSYPE factors listed below:

- Household income and material deprivation;
- Area deprivation;
- Family composition;
- Parental employment status;
- Pupil aspirations;
- Parental engagement;
- Parental background (social class and education levels);
- School composition; and
- School effectiveness;

For the purpose of our analysis, the model was extended even further by the addition of behaviour and attitude factors from LSYPE that are known to be related to attainment, such as:

- Behaviour by self and others and disruption in class
- School rules and discipline
- Teachers' abilities to control pupils
- Absence

The full set of factors are shown in the table below. They have been grouped into broad themes and they enable the impacts of different types of factors to be compared.

Additional components in the attainment model

Category	Additional components
School ethos	Number of rules in school Level of discipline in school
Misbehaviour	Self-reported misbehaviour or troublemaking in class Misbehaviour or troublemaking by others in class Difficulty to study or follow a teacher in a class because of bad behaviour by others
Attitudes towards school	Pupil thinks school is a waste of time Pupil most of the time does not want to go to school Pupil thinks people think that pupil's school is a good school On the whole pupil likes being in school Pupil works as hard as he/she can
Teacher discipline	How many teachers at school make it clear how pupils should behave How many teachers can keep order in class How hard teachers try to make young person work
Bullying	Whether anyone in household has reported bullying
Truancy	Frequency of playing truant Reasons for playing truant
Aspirations	Pupil aspirations
Income and material deprivation	Household income Access to a computer/internet/vehicle Paying for private classes
Parental background	Family's Socio-Economic Classification Parental education level
Family composition	Parental arrangement in household Birth order within siblings Employment status of adults in household
Parental engagement	Parental aspirations for child's activities post-16 Involvement in child's Year 10 subject choice Talking with child about their school reports Frequency of eating family meals Opinion on info provided by school about child's progress Attendance at parents' evenings or similar events
School composition	School FSM band KS2 average point score of KS4 cohort Gender mix of school
School effectiveness	School KS2-4 Contextual Value Added for 2006

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