

PREVENTING CLASSROOM DISRUPTION

Policy, Practice and Evaluation
in Urban Schools

David Coulby and Tim Harper

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*POLICY, PRACTICE AND EVALUATION
IN URBAN SCHOOLS*

*DAVID COULBY
AND TIM HARPER*



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PREFACE

The Authors.

David Coulby taught for nine years mostly in East London. He established and took charge of the ILEA Division 5 Schools Support Unit for its first two years. Following this he lectured in urban education at the University of London Institute of Education. He is now head of the department of teaching studies at North London Polytechnic.

Tim Harper trained as an educational psychologist at University College, London. He worked in the London Borough of Haringey for five years and has been attached to the Division 5 Schools Support Unit in the ILEA as its psychologist for the last six years since its inception.

Although both authors are working, or have worked, for the ILEA, the views expressed in this book are entirely their own and do not necessarily represent the authority's ideas or policies.

INTRODUCTION

This book attempts to show that children who are perceived to be disruptive in their primary or secondary schools need not be excluded into a form of special provision. Neither special schools, nor the variously named disruptive units, have shown that they can make a significant improvement to the behaviour of such children once they are returned to mainstream school. However, we suggest that outbreaks of classroom disruption in primary and secondary schools can be reduced without excluding particular children. This assertion is based largely on our work in, and evaluation of, an urban support team. The team is called the ILEA Division 5 Schools Support Unit, and its method of working is described in Chapter 2. Both authors played a significant part in the development of this team. They also set up a long-term evaluation of its work. This evaluation is reported in Chapter 3.

Chapters 4 and 5 concentrate on the ways in which classrooms and schools can change to prevent incidents of disruption. Chapter 6 looks at how support teams can facilitate the integration of children perceived to have special needs. The book aims to deal in some detail with practical methods whereby exclusion to segregated provision can be avoided. To this end we present, in the course of the chapters, sections of illustrative material. These illustrations may be of work in specific contexts and with particular children; they may present case material within formats used by the unit or they may concentrate on the difficulties encountered by a team member in a certain situation. The content of this material is by no means a statistically representative sample of the Support Unit's work, but it will vividly exemplify what we mean by disruptive behaviour. To preserve the confidentiality of the

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participants, this illustrative material has been partly fictionalised.

Chapters 1 and 7 attempt to frame the descriptive, evaluative and practical components of the book within the wider educational debate. The way in which some children are categorised as disruptive in schools is examined. The growth of segregated provision is seen alongside the apparently opposite trends towards comprehensivisation and the integration of pupils perceived to have special needs.

We would like to acknowledge the help of past and present members of the Schools Support Unit with whom we discussed the ideas and practices presented in this book. In particular we would like to thank those who allowed aspects of their work to be presented as illustrative material. We would also wish to acknowledge the help of the schools and educational services of ILEA Division 5 who cooperated in the establishment of the team, and all those teachers who patiently filled in the apparently endless sequence of questionnaires which were essential to our evaluation. We owe special thanks to David Lane and his colleagues at the Islington Educational Guidance Centre for discussions with them. Dr. Peter Mortimore of ILEA Research and Statistics encouraged and guided our evaluation; our thanks are due to him and to his staff for help with running our data through the computer. Our typist, Mrs. Sibylle Muirden, transformed our manuscript into a neat typescript with speed and precision. Additional thanks to her.

Finally, in recognition of the importance of the work of the past, present and future members of the support team, we would like to dedicate this book to the memory of Nigel Pryor.

Chapter 1

THE CONCEPT OF CLASSROOM DISRUPTION

1.1 Ploughman's Lunch.

In the 1970's the education system in England and Wales created a new category of pupil, "the disruptive child". It was rather like the creation of the ploughman's lunch made famous in the film of that name. What now seems like a traditional and appetizingly earthy part of our gastronomic culture, stretching back into the mists of medieval folklore, was actually a concept put together by an advertising agency less than fifteen years ago. Similarly, the word disruptive is now applied by educators to pupils as if it signified a well-known type of child. The category now has the authority of the familiar, of the educationally accepted. It is this acceptance that we wish to challenge. At the outset it might be best to assert boldly that there is no such thing as a disruptive pupil. Certain pupils behave disruptively in some lessons, with some teachers, in some environments at certain times of the day or week. Some pupils behave disruptively in corridors, playgrounds and staircases. Do any pupils behave disruptively with all teachers? in all lessons? in all contexts? And if they did, would disruptive any longer be the best way of describing them? Disruptive is a word better applied to forms of behaviour or to situations than to pupils. Most labels simplify life for the person doing the categorising. For the person who is categorised, however, they may have pernicious and long-term consequences.

There is more here than semantics. If we perceive a situation to be disruptive, then this is a temporary state of affairs, and one which involves several participants. If we perceive behaviour to be disruptive, then this is something which can change into other more appropriate behaviours. But if we perceive a pupil to be disruptive, this is somehow something to do with his/her personality or nature.

The concept of classroom disruption

This means that we are more likely to regard it as permanent and difficult to change. We will probably then see any incident in which a "disruptive pupil" is involved as caused by him/her rather than as a clash between various participants within a specific context. In other words, now that the category of disruptive exists, it is easy for particular pupils to be stigmatised, but it is actually more difficult to conceptualise ways of developing change in behaviour, or of diminishing the frequency of disruptive incidents. Why should anyone waste time trying to develop plans for change and improvement when it is clear that it is the child who is disruptive? The existence of the category "disruptive pupil" both in the provision of a local education authority and in the mental set of educators, may then actually serve to inhibit methods of cutting down disruption in mainstream primary and secondary schools.

It is possible to ask how "the disruptive pupil" was created. This question may be answered in two ways: by reference to the way in which the category of disruptive pupils came into existence in the education system of England and Wales; or by reference to the way in which specific children acquire the label whilst in mainstream primary and secondary schools. These two aspects of the question will each be considered in some detail.

1.2 The Creation of the Category.

Children have always indulged in disruptive behaviour in schools. We say this blandly in order not to give the impression that there is no such thing as disruptive behaviour, or that particular children do not have a predilection for it. Nor do we wish to assert that bullying, racism, rudeness, theft and vandalism are really quite acceptable. They are no more acceptable in a school than in any other institution. Indeed, many writers, following Durkheim, have seen the socialisation of children into generally accepted patterns of behaviour to be one of the main tasks of the school. Particularly in infant schools, the encouragement of co-operation, good working habits, friendliness and mutual tolerance and respect are significant aspects of the work of the teacher. This is sometimes regarded as a rather sinister form of social control. It is necessary at this stage, then, to make a working distinction between socialisation and social control.

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Socialisation of young children takes place in the family and the school. It serves to allow young people to accommodate to society. This need not mean that they accept unquestioningly all its values, practices and institutions. Rather, they should learn to work co-operatively, tolerantly and with determination to change and develop those elements which they consider to be incommensurate with human needs. Preventing bullying and exploitation in schools, for instance, and persuading children that this is an unpleasant type of activity may be seen as a valid form of socialisation. However, what may be excused as socialisation in many schools, is perhaps more correctly seen as systematic social control. Unquestioning obedience, uniformity of appearance, regimentation, and unflinching patience are examples of social control exerted over pupils in many schools. We discuss some of the consequences of, and alternatives to, rigid social control in this and succeeding chapters.

Disruptive behaviour has been perceived and treated differently by teachers at different stages of educational history. In the late nineteenth century, after the introduction of universal compulsory schooling, it was likely to be seen as morally reprehensible, bad, even evil. Corporal punishment was a method frequently employed to attempt to control such behaviour and punish the sinners. In the twentieth century, medical and psychodynamic explanations became more socially acceptable, indeed, fashionable. Children behaved inappropriately because there was something wrong with them; either they were "mentally defective", or they were sick in some way. Maladjustment, as a category, developed out of this paradigm. Children who did not conform were perceived as maladjusted, because their home life was stressful, they had not received sufficient maternal affection at an early age, they were acting out oedipal anxieties, or whatever. Treatment was to separate them from their less deviant peers, and to educate them together in an ethos of "stern love". This philosophy can still be found in some schools for maladjusted pupils in England and Wales today. However, there has been a trend to refer to these schools fewer children remarkable for their interesting middle-class problems, and many more of those whose violent, unruly behaviour is more popularly associated with working class and black groups (Bowman, I., 1981). This has meant that the philosophy of these schools has been increasingly difficult to put into practice.

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As the category of maladjusted was increasingly stretched to allow the incorporation of boisterous working-class youth within the segregated educational provision, a new growth area was being established. These same children were also being referred to ESN (M) schools in large numbers. These referrals were more likely to be on the basis of perceived behaviour than of their academic performance (Tomlinson, S., 1981). Between 1950 and 1977, according to the DES, the number of children in ESN (M) schools in England and Wales rose from 15,173 to 55,698. Over the same period the number in schools for the maladjusted exploded from 467 to 10,452.

Towards the end of this period a new explanation of disruptive behaviour, based on social learning theory, began to emerge. Children were seen as having learnt patterns of behaviour according to the contingent reinforcements of their specific social contexts. Some of the segregated special schools began to develop methods of education and treatment based on these theories. This involved positive reinforcement and rewards for appropriate behaviour, sometimes organised around token economies. At the same time the term disruptive came to be used, sometimes alongside and sometimes in place of previous labels such as maladjusted or disturbed. Despite the rapidly rising numbers of places available in special schools, there was pressure to segregate even more children, and to exclude them quickly without the lengthy embarrassment of special education procedures. Tutorial centres, guidance units, support units, sanctuaries, alternative classes, opportunity groups, and a host of other euphemistically named provisions sprang up both on and off the sites of mainstream schools. What had happened to the schools of England and Wales since the 1944 Education Act that had necessitated the exclusion of so many children first into special school provision and then, additionally, into the various units?

One noticeable change which had taken place in many local education authorities was the progress towards comprehensive schooling. There is no obvious reason why this move towards greater educational equality should lead to disruptive behaviour in classrooms. Yet Hargreaves has pointed to some of the difficulties that beset the implementation of the policy which, significantly, was seen as providing "grammar schools for all" (Hargreaves, D., 1982). The skills and flexibilities of secondary modern schools and their teachers tended to be undervalued and neglected in the new (often amalgamated) compre-

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hensive schools. In the attempt to stamp the grammar school ethos and the grammar school curriculum on all children, it is possible that the potentialities for friction and boredom were increased. This is not to imply that children from secondary modern schools were less "intelligent" than those from grammar schools, or less capable of performing well at a rigorous curriculum. Rather, there was a mismatch between the needs and interests of the children and the expectations of those teachers who came to control the new institutions. Institutions which practise streaming and which value elitist knowledge and examination success may alienate those pupils whom they label as less successful.

In some authorities comprehensivisation was followed by the introduction of restrictions on the use of corporal punishment. Some teachers and heads assumed that this would leave them with no coercive threat with which to enforce discipline. As the ILEA, for instance, moved towards completely banning corporal punishment, there was pressure from many people, especially in secondary schools, for some alternative to be provided. The planning and implementation of ILEA's vast disruptive units programme may well have been a response to this (Reece, M., 1983). The unpalatable fact seems to be that some teachers, when deprived of the right to beat their pupils, determined that the only way to deal with them was to exclude them from the mainstream school. Local education authorities seem to have been surprisingly willing to collaborate in this process.

It is perhaps appropriate to mention briefly the wide context within which the category of disruption was created. In the early seventies popular discourse, orchestrated by the media, adopted the language of crisis. Two notable crises were "the urban crisis" and "the youth crisis". The urban crisis was a headline formula for the run down of many of Britain's inner cities, associated with the exodus of industry, commerce, and the prosperous section of the population. The inner cities had become areas of concentration for poverty, "social problems", and crime. Classroom disruption in inner city schools would then be located within a specific iconography of popular conceptions. The crisis of youth concerned the moral panic about the highly visible, and occasionally violent, activities of some youth subcultures such as skinheads or punks. "The disruptive pupil" could easily be inserted into this familiar media demonology. The creation of "the disruptive pupil" arose against a background of esca-

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lating youth unemployment and urban decline, but these factors were re-interpreted through a conservative climate of concern, which perceived them as issues of undisciplined young people, seaside riots, mugging, glue-sniffing, and so on.

We are at pains to avoid giving the idea that the amount or intensity of classroom disruption actually increased during the 1970's. It is likely that the change came in the relative tolerance of teachers who, concerned with the academic progress of the majority, were less able to deal flexibly with the distracting, counterproductive activities of a minority. However, at one point in the early 1970's, the teacher shortage in many urban areas was so severe that schools were severely constrained in their educational activities. It may well be that during this period there was a higher level of disruptive behaviour in some schools. This could then be reformulated by some teachers, newspapers, and popular concern as yet another aspect of the crisis of city youth. Instead of more and better teachers, a pressure developed for the short, sharp shock model of custodial care and for segregated disruptive units.

The growth of disruptive units in England and Wales occurred at the initiative of local education authorities. Probably responding to similar pressures, they copied expeditious forms of provision which were seen to have developed in other areas. There was no central instruction or guidelines from the Department of Education and Science. A document from Her Majesty's Inspectorate described and catalogued the developments, expressing neither approval nor disapproval (HMI, 1978). Their dubious legality under the 1944 Act remained unquestioned until the Rampton Report (DES, 1981, p.50). It is surprising that their legality has rarely been challenged in that they provide a method of excluding children from their mainstream classrooms, sometimes for several years, without the safeguards of a special education referral. A child can be placed full-time in a unit often simply at the request of the head-teacher with or without the agreement of other teachers. The risks of arbitrariness, or even victimisation are apparently unchecked either by the scrutiny of outside professionals, the possibility of DES intervention, or by rights provided to parents and children in law.

This was the background against which the units developed, and the category of "disruptive pupils" became institutionalised. According to the DES the number of units rose from 23 in 1970 to 239 in 1977.